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This book is dedicated to Professor Myers Foreman. Myers used this book in CS1, CS2, and CS3 at Lamar University and provided invaluable suggestions for improving the book. Sadly, Myers passed away after he completed the review of this edition.

To Samantha, Michael, and Michelle
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Dear Reader,

Many of you have provided feedback on earlier editions of this book, and your comments and suggestions have greatly improved the book. This edition has been substantially enhanced in presentation, organization, examples, exercises, and supplements. We have:

- Reorganized sections and chapters to present the subjects in a more logical order
- Included many new interesting examples and exercises to stimulate interests
- Updated to Java 7
- Created animations for algorithms and data structures to visually demonstrate the concepts
- Redesigned the support Website to make it easier to navigate

This book teaches programming in a problem-driven way that focuses on problem solving rather than syntax. We make introductory programming interesting by using thought-provoking problems in a broad context. The central thread of early chapters is on problem solving. Appropriate syntax and library are introduced to enable readers to write programs for solving the problems. To support the teaching of programming in a problem-driven way, the book provides a wide variety of problems at various levels of difficulty to motivate students. To appeal to students in all majors, the problems cover many application areas, including math, science, business, financial, gaming, animation, and multimedia.

The book focuses on fundamentals first by introducing basic programming concepts and techniques before designing custom classes. The fundamental concepts and techniques of loops, methods, and arrays are the foundation for programming. Building this strong foundation prepares students to learn object-oriented programming and advanced Java programming.

This comprehensive version covers fundamentals of programming, object-oriented programming, GUI programming, algorithms and data structures, concurrency, networking, internationalization, advanced GUI, database, and Web programming. It is designed to prepare students to become proficient Java programmers. A brief version (Introduction to Java Programming, Brief Version, Ninth Edition) is available for a first course on programming, commonly known as CS1. The brief version contains the first 20 chapters of the comprehensive version.

The best way to teach programming is by example, and the only way to learn programming is by doing. Basic concepts are explained by example, and a large number of exercises with various levels of difficulty are provided for students to practice. For our programming courses, we assign programming exercises after each lecture.

Our goal is to produce a text that teaches problem solving and programming in a broad context using a wide variety of interesting examples. If you have any comments on and suggestions for improving the book, please email me.

Sincerely,

Y. Daniel Liang

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www.pearsonhighered.com/liang
What’s New in This Edition?

This edition substantially improves *Introduction to Java Programming*, Eighth Edition. The major improvements are as follows:

- **Complete Revision**: This edition is completely revised in every detail to enhance clarity, presentation, content, examples, and exercises.
- **New Problems**: New examples and exercises are provided to motivate and stimulate student interest in programming.
- **Key Point**: Each section starts with a Key Point that highlights the important concepts covered in the section.
- **Check Points**: Check Points provide review questions to help students track their progress and evaluate their learning after a major concept or example is covered.
- **Test Questions**: Each chapter provides test questions online. They are grouped by sections for students to do self-test. The questions are graded online.
- **VideoNotes**: New VideoNotes provide short video tutorials designed to reinforce code.
- **Basic GUI and Graphics Early**: The Java GUI API is an excellent example of how the object-oriented principle is applied. Students learn better with concrete and visual examples. So basic GUI/Graphics is moved before introducing abstract classes and interfaces. You can however still choose to cover abstract classes and interfaces before GUI or skip GUI.
- **Numeric Classes Covered Early**: The numeric wrapper classes, `BigInteger`, and `BigDecimal` are now introduced in Chapter 10 to enable students to write code using these classes early.
- **Exception Handling Earlier**: Exception handling is covered before abstract classes and interfaces so that students can build robust programs early. The instructor can still choose to cover exception handling later. Text I/O is now combined with exception handling to form a new chapter.
- **Simple Generics Early**: Simple use of generics is introduced along with `ArrayList` in Chapter 11 and with `Comparable` in Chapter 15 while the complex detail on generics is still kept in Chapter 21.
- **Splitting Chapter 22**: Chapter 22 is split into two chapters (Chapter 22 and Chapter 23) to make room for incorporating three new case studies to demonstrate effective use of data structures.
- **Developing Efficient Algorithms**: Chapter 24 is expanded to introduce algorithmic techniques: dynamic programming, divide-and-conquer, backtracking, and greedy algorithm with new examples to design efficient algorithms.
- **Data Structures and Algorithm Animation**: Visual animations are created to show how data structures and algorithms work.
- **New Data Structures Materials**: A common problem with a data structures course is lack of good examples and exercises. This edition added many new interesting examples and exercises.
- **Parallel Programming**: Parallel programming techniques are introduced in Chapter 32, Multithreading and Parallel Programming.
- **New JSF Chapter**: Chapter 44 is completely new to introduce the latest standard on JSF.
- **New JUnit Chapter**: Chapter 50 is completely new to introduce testing using JUnit.

Please visit [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/newfeatures.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/newfeatures.html) for a complete list of new features as well as correlations to the previous edition.
Pedagogical Features

The book uses the following elements to help students get the most from the material:

- **The Objectives** at the beginning of each chapter list what students should learn from the chapter. This will help them determine whether they have met the objectives after completing the chapter.

- **The Introduction** opens the discussion with representative problems to give the reader an overview of what to expect from the chapter.

- **Key Points** highlight the important concepts covered in each section.

- **Check Points** provide review questions to help students track their progress as they read through the chapter and evaluate their learning.

- **Problems and Case Studies**, carefully chosen and presented in an easy-to-follow style, teach problem solving and programming concepts. The book uses many small, simple, and stimulating examples to demonstrate important ideas.

- **The Chapter Summary** reviews the important subjects that students should understand and remember. It helps them reinforce the key concepts they have learned in the chapter.

- **Test Questions** are accessible online, grouped by sections, for students to do self-test on programming concepts and techniques.

- **Programming Exercises** are grouped by sections to provide students with opportunities to apply the new skills they have learned on their own. The level of difficulty is rated as easy (no asterisk), moderate (*), hard (**), or challenging (***)

- **Notes, Tips, Cautions, and Design Guides** are inserted throughout the text to offer valuable advice and insight on important aspects of program development.

- **Note**
  Provides additional information on the subject and reinforces important concepts.

- **Tip**
  Teaches good programming style and practice.

- **Caution**
  Helps students steer away from the pitfalls of programming errors.

- **Design Guide**
  Provides guidelines for designing programs.

Flexible Chapter Orderings

The book is designed to provide flexible chapter orderings to enable GUI, exception handling, recursion, generics, and the Java Collections Framework to be covered earlier or later. The diagram on the next page shows the chapter dependencies.

Organization of the Book

The chapters can be grouped into five parts that, taken together, form a comprehensive introduction to Java programming, data structures and algorithms, and database and Web programming. Because knowledge is cumulative, the early chapters provide the conceptual basis
Note: Chapters 1–20 are in the brief version of this book.

Note: Chapters 1–34 are in the comprehensive version.

Note: Chapters 35–50 are bonus chapters available from the Companion Website.
for understanding programming and guide students through simple examples and exercises; subsequent chapters progressively present Java programming in detail, culminating with the development of comprehensive Java applications. The appendixes contain a mixed bag of topics, including an introduction to number systems and bitwise operations.

**Part I: Fundamentals of Programming (Chapters 1–7)**

The first part of the book is a stepping stone, preparing you to embark on the journey of learning Java. You will begin to learn about Java (Chapter 1) and fundamental programming techniques with primitive data types, variables, constants, assignments, expressions, and operators (Chapter 2), control statements (Chapters 3–4), methods (Chapter 5), and arrays (Chapters 6–7). After Chapter 6, you can jump to Chapter 20 to learn how to write recursive methods for solving inherently recursive problems.

**Part II: Object-Oriented Programming (Chapters 8–11, 14–15, and 19)**

This part introduces object-oriented programming. Java is an object-oriented programming language that uses abstraction, encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism to provide great flexibility, modularity, and reusability in developing software. You will learn programming with objects and classes (Chapters 8–10), class inheritance (Chapter 11), polymorphism (Chapter 11), exception handling and text I/O (Chapter 14), abstract classes (Chapter 15), and interfaces (Chapter 15). Processing strings is introduced in Chapter 9, and binary I/O is discussed in Chapter 19.

**Part III: GUI Programming (Chapters 12–13, 16–18, and Bonus Chapters 36–40 and 49)**

This part introduces elementary Java GUI programming in Chapters 12–13 and 16–18 and advanced Java GUI programming in Chapters 36–40 and 49. Major topics include GUI basics (Chapter 12), drawing shapes (Chapter 13), event-driven programming (Chapter 16), using GUI components (Chapter 17), and writing applets (Chapter 18). You will learn the architecture of Java GUI programming and use the GUI components to develop applications and applets from these elementary GUI chapters. The advanced GUI chapters discuss Java GUI programming in more depth and breadth. You will delve into JavaBeans and learn how to develop custom events and source components in Chapter 36, review and explore new containers, layout managers, and borders in Chapter 37, learn how to create GUI with menus, popup menus, toolbars, dialogs, and internal frames in Chapter 38, develop components using the MVC approach and explore the advanced Swing components `JSpinner`, `JList`, and `JComboBox` in Chapter 39, and `JTable` and `JTree` in Chapter 40. Chapter 49 introduces Java 2D.

**Part IV: Data Structures and Algorithms (Chapters 20–31 and Bonus Chapters 47–48)**

This part covers the main subjects in a typical data structures course. Chapter 20 introduces recursion to write methods for solving inherently recursive problems. Chapter 21 presents how generics can improve software reliability. Chapters 22 and 23 introduce the Java Collection Framework, which defines a set of useful API for data structures. Chapter 24 discusses measuring algorithm efficiency in order to choose an appropriate algorithm for applications. Chapter 25 describes classic sorting algorithms. You will learn how to implement several classic data structures lists, queues, and priority queues in Chapter 26. Chapters 27 and 29 introduce binary search trees and AVL trees. Chapter 28 presents hashing and implementing maps and sets using hashing. Chapters 30 and 31 introduce graph applications. The 2-4 trees, B-trees, and red-black trees are covered in Chapters 47–48.

**Part V: Advanced Java Programming (Chapters 32–33 and Bonus Chapters 35, 41–46, and 50)**

This part of the book is devoted to advanced Java programming. Chapter 32 treats the use of multithreading to make programs more responsive and interactive and introduces parallel programming. Chapter 33 discusses how to write programs that talk with each other
over the Internet. Chapter 34 introduces the use of Java to develop database projects, and Chapter 35 covers the use of internationalization support to develop projects for international audiences. Chapter 41 delves into advanced Java database programming. Bonus Chapters 42, 43 and 44 introduce how to use Java servlets, JavaServer Pages, and JavaServer Faces to generate dynamic content from Web servers. Chapter 45 discusses Web services, and Chapter 46 introduces remote method invocation. Chapter 50 introduces testing Java programs using JUnit.

Appendixes
This part of the book covers a mixed bag of topics. Appendix A lists Java keywords. Appendix B gives tables of ASCII characters and their associated codes in decimal and in hex. Appendix C shows the operator precedence. Appendix D summarizes Java modifiers and their usage. Appendix E discusses special floating-point values. Appendix F introduces number systems and conversions among binary, decimal, and hex numbers. Finally, Appendix G introduces bitwise operations.

Java Development Tools
You can use a text editor, such as the Windows Notepad or WordPad, to create Java programs and to compile and run the programs from the command window. You can also use a Java development tool, such as TextPad, NetBeans, or Eclipse. These tools support an integrated development environment (IDE) for developing Java programs quickly. Editing, compiling, building, executing, and debugging programs are integrated in one graphical user interface. Using these tools effectively can greatly increase your programming productivity. TextPad is a primitive IDE tool. NetBeans and Eclipse are more sophisticated, but they are easy to use if you follow the tutorials. Tutorials on TextPad, NetBeans, and Eclipse can be found in the supplements on the Companion Website www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e.

Online Practice and Assessment with MyProgrammingLab
MyProgrammingLab helps students fully grasp the logic, semantics, and syntax of programming. Through practice exercises and immediate, personalized feedback, MyProgrammingLab improves the programming competence of beginning students who often struggle with the basic concepts and paradigms of popular high-level programming languages.

A self-study and homework tool, a MyProgrammingLab course consists of hundreds of small practice problems organized around the structure of this textbook. For students, the system automatically detects errors in the logic and syntax of their code submissions and offers targeted hints that enable students to figure out what went wrong—and why. For instructors, a comprehensive gradebook tracks correct and incorrect answers and stores the code inputted by students for review.

MyProgrammingLab is offered to users of this book in partnership with Turing’s Craft, the makers of the CodeLab interactive programming exercise system. For a full demonstration, to see feedback from instructors and students, or to get started using MyProgrammingLab in your course, visit www.myprogramminglab.com.

VideoNotes
We are excited about the new VideoNotes feature that is found in this new edition. These videos provide additional help by presenting examples of key topics and showing how to solve problems completely, from design through coding. VideoNotes are free to first time users and can be accessed by redeeming the access code in the front of this book at www.pearsonhighered.com/liang.
LiveLab

This book is accompanied by a complementary Web-based course assessment and management system for instructors. The system has four main components:

- The **Automatic Grading System** can automatically grade programs.
- The **Quiz Creation/Submission/Grading System** enables instructors to create and modify quizzes that students can take and be graded upon automatically.
- The **Peer Evaluation System** enables peer evaluations.
- **Tracking grades, attendance, etc.,** lets students track their grades, and enables instructors to view the grades of all students and to track students’ attendance.

The main features of the Automatic Grading System include:

- Students can run and submit exercises. (The system checks whether their program runs correctly—students can continue to run and resubmit the program before the due date.)
- Instructors can review submissions, run programs with instructor test cases, correct them, provide feedback to students, and check plagiarism.
- Instructors can create/modify their own exercises, create public and secret test cases, assign exercises, and set due dates for the whole class or for individuals.
- Instructors can assign all the exercises in the text to students. Additionally, LiveLab provides extra exercises that are not printed in the text.
- Instructors can sort and filter all exercises and check grades (by time frame, student, and/or exercise).
- Instructors can delete students from the system.
- Students and instructors can track grades on exercises.

The main features of the Quiz System are:

- Instructors can create/modify quizzes from the test bank or a text file or create completely new tests online.
- Instructors can assign the quizzes to students and set a due date and test time limit for the whole class or for individuals.
- Students and instructors can review submitted quizzes.
- Instructors can analyze quizzes and identify students’ weaknesses.
- Students and instructors can track grades on quizzes.

The main features of the Peer Evaluation System include:

- Instructors can assign peer evaluation for programming exercises.
- Instructors can view peer evaluation reports.

Student Resource Website

The **Student Resource Website** ([www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e)) contains the following resources:

- Access to VideoNotes ([www.pearsonhighered.com/liang](http://www.pearsonhighered.com/liang)).
- Answers to check point questions.
Instructor Resource Website

The Instructor Resource Website, accessible from www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e, contains the following resources:

- Microsoft PowerPoint slides with interactive buttons to view full-color, syntax-highlighted source code and to run programs without leaving the slides.
- Solutions to all programming exercises. Students will have access to the solutions of even-numbered programming exercises.
- Web-based quiz generator. (Instructors can choose chapters to generate quizzes from a large database of more than two thousand questions.)
- Sample exams. Most exams have four parts:
  - Multiple-choice questions or short-answer questions
  - Correct programming errors
  - Trace programs
  - Write programs
- Projects. In general, each project gives a description and asks students to analyze, design, and implement the project.

Some readers have requested the materials from the Instructor Resource Website. Please understand that these are for instructors only. Such requests will not be answered.

Algorithm Animations

We have provided numerous animations for algorithms. These are valuable pedagogical tools to demonstrate how algorithms work. Algorithm animations can be accessed from the Companion Website.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Armstrong Atlantic State University for enabling me to teach what I write and for supporting me in writing what I teach. Teaching is the source of inspiration for continuing to improve the book. I am grateful to the instructors and students who have offered comments, suggestions, bug reports, and praise.

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INTRODUCTION TO COMPUTERS, PROGRAMS, AND JAVA

Objectives

■ To understand computer basics, programs, and operating systems (§§1.2–1.4).
■ To describe the relationship between Java and the World Wide Web (§1.5).
■ To understand the meaning of Java language specification, API, JDK, and IDE (§1.6).
■ To write a simple Java program (§1.7).
■ To display output on the console (§1.7).
■ To explain the basic syntax of a Java program (§1.7).
■ To create, compile, and run Java programs (§1.8).
■ To display output using the JOptionPane message dialog boxes (§1.9).
■ To become familiar with Java programming style and documentation (§1.10).
■ To explain the differences between syntax errors, runtime errors, and logic errors (§1.11).
1.1 Introduction

The central theme of this book is to learn how to solve problems by writing a program.

This book is about programming. So, what is programming? The term programming means to create (or develop) software, which is also called a program. In basic terms, software contains the instructions that tell a computer—or a computerized device—what to do.

Software is all around you, even in devices that you might not think would need it. Of course, you expect to find and use software on a personal computer, but software also plays a role in running airplanes, cars, cell phones, and even toasters. On a personal computer, you use word processors to write documents, Web browsers to explore the Internet, and e-mail programs to send messages. These programs are all examples of software. Software developers create software with the help of powerful tools called programming languages.

This book teaches you how to create programs by using the Java programming language. There are many programming languages, some of which are decades old. Each language was invented for a specific purpose—to build on the strengths of a previous language, for example, or to give the programmer a new and unique set of tools. Knowing that there are so many programming languages available, it would be natural for you to wonder which one is best. But, in truth, there is no “best” language. Each one has its own strengths and weaknesses. Experienced programmers know that one language might work well in some situations, whereas a different language may be more appropriate in other situations. For this reason, seasoned programmers try to master as many different programming languages as they can, giving them access to a vast arsenal of software-development tools.

If you learn to program using one language, you should find it easy to pick up other languages. The key is to learn how to solve problems using a programming approach. That is the main theme of this book.

You are about to begin an exciting journey: learning how to program. At the outset, it is helpful to review computer basics, programs, and operating systems. If you are already familiar with such terms as CPU, memory, disks, operating systems, and programming languages, you may skip the review in Sections 1.2–1.4.

1.2 What Is a Computer?

A computer is an electronic device that stores and processes data.

A computer includes both hardware and software. In general, hardware comprises the visible, physical elements of the computer, and software provides the invisible instructions that control the hardware and make it perform specific tasks. Knowing computer hardware isn’t essential to learning a programming language, but it can help you better understand the effects that a program’s instructions have on the computer and its components. This section introduces computer hardware components and their functions.

A computer consists of the following major hardware components (Figure 1.1):

- A central processing unit (CPU)
- Memory (main memory)
- Storage devices (such as disks and CDs)
- Input devices (such as the mouse and keyboard)
- Output devices (such as monitors and printers)
- Communication devices (such as modems and network interface cards)

A computer’s components are interconnected by a subsystem called a bus. You can think of a bus as a sort of system of roads running among the computer’s components; data and
1.2 What Is a Computer?

A computer consists of a CPU, memory, storage devices, input devices, output devices, and communication devices.

Power travel along the bus from one part of the computer to another. In personal computers, the bus is built into the computer’s motherboard, which is a circuit case that connects all of the parts of a computer together, as shown in Figure 1.2.

1.2.1 Central Processing Unit

The central processing unit (CPU) is the computer’s brain. It retrieves instructions from memory and executes them. The CPU usually has two components: a control unit and an arithmetic/logic unit. The control unit controls and coordinates the actions of the other components. The arithmetic/logic unit performs numeric operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division) and logical operations (comparisons).

Today’s CPUs are built on small silicon semiconductor chips that contain millions of tiny electric switches, called transistors, for processing information.

Every computer has an internal clock, which emits electronic pulses at a constant rate. These pulses are used to control and synchronize the pace of operations. A higher clock speed enables more instructions to be executed in a given period of time. The unit of measurement of clock speed is the hertz (Hz), with 1 hertz equaling 1 pulse per second. In the 1990s computers measured clocked speed in megahertz (MHz), but CPU speed has been improving continuously.
and the clock speed of a computer is now usually stated in gigahertz (GHz). Intel’s newest processors run at about 3 GHz.

CPUs were originally developed with only one core. The core is the part of the processor that performs the reading and executing of instructions. In order to increase CPU processing power, chip manufacturers are now producing CPUs that contain multiple cores. A multicore CPU is a single component with two or more independent processors. Today’s consumer computers typically have two, three, and even four separate cores. Soon, CPUs with dozens or even hundreds of cores will be affordable.

1.2.2 Bits and Bytes

Before we discuss memory, let’s look at how information (data and programs) are stored in a computer.

A computer is really nothing more than a series of switches. Each switch exists in two states: on or off. Storing information in a computer is simply a matter of setting a sequence of switches on or off. If the switch is on, its value is 1. If the switch is off, its value is 0. These 0s and 1s are interpreted as digits in the binary number system and are called bits (binary digits).

The minimum storage unit in a computer is a byte. A byte is composed of eight bits. A small number such as 3 can be stored as a single byte. To store a number that cannot fit into a single byte, the computer uses several bytes.

Data of various kinds, such as numbers and characters, are encoded as a series of bytes. As a programmer, you don’t need to worry about the encoding and decoding of data, which the computer system performs automatically, based on the encoding scheme. An encoding scheme is a set of rules that govern how a computer translates characters, numbers, and symbols into data the computer can actually work with. Most schemes translate each character into a predetermined string of numbers. In the popular ASCII encoding scheme, for example, the character C is represented as 01000011 in one byte.
A computer’s storage capacity is measured in bytes and multiples of the byte, as follows:

- A kilobyte (KB) is about 1,000 bytes.
- A megabyte (MB) is about 1 million bytes.
- A gigabyte (GB) is about 1 billion bytes.
- A terabyte (TB) is about 1 trillion bytes.

A typical one-page word document might take 20 KB. Therefore, 1 MB can store 50 pages of documents and 1 GB can store 50,000 pages of documents. A typical two-hour high-resolution movie might take 8 GB, so it would require 160 GB to store 20 movies.

1.2.3 Memory

A computer’s memory consists of an ordered sequence of bytes for storing programs as well as data that the program is working with. You can think of memory as the computer’s work area for executing a program. A program and its data must be moved into the computer’s memory before they can be executed by the CPU.

Every byte in the memory has a unique address, as shown in Figure 1.3. The address is used to locate the byte for storing and retrieving the data. Since the bytes in the memory can be accessed in any order, the memory is also referred to as random-access memory (RAM).

A memory byte is never empty, but its initial content may be meaningless to your program. The current content of a memory byte is lost whenever new information is placed in it.

Like the CPU, memory is built on silicon semiconductor chips that have millions of transistors embedded on their surface. Compared to CPU chips, memory chips are less complicated, slower, and less expensive.

1.2.4 Storage Devices

A computer’s memory (RAM) is a volatile form of data storage: any information that has been stored in memory (that is, saved) is lost when the system's power is turned off. Programs and data are permanently stored on storage devices and are moved, when the computer actually uses them, to memory, which operates at much faster speeds than permanent storage devices can.
There are three main types of storage devices:

- Magnetic disk drives
- Optical disc drives (CD and DVD)
- USB flash drives

Drives are devices for operating a medium, such as disks and CDs. A storage medium physically stores data and program instructions. The drive reads data from the medium and writes data onto the medium.

Disks

A computer usually has at least one hard disk drive (Figure 1.4). Hard disks are used for permanently storing data and programs. Newer computers have hard disks that can store from 200 to 800 gigabytes of data. Hard disk drives are usually encased inside the computer, but removable hard disks are also available.

**Figure 1.4** A hard disk is a device for permanently storing programs and data.

**CDs and DVDs**

**CD** stands for compact disc. There are two types of CD drives: CD-R and CD-RW. A CD-R is for read-only permanent storage; the user cannot modify its contents once they are recorded.

**CD-RW**

A CD-RW can be used like a hard disk; that is, you can write data onto the disc, and then overwrite that data with new data. A single CD can hold up to 700 MB. Most new PCs are equipped with a CD-RW drive that can work with both CD-R and CD-RW discs.

**DVD**

DVD stands for digital versatile disc or digital video disc. DVDs and CDs look alike, and you can use either to store data. A DVD can hold more information than a CD; a standard DVD’s storage capacity is 4.7 GB. Like CDs, there are two types of DVDs: DVD-R (read-only) and DVD-RW (rewritable).
USB Flash Drives

*Universal serial bus (USB)* connectors allow the user to attach many kinds of peripheral devices to the computer. You can use a USB to connect a printer, digital camera, mouse, external hard disk drive, and other devices to the computer.

A USB *flash drive* is a device for storing and transporting data. A flash drive is small—about the size of a pack of gum, as shown in Figure 1.5. It acts like a portable hard drive that can be plugged into your computer’s USB port. USB flash drives are currently available with up to 256 GB storage capacity.

![USB flash drive](image)

**Figure 1.5** USB flash drives are very portable and can store a lot of data.

1.2.5 Input and Output Devices

Input and output devices let the user communicate with the computer. The most common input devices are *keyboards* and *mice*. The most common output devices are *monitors* and *printers*.

The Keyboard

A keyboard is a device for entering input. Figure 1.6 shows a typical keyboard. Compact keyboards are available without a numeric keypad.

![Keyboard](image)

**Figure 1.6** A computer keyboard consists of the keys for sending input to a computer.

*Function keys* are located across the top of the keyboard and are prefaced with the letter *F*. Their functions depend on the software currently being used.
A modifier key is a special key (such as the Shift, Alt, and Ctrl keys) that modifies the normal action of another key when the two are pressed simultaneously.

The numeric keypad, located on the right side of most keyboards, is a separate set of keys styled like a calculator to use for entering numbers quickly.

Arrow keys, located between the main keypad and the numeric keypad, are used to move the mouse pointer up, down, left, and right on the screen in many kinds of programs.

The Insert, Delete, Page Up, and Page Down keys are used in word processing and other programs for inserting text and objects, deleting text and objects, and moving up or down through a document one screen at a time.

The Mouse

A mouse is a pointing device. It is used to move a graphical pointer (usually in the shape of an arrow) called a cursor around the screen or to click on-screen objects (such as a button) to trigger them to perform an action.

The Monitor

The monitor displays information (text and graphics). The screen resolution and dot pitch determine the quality of the display.

The screen resolution specifies the number of pixels in horizontal and vertical dimensions of the display device. Pixels (short for “picture elements”) are tiny dots that form an image on the screen. A common resolution for a 17-inch screen, for example, is 1,024 pixels wide and 768 pixels high. The resolution can be set manually. The higher the resolution, the sharper and clearer the image is.

The dot pitch is the amount of space between pixels, measured in millimeters. The smaller the dot pitch, the sharper the display.

1.2.6 Communication Devices

Computers can be networked through communication devices, such as a dial-up modem (modulator/demodulator), a DSL or cable modem, a wired network interface card, or a wireless adapter.

- A dial-up modem uses a phone line and can transfer data at a speed up to 56,000 bps (bits per second).
- A digital subscriber line (DSL) connection also uses a standard phone line, but it can transfer data 20 times faster than a standard dial-up modem.
- A cable modem uses the cable TV line maintained by the cable company and is generally faster than DSL.
- A network interface card (NIC) is a device that connects a computer to a local area network (LAN), as shown in Figure 1.7. LANs are commonly used in universities, businesses, and government agencies. A high-speed NIC called 1000BaseT can transfer data at 1,000 million bits per second (mbps).

- Wireless networking is now extremely popular in homes, businesses, and schools. Every laptop computer sold today is equipped with a wireless adapter that enables the computer to connect to a local area network and the Internet.

Note

Answers to checkpoint questions are on the Companion Website.

Check

Point

1.1 What are hardware and software?

1.2 List five major hardware components of a computer.

1.3 What does the acronym “CPU” stand for?

MyProgrammingLab
1.3 Programming Languages

Computer programs, known as software, are instructions that tell a computer what to do.

Computers do not understand human languages, so programs must be written in a language a computer can use. There are hundreds of programming languages, and they were developed to make the programming process easier for people. However, all programs must be converted into a language the computer can understand.

1.3.1 Machine Language

A computer’s native language, which differs among different types of computers, is its machine language—a set of built-in primitive instructions. These instructions are in the form of binary code, so if you want to give a computer an instruction in its native language, you
have to enter the instruction as binary code. For example, to add two numbers, you might have to write an instruction in binary code, like this:

```
1101101010011010
```

### 1.3.2 Assembly Language

Programming in machine language is a tedious process. Moreover, programs written in machine language are very difficult to read and modify. For this reason, *assembly language* was created in the early days of computing as an alternative to machine languages. Assembly language uses a short descriptive word, known as a *mnemonic*, to represent each of the machine-language instructions. For example, the mnemonic *add* typically means to add numbers and *sub* means to subtract numbers. To add the numbers 2 and 3 and get the result, you might write an instruction in assembly code like this:

```
add 2, 3, result
```

Assembly languages were developed to make programming easier. However, because the computer cannot understand assembly language, another program—called an *assembler*—is used to translate assembly-language programs into machine code, as shown in Figure 1.8.

![Figure 1.8](image.png)

**Figure 1.8** An assembler translates assembly-language instructions into machine code.

Writing code in assembly language is easier than in machine language. However, it is still tedious to write code in assembly language. An instruction in assembly language essentially corresponds to an instruction in machine code. Writing in assembly requires that you know how the CPU works. Assembly language is referred to as a *low-level language*, because assembly language is close in nature to machine language and is machine dependent.

### 1.3.3 High-Level Language

In the 1950s, a new generation of programming languages known as *high-level languages* emerged. They are platform-independent, which means that you can write a program in a high-level language and run it in different types of machines. High-level languages are English-like and easy to learn and use. The instructions in a high-level programming language are called *statements*. Here, for example, is a high-level language statement that computes the area of a circle with a radius of 5:

```
area = 5 * 5 * 3.1415
```

There are many high-level programming languages, and each was designed for a specific purpose. Table 1.1 lists some popular ones.

A program written in a high-level language is called a *source program* or *source code*. Because a computer cannot understand a source program, a source program must be translated into machine code for execution. The translation can be done using another programming tool called an *interpreter* or a *compiler*.

- An interpreter reads one statement from the source code, translates it to the machine code or virtual machine code, and then executes it right away, as shown in Figure 1.9a.
### TABLE 1.1 Popular High-Level Programming Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ada</td>
<td>Named for Ada Lovelace, who worked on mechanical general-purpose computers. The Ada language was developed for the Department of Defense and is used mainly in defense projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BASIC</td>
<td>Beginner’s All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code. It was designed to be learned and used easily by beginners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Developed at Bell Laboratories. C combines the power of an assembly language with the ease of use and portability of a high-level language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C++</td>
<td>C++ is an object-oriented language, based on C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C#</td>
<td>Pronounced “C Sharp.” It is a hybrid of Java and C++ and was developed by Microsoft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COBOL</td>
<td>COmmon Business Oriented Language. Used for business applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORTRAN</td>
<td>FORmula TRANslation. Popular for scientific and mathematical applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Java</td>
<td>Developed by Sun Microsystems, now part of Oracle. It is widely used for developing platform-independent Internet applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pascal</td>
<td>Named for Blaise Pascal, who pioneered calculating machines in the seventeenth century. It is a simple, structured, general-purpose language primarily for teaching programming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Python</td>
<td>A simple general-purpose scripting language good for writing short programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Basic</td>
<td>Visual Basic was developed by Microsoft and it enables the programmers to rapidly develop graphical user interfaces.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 1.9** (a) An interpreter translates and executes a program one statement at a time. (b) A compiler translates the entire source program into a machine-language file for execution.

Note that a statement from the source code may be translated into several machine instructions.

- A compiler translates the entire source code into a machine-code file, and the machine-code file is then executed, as shown in Figure 1.9b.

1.10 What language does the CPU understand?
1.11 What is an assembly language?
1.4 Operating Systems

The operating system (OS) is the most important program that runs on a computer. The OS manages and controls a computer’s activities.

The popular operating systems for general-purpose computers are Microsoft Windows, Mac OS, and Linux. Application programs, such as a Web browser or a word processor, cannot run unless an operating system is installed and running on the computer. Figure 1.10 shows the interrelationship of hardware, operating system, application software, and the user.

![Diagram showing the interrelationship of hardware, operating system, application software, and the user.]

The major tasks of an operating system are:

- Controlling and monitoring system activities
- Allocating and assigning system resources
- Scheduling operations

1.4.1 Controlling and Monitoring System Activities

Operating systems perform basic tasks, such as recognizing input from the keyboard, sending output to the monitor, keeping track of files and folders on storage devices, and controlling peripheral devices, such as disk drives and printers. An operating system must also ensure that different programs and users working at the same time do not interfere with each other. In addition, the OS is responsible for security, ensuring that unauthorized users and programs do not access the system.

1.4.2 Allocating and Assigning System Resources

The operating system is responsible for determining what computer resources a program needs (such as CPU time, memory space, disks, input and output devices) and for allocating and assigning them to run the program.
1.4.3 Scheduling Operations

The OS is responsible for scheduling programs’ activities to make efficient use of system resources. Many of today’s operating systems support such techniques as multiprogramming, multithreading, and multiprocessing to increase system performance.

Multiprogramming allows multiple programs to run simultaneously by sharing the same CPU. The CPU is much faster than the computer’s other components. As a result, it is idle most of the time—for example, while waiting for data to be transferred from a disk or waiting for other system resources to respond. A multiprogramming OS takes advantage of this situation by allowing multiple programs to use the CPU when it would otherwise be idle. For example, multiprogramming enables you to use a word processor to edit a file at the same time as your Web browser is downloading a file.

Multithreading allows a single program to execute multiple tasks at the same time. For instance, a word-processing program allows users to simultaneously edit text and save it to a disk. In this example, editing and saving are two tasks within the same application. These two tasks may run concurrently.

Multiprocessing, or parallel processing, uses two or more processors together to perform subtasks concurrently and then combine solutions of the subtasks to obtain a solution for the entire task. It is like a surgical operation where several doctors work together on one patient.

1.18 What is an operating system? List some popular operating systems.
1.19 What are the major responsibilities of an operating system?
1.20 What are multiprogramming, multithreading, and multiprocessing?

1.5 Java, the World Wide Web, and Beyond

Java is a powerful and versatile programming language for developing software running on mobile devices, desktop computers, and servers.

This book introduces Java programming. Java was developed by a team led by James Gosling at Sun Microsystems. Sun Microsystems was purchased by Oracle in 2010. Originally called Oak, Java was designed in 1991 for use in embedded chips in consumer electronic appliances. In 1995, renamed Java, it was redesigned for developing Web applications. For the history of Java, see www.java.com/en/javahistory/index.jsp.

Java has become enormously popular. Its rapid rise and wide acceptance can be traced to its design characteristics, particularly its promise that you can write a program once and run it anywhere. As stated by its designer, Java is simple, object oriented, distributed, interpreted, robust, secure, architecture neutral, portable, high performance, multithreaded, and dynamic. For the anatomy of Java characteristics, see www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/JavaCharacteristics.pdf.

Java is a full-featured, general-purpose programming language that can be used to develop robust mission-critical applications. Today, it is employed not only for Web programming, but also for developing standalone applications across platforms on servers, desktop computers, and mobile devices. It was used to develop the code to communicate with and control the robotic rover on Mars. Many companies that once considered Java to be more hype than substance are now using it to create distributed applications accessed by customers and partners across the Internet. For every new project being developed today, companies are asking how they can use Java to make their work easier.

The World Wide Web is an electronic information repository that can be accessed on the Internet from anywhere in the world. The Internet, the Web’s infrastructure, has been around for more than forty years. The colorful World Wide Web and sophisticated Web browsers are the major reason for the Internet’s popularity.
Java initially became attractive because Java programs can be run from a Web browser. Such programs are called *applets*. Applets employ a modern graphical interface with buttons, text fields, text areas, radio buttons, and so on, to interact with users on the Web and process their requests. Applets make the Web responsive, interactive, and fun to use. Applets are embedded in an HTML file. *HTML (Hypertext Markup Language)* is a simple scripting language for laying out documents, linking documents on the Internet, and bringing images, sound, and video alive on the Web. Figure 1.11 shows an applet running from a Web browser for playing a tic-tac-toe game.

![Figure 1.11 A Java applet for playing tic-tac-toe runs from a Web browser.](image)

**Tip**
For a demonstration of Java applets, visit [java.sun.com/applets](http://java.sun.com/applets). This site provides a rich Java resource as well as links to other cool applet demo sites.

Java is now very popular for developing applications on Web servers. These applications process data, perform computations, and generate dynamic Web pages. The LiveLab automatic grading system, shown in Figure 1.12 and which you can use with this book, was developed using Java.

Java is a versatile programming language: You can use it to develop applications for desktop computers, servers, and small hand-held devices. The software for Android cell phones is developed using Java. Figure 1.13 shows an emulator for developing Android phone applications.

1.21 Who invented Java? Which company owns Java now?
1.22 What is a Java applet?
1.23 What programming language does Android use?
Figure 1.12  Java was used to develop LiveLab, the automatic grading system that accompanies this book.

Figure 1.13  Java is used in Android phones.
1.6 The Java Language Specification, API, JDK, and IDE

Java syntax is defined in the Java language specification, and the Java library is defined in the Java API. The JDK is the software for developing and running Java programs. An IDE is an integrated development environment for rapidly developing programs.

Computer languages have strict rules of usage. If you do not follow the rules when writing a program, the computer will not be able to understand it. The Java language specification and the Java API define the Java standards.

The Java language specification is a technical definition of the Java programming language’s syntax and semantics. You can find the complete Java language specification at java.sun.com/docs/books/jls.

The application program interface (API), also known as library, contains predefined classes and interfaces for developing Java programs. The API is still expanding. You can view and download the latest version of the Java API at www.oracle.com/technetwork/java/index.html.

Java is a full-fledged and powerful language that can be used in many ways. It comes in three editions:

- **Java Standard Edition (Java SE)** to develop client-side standalone applications or applets.
- **Java Enterprise Edition (Java EE)** to develop server-side applications, such as Java servlets, JavaServer Pages (JSP), and JavaServer Faces (JSF).
- **Java Micro Edition (Java ME)** to develop applications for mobile devices, such as cell phones.

This book uses Java SE to introduce Java programming. Java SE is the foundation upon which all other Java technology is based. There are many versions of Java SE. The latest, Java SE 7, is used in this book. Oracle releases each version with a Java Development Toolkit (JDK). For Java SE 7, the Java Development Toolkit is called JDK 1.7 (also known as Java 7 or JDK 7).

The JDK consists of a set of separate programs, each invoked from a command line, for developing and testing Java programs. Instead of using the JDK, you can use a Java development tool (e.g., NetBeans, Eclipse, and TextPad)—software that provides an integrated development environment (IDE) for developing Java programs quickly. Editing, compiling, building, debugging, and online help are integrated in one graphical user interface. You simply enter source code in one window or open an existing file in a window, and then click a button or menu item or press a function key to compile and run the program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Check Point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.24</strong> What is the Java language specification?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.25</strong> What does JDK stand for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.26</strong> What does IDE stand for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.27</strong> Are tools like NetBeans and Eclipse different languages from Java, or are they dialects or extensions of Java?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.7 A Simple Java Program

A Java program is executed from the main method in the class.

Let’s begin with a simple Java program that displays the message **Welcome to Java!** on the console. (The word **console** is an old computer term that refers to the text entry and display device of a computer. **Console input** means to receive input from the keyboard, and **console output** means to display output on the monitor.) The program is shown in Listing 1.1.
LISTING 1.1 Welcome.java

```java
public class Welcome {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Display message Welcome to Java! on the console
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    }
}
```

Welcome to Java!

Note that the line numbers are for reference purposes only; they are not part of the program. So, don’t type line numbers in your program.

Line 1 defines a class. Every Java program must have at least one class. Each class has a name. By convention, class names start with an uppercase letter. In this example, the class name is `Welcome`.

Line 2 defines the `main` method. The program is executed from the `main` method. A class may contain several methods. The `main` method is the entry point where the program begins execution.

A method is a construct that contains statements. The `main` method in this program contains the `System.out.println` statement. This statement displays the string `Welcome to Java!` on the console (line 4). `String` is a programming term meaning a sequence of characters. A string must be enclosed in double quotation marks. Every statement in Java ends with a semicolon (`;`), known as the `statement terminator`.

Reserved words, or `keywords`, have a specific meaning to the compiler and cannot be used for other purposes in the program. For example, when the compiler sees the word `class`, it understands that the word after `class` is the name for the class. Other reserved words in this program are `public`, `static`, and `void`.

Line 3 is a `comment` that documents what the program is and how it is constructed. Comments help programmers to communicate and understand the program. They are not programming statements and thus are ignored by the compiler. In Java, comments are preceded by two slashes (`//`) on a line, called a `line comment`, or enclosed between `/*` and `*/` on one or several lines, called a `block comment` or `paragraph comment`. When the compiler sees `//`, it ignores all text after `//` on the same line. When it sees `/*`, it scans for the next `*/` and ignores any text between `/*` and `*/`. Here are examples of comments:

```java
// This application program displays Welcome to Java!
/* This application program displays Welcome to Java! */
/* This application program displays Welcome to Java! */
```

A pair of curly braces in a program forms a `block` that groups the program’s components. In Java, each block begins with an opening brace (`{`) and ends with a closing brace (`}`). Every class has a `class block` that groups the data and methods of the class. Similarly, every method has a `method block` that groups the statements in the method. Blocks can be `nested`, meaning that one block can be placed within another, as shown in the following code.

**Tip**

An opening brace must be matched by a closing brace. Whenever you type an opening brace, immediately type a closing brace to prevent the missing-brace error. Most Java IDEs automatically insert the closing brace for each opening brace.
public class Welcome {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    }
}

public class WelcomeWithThreeMessages {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Programming is fun!");
        System.out.println("Fundamentals First");
        System.out.println("Problem Driven");
    }
}

**Caution**
Java source programs are case sensitive. It would be wrong, for example, to replace `main` in the program with `Main`.

You have seen several special characters (e.g., `{ }`, `/`, `;`) in the program. They are used in almost every program. Table 1.2 summarizes their uses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>{}</code></td>
<td>Opening and closing braces</td>
<td>Denote a block to enclose statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>(</code></td>
<td>Opening and closing parentheses</td>
<td>Used with methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>[]</code></td>
<td>Opening and closing brackets</td>
<td>Denote an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>//</code></td>
<td>Double slashes</td>
<td>Precede a comment line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&quot; &quot;</code></td>
<td>Opening and closing quotation marks</td>
<td>Enclose a string (i.e., sequence of characters).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>;</code></td>
<td>Semicolon</td>
<td>Mark the end of a statement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common errors you will make as you learn to program will be syntax errors. Like any programming language, Java has its own syntax, and you need to write code that conforms to the syntax rules. If your program violates a rule—for example, if the semicolon is missing, a brace is missing, a quotation mark is missing, or a word is misspelled—the Java compiler will report syntax errors. Try to compile the program with these errors and see what the compiler reports.

**Note**
You are probably wondering why the `main` method is defined this way and why `System.out.println(...)` is used to display a message on the console. For the time being, simply accept that this is how things are done. Your questions will be fully answered in subsequent chapters.

The program in Listing 1.1 displays one message. Once you understand the program, it is easy to extend it to display more messages. For example, you can rewrite the program to display three messages, as shown in Listing 1.2.

**Listing 1.2** WelcomeWithThreeMessages.java

```java
public class WelcomeWithThreeMessages {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Programming is fun!");
        System.out.println("Fundamentals First");
        System.out.println("Problem Driven");
    }
}
```
Further, you can perform mathematical computations and display the result on the console.

Listing 1.3 gives an example of evaluating \( \frac{10.5 + 2 \times 3}{45 - 3.5} \).

**Listing 1.3  ComputeExpression.java**

```java
public class ComputeExpression {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println((10.5 + 2 * 3) / (45 - 3.5));
    }
}
```

0.39759036144578314

The multiplication operator in Java is \(*\). As you can see, it is a straightforward process to translate an arithmetic expression to a Java expression. We will discuss Java expressions further in Chapter 2.

1.28 What is a keyword? List some Java keywords.
1.29 Is Java case sensitive? What is the case for Java keywords?
1.30 What is a comment? Is the comment ignored by the compiler? How do you denote a comment line and a comment paragraph?
1.31 What is the statement to display a string on the console?
1.32 Show the output of the following code:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("3.5 * 4 / 2 - 2.5 is ");
        System.out.println(3.5 * 4 / 2 - 2.5);
    }
}
```

1.8 Creating, Compiling, and Executing a Java Program

*You save a Java program in a .java file and compile it into a .class file. The .class file is executed by the Java Virtual Machine.*

You have to create your program and compile it before it can be executed. This process is repetitive, as shown in Figure 1.14. If your program has compile errors, you have to modify the program to fix them, then recompile it. If your program has runtime errors or does not produce the correct result, you have to modify the program, recompile it, and execute it again.

You can use any text editor or IDE to create and edit a Java source-code file. This section demonstrates how to create, compile, and run Java programs from a command window. If you wish to use an IDE such as Eclipse, NetBeans, or TextPad, refer to Supplement II for tutorials. From the command window, you can use a text editor such as Notepad to create the Java source-code file, as shown in Figure 1.15.

**Note**
The source file must end with the extension .java and must have the same exact name as the public class name. For example, the file for the source code in Listing 1.1 should be named *Welcome.java*, since the public class name is *Welcome*. 
Create/Modify Source Code

Result

Compile Source Code
e.g., javac Welcome.java

Saved on the disk

Source Code

If compile errors occur

If runtime errors or incorrect result

Source code (developed by the programmer)

public class Welcome {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    }
}

Bytecode (generated by the compiler for JVM to read and interpret)

Method Welcome()
  0 aload_0
  ...

Method void main(java.lang.String[])
  0 getstatic #2 ...
  3 ldc #3 <String "Welcome to Java!">
  5 invokevirtual #4 ...
  8 return

“Welcome to Java” is displayed on the console

Welcome to Java!

Run Bytecode
e.g., java Welcome

Figure 1.14 The Java program-development process consists of repeatedly creating/modifying source code, compiling, and executing programs.

Figure 1.15 You can create a Java source file using Windows Notepad.

A Java compiler translates a Java source file into a Java bytecode file. The following command compiles Welcome.java:

javac Welcome.java

Note

You must first install and configure the JDK before you can compile and run programs.

See Supplement I.B, Installing and Configuring JDK 7, for how to install the JDK and set up the environment to compile and run Java programs. If you have trouble compiling and running programs, see Supplement I.C, Compiling and Running Java from the Command Window. This supplement also explains how to use basic DOS commands and how to use Windows Notepad and WordPad to create and edit files. All the supplements are accessible from the Companion Website.

If there aren’t any syntax errors, the compiler generates a bytecode file with a .class extension. Thus, the preceding command generates a file named Welcome.class, as shown in
1.8 Creating, Compiling, and Executing a Java Program

Figure 1.16  (a) Java source code is translated into bytecode. (b) Java bytecode can be executed on any computer with a Java Virtual Machine.

Figure 1.16a. The Java language is a high-level language, but Java bytecode is a low-level language. The bytecode is similar to machine instructions but is architecture neutral and can run on any platform that has a Java Virtual Machine (JVM), as shown in Figure 1.16b. Rather than a physical machine, the virtual machine is a program that interprets Java bytecode. This is one of Java’s primary advantages: Java bytecode can run on a variety of hardware platforms and operating systems. Java source code is compiled into Java bytecode and Java bytecode is interpreted by the JVM. Your Java code may use the code in the Java library. The JVM executes your code along with the code in the library.

To execute a Java program is to run the program’s bytecode. You can execute the bytecode on any platform with a JVM, which is an interpreter. It translates the individual instructions in the bytecode into the target machine language code one at a time rather than the whole program as a single unit. Each step is executed immediately after it is translated.

The following command runs the bytecode for Listing 1.1:

```
java Welcome
```

Figure 1.17 shows the javac command for compiling Welcome.java. The compiler generates the Welcome.class file, and this file is executed using the java command.

Note
For simplicity and consistency, all source-code and class files used in this book are placed under c:\book unless specified otherwise.

Figure 1.17  The output of Listing 1.1 displays the message “Welcome to Java!”
Chapter 1 Introduction to Computers, Programs, and Java

**Caution**
Do not use the extension `.class` in the command line when executing the program. Use `java ClassName` to run the program. If you use `java ClassName.class` in the command line, the system will attempt to fetch `ClassName.class.class`.

**Tip**
If you execute a class file that does not exist, a `NoClassDefFoundError` will occur. If you execute a class file that does not have a `main` method or you mistype the `main` method (e.g., by typing `Main` instead of `main`), a `NoSuchMethodError` will occur.

**Note**
When executing a Java program, the JVM first loads the bytecode of the class to memory using a program called the class loader. If your program uses other classes, the class loader dynamically loads them just before they are needed. After a class is loaded, the JVM uses a program called the bytecode verifier to check the validity of the bytecode and to ensure that the bytecode does not violate Java's security restrictions. Java enforces strict security to make sure that Java class files are not tampered and do not harm your computer.

**Pedagogical Note**
Your instructor may require you to use packages for organizing programs. For example, you may place all programs in this chapter in a package named `chapter1`. For instructions on how to use packages, see Supplement I.F, Using Packages to Organize the Classes in the Text.

### 1.33 What is the Java source filename extension, and what is the Java bytecode filename extension?

### 1.34 What are the input and output of a Java compiler?

### 1.35 What is the command to compile a Java program?

### 1.36 What is the command to run a Java program?

### 1.37 What is the JVM?

### 1.38 Can Java run on any machine? What is needed to run Java on a computer?

### 1.39 If a `NoClassDefFoundError` occurs when you run a program, what is the cause of the error?

### 1.40 If a `NoSuchMethodError` occurs when you run a program, what is the cause of the error?

### 1.9 Displaying Text in a Message Dialog Box

You can display text in a graphical dialog box.

The program in Listing 1.1 displays the text on the console, as shown in Figure 1.17. You can rewrite the program to display the text in a message dialog box. To do so, you need to use the `showMessageDialog` method in the `JOptionPane` class. `JOptionPane` is one of the many predefined classes in the Java library that you can reuse rather than “reinvent the wheel.” You can use the `showMessageDialog` method to display any text in a message dialog box, as shown in Figure 1.18. The new program is given in Listing 1.4.

**Listing 1.4 WelcomeInMessageDialogBox.java**

```java
/* This application program displays Welcome to Java!
 * in a message dialog box.
 */
```
1.9 Displaying Text in a Message Dialog Box

FIGURE 1.18 “Welcome to Java!” is displayed in a message box.

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class WelcomeInMessageDialogBox {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Display Welcome to Java! in a message dialog box
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Welcome to Java!");
    }
}
```

The first three lines are block comments. The first line begins with /* and the last line ends with */. By convention, all other lines begin with an asterisk (*).

This program uses the Java class `JOptionPane` (line 9). Java’s predefined classes are grouped into packages. `JOptionPane` is in the `javax.swing` package. `JOptionPane` is imported into the program using the `import` statement in line 4 so that the compiler can locate the class without the full name `javax.swing.JOptionPane`.

**Note**

If you replace `JOptionPane` in line 9 with `javax.swing.JOptionPane`, you don’t need to import it in line 4. `javax.swing.JOptionPane` is the full name for the `JOptionPane` class.

The `showMessageDialog` method is a static method. Such a method should be invoked by using the class name followed by a dot operator (.) and the method name with arguments. Details of methods will be discussed in Chapter 5. The `showMessageDialog` method can be invoked with two arguments, as shown below.

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Welcome to Java!");
```

The first argument can always be `null`. `null` is a Java keyword that will be fully discussed in Chapter 8. The second argument is a string for text to be displayed.

There are several ways to use the `showMessageDialog` method. For the time being, you need to know only two ways. One is to use a statement, as shown in the example:

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, x);
```

where `x` is a string for the text to be displayed.

The other is to use a statement like this one:

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, x, y, JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE);
```

two versions of `showMessageDialog`
where \( x \) is a string for the text to be displayed, and \( y \) is a string for the title of the message box. The fourth argument can be `JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE`, which causes the information icon (\( \text{\textit{\textbullet}} \)) to be displayed in the message box, as shown in the following example.

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null,
"Welcome to Java!",
"Display Message",
JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE);
```

**Note**
There are two types of `import` statements: specific import and wildcard import. The specific import specifies a single class in the import statement. For example, the following statement imports `JOptionPane` from the package `javax.swing`.

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;
```

The wildcard import imports all the classes in a package by using the asterisk as the wildcard. For example, the following statement imports all the classes from the package `javax.swing`.

```java
import javax.swing.*;
```

The information for the classes in an imported package is not read in at compile time or runtime unless the class is used in the program. The import statement simply tells the compiler where to locate the classes. There is no performance difference between a specific import and a wildcard import declaration.

**Note**
Recall that you have used the `System` class in the statement `System.out.println("Welcome to Java");` in Listing 1.1. The `System` class is not imported because it is in the `java.lang` package. All the classes in the `java.lang` package are implicitly imported in every Java program.

1.41 What is the statement to display the message “Hello world” in a message dialog box?

1.42 Why does the `System` class not need to be imported?

1.43 Are there any performance differences between the following two `import` statements?

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;
import javax.swing.*;
```

1.10 Programming Style and Documentation

*Good programming style and proper documentation make a program easy to read and help programmers prevent errors.*

**Programming style** deals with what programs look like. A program can compile and run properly even if written on only one line, but writing it all on one line would be bad programming style because it would be hard to read. **Documentation** is the body of explanatory remarks and comments pertaining to a program. Programming style and documentation are as important as coding. Good programming style and appropriate documentation reduce the chance of errors and make programs easy to read. This section gives several guidelines. For
more detailed guidelines, see Supplement I.D, Java Coding Style Guidelines, on the Companion Website.

1.10.1 Appropriate Comments and Comment Styles

Include a summary at the beginning of the program that explains what the program does, its key features, and any unique techniques it uses. In a long program, you should also include comments that introduce each major step and explain anything that is difficult to read. It is important to make comments concise so that they do not crowd the program or make it difficult to read.

In addition to line comments (beginning with //) and block comments (beginning with /*), Java supports comments of a special type, referred to as javadoc comments. javadoc comments begin with /** and end with */. They can be extracted into an HTML file using the JDK’s javadoc command. For more information, see java.sun.com/j2se/javadoc.

Use javadoc comments (/** ... */) for commenting on an entire class or an entire method. These comments must precede the class or the method header in order to be extracted into a javadoc HTML file. For commenting on steps inside a method, use line comments (//).

To see an example of a javadoc HTML file, check out www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/javadoc/Exercise1.html. Its corresponding Java code is shown in www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/javadoc/Exercise1.java.

1.10.2 Proper Indentation and Spacing

A consistent indentation style makes programs clear and easy to read, debug, and maintain. Indentation is used to illustrate the structural relationships between a program’s components or statements. Java can read the program even if all of the statements are on the same long line, but humans find it easier to read and maintain code that is aligned properly. Indent each sub-component or statement at least two spaces more than the construct within which it is nested.

A single space should be added on both sides of a binary operator, as shown in the following statement:

```
System.out.println(3+4*4);  // Bad style
System.out.println(3 + 4 * 4);  // Good style
```

1.10.3 Block Styles

A block is a group of statements surrounded by braces. There are two popular styles, next-line style and end-of-line style, as shown below.

```
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Block Styles");
    }
}
```

```
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Block Styles");
    }
}
```

Next-line style

End-of-line style

The next-line style aligns braces vertically and makes programs easy to read, whereas the end-of-line style saves space and may help avoid some subtle programming errors. Both are acceptable block styles. The choice depends on personal or organizational preference. You should use a block style consistently—mixing styles is not recommended. This book uses the end-of-line style to be consistent with the Java API source code.
1.44 Reformat the following program according to the programming style and documentation guidelines. Use the end-of-line brace style.

```java
public class Test {
    // Main method
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        /** Display output */
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java");
    }
}
```

1.11 Programming Errors

Programming errors can be categorized into three types: syntax errors, runtime errors, and logic errors.

1.11.1 Syntax Errors

Errors that are detected by the compiler are called syntax errors or compile errors. Syntax errors result from errors in code construction, such as mistyping a keyword, omitting some necessary punctuation, or using an opening brace without a corresponding closing brace. These errors are usually easy to detect, because the compiler tells you where they are and what caused them. For example, the program in Listing 1.5 has a syntax error, as shown in Figure 1.19.

**Listing 1.5 ShowSyntaxErrors.java**

```java
public class ShowSyntaxErrors {
    public static main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Welcome to Java");
    }
}
```

Four errors are reported, but the program actually has two errors:

- The keyword `void` is missing before `main` in line 2.
- The string `Welcome to Java` should be closed with a closing quotation mark in line 3.

Since a single error will often display many lines of compile errors, it is a good practice to fix errors from the top line and work downward. Fixing errors that occur earlier in the program may also fix additional errors that occur later.

![Figure 1.19](image-url) The compiler reports syntax errors.
1.11 Programming Errors

Tip
If you don’t know how to correct it, compare your program closely, character by character, with similar examples in the text. In the first few weeks of this course, you will probably spend a lot of time fixing syntax errors. Soon you will be familiar with Java syntax and can quickly fix syntax errors.

1.11.2 Runtime Errors

Runtime errors are errors that cause a program to terminate abnormally. They occur while a program is running if the environment detects an operation that is impossible to carry out. Input mistakes typically cause runtime errors. An input error occurs when the program is waiting for the user to enter a value, but the user enters a value that the program cannot handle. For instance, if the program expects to read in a number, but instead the user enters a string, this causes data-type errors to occur in the program.

Another example of runtime errors is division by zero. This happens when the divisor is zero for integer divisions. For instance, the program in Listing 1.6 would cause a runtime error, as shown in Figure 1.20.

**Listing 1.6 ShowRuntimeErrors.java**

```java
public class ShowRuntimeErrors {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(1 / 0);
    }
}
```

![Figure 1.20](image)
The runtime error causes the program to terminate abnormally.

1.11.3 Logic Errors

Logic errors occur when a program does not perform the way it was intended to. Errors of this kind occur for many different reasons. For example, suppose you wrote the program in Listing 1.7 to convert Celsius 35 degrees to a Fahrenheit degree:

**Listing 1.7 ShowLogicErrors.java**

```java
public class ShowLogicErrors {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Celsius 35 is Fahrenheit degree ");
        System.out.println(((9 / 5) * 35 + 32);
    }
}
```

Celsius 35 is Fahrenheit degree
67
You will get Fahrenheit 67 degrees, which is wrong. It should be 95.0. In Java, the division for integers is an integer—the fractional part is truncated—so in Java 9 / 5 is 1. To get the correct result, you need to use 9.0 / 5, which results in 1.8.

In general, syntax errors are easy to find and easy to correct, because the compiler gives indications as to where the errors came from and why they are wrong. Runtime errors are not difficult to find, either, since the reasons and locations for the errors are displayed on the console when the program aborts. Finding logic errors, on the other hand, can be very challenging. In the upcoming chapters, you will learn the techniques of tracing programs and finding logic errors.

1.45 What are syntax errors (compile errors), runtime errors, and logic errors?
1.46 Give examples of syntax errors, runtime errors, and logic errors.
1.47 If you forget to put a closing quotation mark on a string, what kind error will be raised?
1.48 If your program needs to read integers, but the user entered strings, an error would occur when running this program. What kind of error is this?
1.49 Suppose you write a program for computing the perimeter of a rectangle and you mistakenly write your program so that it computes the area of a rectangle. What kind of error is this?
1.50 Identify and fix the errors in the following code:

```java
public class Welcome {
    public void Main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println('Welcome to Java!);
    }
}
```

1.51 The following program is wrong. Reorder the lines so that the program displays morning followed by afternoon.

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    }
    public class Welcome {
        System.out.println("afternoon");
        System.out.println("morning");
    }
```

**Key Terms**

- Application Program Interface (API)
- assembler
- assembly language
- bit
- block
- block comment
- bus
- byte
- bytecode
- bytecode verifier
- cable modem
- central processing unit (CPU)
- class loader
- comment
- compiler
- console
- dot pitch
- DSL (digital subscriber line)
- encoding scheme
- hardware
- high-level language
- integrated development environment (IDE)
- interpreter
- java command
- Java Development Toolkit (JDK)
- Java language specification
- Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
- javac command
- keyword (or reserved word)
- library
- line comment
Note
The above terms are defined in this chapter. Supplement I.A, Glossary, lists all the key terms and descriptions in the book, organized by chapters.

**CHAPTER SUMMARY**

1. A computer is an electronic device that stores and processes data.

2. A computer includes both *hardware* and *software*.

3. Hardware is the physical aspect of the computer that can be touched.

4. Computer programs, known as *software*, are the invisible instructions that control the hardware and make it perform tasks.

5. Computer *programming* is the writing of instructions (i.e., code) for computers to perform.

6. The *central processing unit (CPU)* is a computer’s brain. It retrieves instructions from *memory* and executes them.

7. Computers use zeros and ones because digital devices have two stable states, referred to by convention as zero and one.

8. A *bit* is a binary digit 0 or 1.

9. A *byte* is a sequence of 8 bits.

10. A kilobyte is about 1,000 bytes, a megabyte about 1 million bytes, a gigabyte about 1 billion bytes, and a terabyte about 1,000 gigabytes.

11. Memory stores data and program instructions for the CPU to execute.

12. A memory unit is an ordered sequence of bytes.

13. Memory is volatile, because information is lost when the power is turned off.
14. Programs and data are permanently stored on storage devices and are moved to memory when the computer actually uses them.

15. The machine language is a set of primitive instructions built into every computer.

16. Assembly language is a low-level programming language in which a mnemonic is used to represent each machine-language instruction.

17. High-level languages are English-like and easy to learn and program.

18. A program written in a high-level language is called a source program.

19. A compiler is a software program that translates the source program into a machine-language program.

20. The operating system (OS) is a program that manages and controls a computer’s activities.

21. Java is platform independent, meaning that you can write a program once and run it on any computer.

22. Java programs can be embedded in HTML pages and downloaded by Web browsers to bring live animation and interaction to Web clients.

23. The Java source file name must match the public class name in the program. Java source code files must end with the .java extension.

24. Every class is compiled into a separate bytecode file that has the same name as the class and ends with the .class extension.

25. To compile a Java source-code file from the command line, use the javac command.

26. To run a Java class from the command line, use the java command.

27. Every Java program is a set of class definitions. The keyword class introduces a class definition. The contents of the class are included in a block.

28. A block begins with an opening brace ( { ) and ends with a closing brace ( } ).

29. Methods are contained in a class. To run a Java program, the program must have a main method. The main method is the entry point where the program starts when it is executed.

30. Every statement in Java ends with a semicolon ( ; ), known as the statement terminator.

31. Reserved words, or keywords, have a specific meaning to the compiler and cannot be used for other purposes in the program.

32. In Java, comments are preceded by two slashes ( // ) on a line, called a line comment, or enclosed between /* and */ on one or several lines, called a block comment or paragraph comment. Comments are ignored by the compiler.

33. Java source programs are case sensitive.
34. There are two types of import statements: specific import and wildcard import. The specific import specifies a single class in the import statement; the wildcard import imports all the classes in a package.

35. Programming errors can be categorized into three types: syntax errors, runtime errors, and logic errors. Errors that occur during compilation are called syntax errors or compile errors. Runtime errors are errors that cause a program to terminate abnormally. Logic errors occur when a program does not perform the way it was intended to.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

**Note**

Solutions to even-numbered exercises are on the Companion Website. Solutions to all exercises are on the Instructor Resource Website. The level of difficulty is rated easy (no star), moderate (*), hard (**), or challenging (***)

1.1 (Display three messages) Write a program that displays Welcome to Java, Welcome to Computer Science, and Programming is fun.

1.2 (Display five messages) Write a program that displays Welcome to Java five times.

*1.3 (Display a pattern) Write a program that displays the following pattern:

```
  J     A     V     V    A
  J    A A     V   V    A A
  J   J   AAAAA     V V    AAAAA
  J J   A     A     V    A     A
```

1.4 (Print a table) Write a program that displays the following table:

```
a   a^2   a^3   
1   1     1     
2   4     8     
3   9     27    
4   16    64    
```

1.5 (Compute expressions) Write a program that displays the result of

\[
\frac{9.5 \times 4.5 - 2.5 \times 3}{45.5 - 3.5}.
\]

1.6 (Summation of a series) Write a program that displays the result of

\[
1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9.
\]

1.7 (Approximate π) π can be computed using the following formula:

\[
\pi = 4 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \ldots \right)
\]

Write a program that displays the result of

\[
4 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11}\right)
\]

and

\[
4 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13}\right).
\]

Use 1.0 instead of 1 in your program.
1.8 (Area and perimeter of a circle) Write a program that displays the area and perimeter of a circle that has a radius of 5.5 using the following formula:

\[
\text{perimeter} = 2 \times \text{radius} \times \pi
\]
\[
\text{area} = \text{radius} \times \text{radius} \times \pi
\]

1.9 (Area and perimeter of a rectangle) Write a program that displays the area and perimeter of a rectangle with the width of 4.5 and height of 7.9 using the following formula:

\[
\text{area} = \text{width} \times \text{height}
\]

1.10 (Average speed in miles) Assume a runner runs 14 kilometers in 45 minutes and 30 seconds. Write a program that displays the average speed in miles per hour. (Note that 1 mile is 1.6 kilometers.)

1.11 (Population projection) The U.S. Census Bureau projects population based on the following assumptions:

- One birth every 7 seconds
- One death every 13 seconds
- One new immigrant every 45 seconds

Write a program to display the population for each of the next five years. Assume the current population is 312,032,486 and one year has 365 days. \textit{Hint}: In Java, if two integers perform division, the result is an integer. The fraction part is truncated. For example, 5 / 4 is 1 (not 1.25) and 10 / 4 is 2 (not 2.5).

1.12 (Average speed in kilometers) Assume a runner runs 24 miles in 1 hour, 40 minutes, and 35 seconds. Write a program that displays the average speed in kilometers per hour. (Note that 1 mile is 1.6 kilometers.)
Objectives

■ To write Java programs to perform simple computations (§2.2).
■ To obtain input from the console using the Scanner class (§2.3).
■ To use identifiers to name variables, constants, methods, and classes (§2.4).
■ To use variables to store data (§§2.5–2.6).
■ To program with assignment statements and assignment expressions (§2.6).
■ To use constants to store permanent data (§2.7).
■ To name classes, methods, variables, and constants by following their naming conventions (§2.8).
■ To explore Java numeric primitive data types: byte, short, int, long, float, and double (§2.9.1).
■ To perform operations using operators +, -, *, /, and % (§2.9.2).
■ To perform exponent operations using Math.pow(a, b) (§2.9.3).
■ To write integer literals, floating-point literals, and literals in scientific notation (§2.10).
■ To write and evaluate numeric expressions (§2.11).
■ To obtain the current system time using System.currentTimeMillis() (§2.12).
■ To use augmented assignment operators (§2.13).
■ To distinguish between postincrement and preincrement and between postdecrement and predecrement (§2.14).
■ To cast the value of one type to another type (§2.15).
■ To describe the software development process and apply it to develop the loan payment program (§2.16).
■ To represent characters using the char type (§2.17).
■ To represent a string using the String type (§2.18).
■ To obtain input using the JOptionPane input dialog boxes (§2.19).
2.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on learning elementary programming techniques to solve problems.

In Chapter 1 you learned how to create, compile, and run very basic Java programs. Now you will learn how to solve problems by writing programs. Through these problems, you will learn elementary programming using primitive data types, variables, constants, operators, expressions, and input and output.

Suppose, for example, that you need to take out a student loan. Given the loan amount, loan term, and annual interest rate, can you write a program to compute the monthly payment and total payment? This chapter shows you how to write programs like this. Along the way, you learn the basic steps that go into analyzing a problem, designing a solution, and implementing the solution by creating a program.

2.2 Writing a Simple Program

Writing a program involves designing a strategy for solving the problem and then using a programming language to implement that strategy.

Let’s first consider the simple problem of computing the area of a circle. How do we write a program for solving this problem?

Writing a program involves designing algorithms and translating algorithms into programming instructions, or code. An algorithm describes how a problem is solved by listing the actions that need to be taken and the order of their execution. Algorithms can help the programmer plan a program before writing it in a programming language. Algorithms can be described in natural languages or in pseudocode (natural language mixed with some programming code). The algorithm for calculating the area of a circle can be described as follows:

1. Read in the circle’s radius.
2. Compute the area using the following formula:
   \[ area = radius \times radius \times \pi \]
3. Display the result.

Tip
It’s always good practice to outline your program (or its underlying problem) in the form of an algorithm before you begin coding.

When you code—that is, when you write a program—you translate an algorithm into a program. You already know that every Java program begins with a class definition in which the keyword class is followed by the class name. Assume that you have chosen ComputeArea as the class name. The outline of the program would look like this:

```java
public class ComputeArea {
    // Details to be given later
}
```

As you know, every Java program must have a main method where program execution begins. The program is then expanded as follows:

```java
public class ComputeArea {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Step 1: Read in radius
        // Step 2: Compute area
```
2.2 Writing a Simple Program

The program needs to read the radius entered by the user from the keyboard. This raises two important issues:

- Reading the radius.
- Storing the radius in the program.

Let’s address the second issue first. In order to store the radius, the program needs to declare a symbol called a variable. A variable represents a value stored in the computer’s memory.

Rather than using `x` and `y` as variable names, choose descriptive names: in this case, `radius` for radius, and `area` for area. To let the compiler know what `radius` and `area` are, specify their data types. That is the kind of the data stored in a variable, whether integer, floating-point number, or something else. This is known as declaring variables. Java provides simple data types for representing integers, floating-point numbers (i.e., numbers with a decimal point), characters, and Boolean types. These types are known as primitive data types or fundamental types.

Declare `radius` and `area` as double-precision floating-point numbers. The program can be expanded as follows:

```java
public class ComputeArea {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double radius; // Declare radius
        double area;  // Declare area

        // Step 1: Read in radius
        // Step 2: Compute area
        // Step 3: Display the area
    }
}
```

The program declares `radius` and `area` as variables. The reserved word `double` indicates that `radius` and `area` are double-precision floating-point values stored in the computer.

The first step is to prompt the user to designate the circle’s `radius`. You will learn how to prompt the user for information shortly. For now, to learn how variables work, you can assign a fixed value to `radius` in the program as you write the code; later, you’ll modify the program to prompt the user for this value.

The second step is to compute `area` by assigning the result of the expression `radius * radius * 3.14159` to `area`.

In the final step, the program will display the value of `area` on the console by using the `System.out.println` method.

Listing 2.1 shows the complete program, and a sample run of the program is shown in Figure 2.1.

**Listing 2.1 ComputeArea.java**

```java
public class ComputeArea {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double radius; // Declare radius
        double area;   // Declare area

        // Assign a radius
        radius = 20;   // radius is now 20
```
Variables such as `radius` and `area` correspond to memory locations. Every variable has a name, a type, a size, and a value. Line 3 declares that `radius` can store a `double` value. The value is not defined until you assign a value. Line 7 assigns 20 into variable `radius`. Similarly, line 4 declares variable `area`, and line 10 assigns a value into `area`. The following table shows the value in the memory for `area` and `radius` as the program is executed. Each row in the table shows the values of variables after the statement in the corresponding line in the program is executed. This method of reviewing how a program works is called **tracing a program**. Tracing programs are helpful for understanding how programs work, and they are useful tools for finding errors in programs.

The plus sign (+) has two meanings: one for addition and the other for concatenating (combining) strings. The plus sign (+) in lines 13–14 is called a **string concatenation operator**. It combines two strings into one. If a string is combined with a number, the number is converted into a string and concatenated with the other string. Therefore, the plus signs (+) in lines 13–14 concatenate strings into a longer string, which is then displayed in the output. Strings and string concatenation will be discussed further in Section 2.18.

**Caution**

A string cannot cross lines in the source code. Thus, the following statement would result in a compile error:

```java
System.out.println("Introduction to Java Programming, by Y. Daniel Liang");
```
2.3 Reading Input from the Console

Reading input from the console enables the program to accept input from the user.

In Listing 2.1, the radius is fixed in the source code. To use a different radius, you have to modify the source code and recompile it. Obviously, this is not convenient, so instead you can use the `Scanner` class for console input.

Java uses `System.out` to refer to the standard output device and `System.in` to the standard input device. By default, the output device is the display monitor and the input device is the keyboard. To perform console output, you simply use the `println` method to display a primitive value or a string to the console. Console input is not directly supported in Java, but you can use the `Scanner` class to create an object to read input from `System.in`, as follows:

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
```

The syntax `new Scanner(System.in)` creates an object of the `Scanner` type. The syntax `Scanner input` declares that `input` is a variable whose type is `Scanner`. The whole line `Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in)` creates a `Scanner` object and assigns its reference to the variable `input`. An object may invoke its methods. To invoke a method on an object is to ask the object to perform a task. You can invoke the methods listed in Table 2.1 to read various types of input.

For now, we will see how to read a number that includes a decimal point by invoking the `nextDouble()` method. Other methods will be covered when they are used. Listing 2.2 rewrites Listing 2.1 to prompt the user to enter a radius.

### Listing 2.2  ComputeAreaWithConsoleInput.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;  // Scanner is in the java.util package

public class ComputeAreaWithConsoleInput {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner object
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
```
### Table 2.1  Methods for Scanner Objects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>nextByte()</code></td>
<td>reads an integer of the <code>byte</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextShort()</code></td>
<td>reads an integer of the <code>short</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextInt()</code></td>
<td>reads an integer of the <code>int</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextLong()</code></td>
<td>reads an integer of the <code>long</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextFloat()</code></td>
<td>reads a number of the <code>float</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextDouble()</code></td>
<td>reads a number of the <code>double</code> type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>next()</code></td>
<td>reads a string that ends before a whitespace character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nextLine()</code></td>
<td>reads a line of text (i.e., a string ending with the <code>Enter</code> key pressed).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```java
8     // Prompt the user to enter a radius
9      System.out.print("Enter a number for radius: ");
10    double radius = input.nextDouble();
11
12     // Compute area
13    double area = radius * radius * 3.14159;
14
15     // Display results
16   System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius " +
17       radius + " is " + area);
18 }
19 }
```

Enter a number for radius: 2.5
The area for the circle of radius 2.5 is 19.6349375

Enter a number for radius: 23
The area for the circle of radius 23.0 is 1661.90111

The `Scanner` class is in the `java.util` package. It is imported in line 1. Line 6 creates a `Scanner` object.
The statement in line 9 displays a message to prompt the user for input.

```
System.out.print("Enter a number for radius: ");
```

The `print` method is identical to the `println` method except that `println` moves to the beginning of the next line after displaying the string, but `print` does not advance to the next line when completed.
The statement in line 10 reads input from the keyboard.

```
double radius = input.nextDouble();
```

After the user enters a number and presses the `Enter` key, the program reads the number and assigns it to `radius`.  

**print vs. println**
More details on objects will be introduced in Chapter 8. For the time being, simply accept that this is how to obtain input from the console.

Listing 2.3 gives an example of reading multiple input from the keyboard. The program reads three numbers and displays their average.

**LISTING 2.3  ComputeAverage.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner; // Scanner is in the java.util package

public class ComputeAverage {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner object
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter three numbers
        System.out.print("Enter three numbers: ");

        double number1 = input.nextDouble();
        double number2 = input.nextDouble();
        double number3 = input.nextDouble();

        // Compute average
        double average = (number1 + number2 + number3) / 3;

        // Display results
        System.out.println("The average of "+ number1 + " "+ number2 + " "+ number3 + " is "+ average);
    }
}
```

Enter three numbers: 1 2 3
The average of 1.0 2.0 3.0 is 2.0

Enter three numbers: 10.5 11.0 11.5
The average of 10.5 11.0 11.5 is 11.0

The code for importing the `Scanner` class (line 1) and creating a `Scanner` object (line 6) are the same as in the preceding example as well as in all new programs you will write for reading input from the keyboard.

Line 9 prompts the user to enter three numbers. The numbers are read in lines 10–12. You may enter three numbers separated by spaces, then press the `Enter` key, or enter each number followed by a press of the `Enter` key, as shown in the sample runs of this program.

If you entered an input other than a numeric value, a runtime error would occur. In Chapter 14, you will learn how to handle the exception so that the program can continue to run.

**Note**

Most of the programs in the early chapters of this book perform three steps: input, process, and output, called IPO. Input is receiving input from the user; process is producing results using the input; and output is displaying the results.
How do you write a statement to let the user enter an integer or a double value from the keyboard?

What happens if you entered 5a when executing the following code?
```
double radius = input.nextDouble();
```

Identifiers are the names that identify the elements such as classes, methods, and variables in a program.

As you see in Listing 2.3, `ComputeAverage`, `main`, `input`, `number1`, `number2`, `number3`, and so on are the names of things that appear in the program. In programming terminology, such names are called identifiers. All identifiers must obey the following rules:

- An identifier is a sequence of characters that consists of letters, digits, underscores (_), and dollar signs ($).
- An identifier must start with a letter, an underscore (_), or a dollar sign ($). It cannot start with a digit.
- An identifier cannot be a reserved word. (See Appendix A for a list of reserved words.)
- An identifier cannot be `true`, `false`, or `null`.
- An identifier can be of any length.

For example, `$2`, `ComputeArea`, `area`, `radius`, and `showMessageDialog` are legal identifiers, whereas `2A` and `d+4` are not because they do not follow the rules. The Java compiler detects illegal identifiers and reports syntax errors.

Since Java is case sensitive, `area`, `Area`, and `AREA` are all different identifiers.

Identifiers are for naming variables, constants, methods, classes, and packages. Descriptive identifiers make programs easy to read. Avoid using abbreviations for identifiers. Using complete words is more descriptive. For example, `numberOfStudents` is better than `numStuds`, `numOfStuds`, or `numOfStudents`. We use descriptive names for complete programs in the text. However, we will occasionally use variables names such as i, j, k, x, and y in the code snippets for brevity. These names also provide a generic tone to the code snippets.

Do not name identifiers with the $ character. By convention, the $ character should be used only in mechanically generated source code.

Which of the following identifiers are valid? Which are Java keywords?
```
miles, Test, a++, --a, 4#:R, $4, #44, apps
class, public, int, x, y, radius
```

Variables are used to represent values that may be changed in the program.

As you see from the programs in the preceding sections, variables are used to store values to be used later in a program. They are called variables because their values can be changed. In
the program in Listing 2.2, `radius` and `area` are variables of the double-precision, floating-point type. You can assign any numerical value to `radius` and `area`, and the values of `radius` and `area` can be reassigned. For example, in the following code, `radius` is initially `1.0` (line 2) and then changed to `2.0` (line 7), and `area` is set to `3.14159` (line 3) and then reset to `12.56636` (line 8).

```java
1  // Compute the first area
2  radius = 1.0;  // radius: 1.0
3  area = radius * radius * 3.14159;  // area: 3.14159
4  System.out.println("The area is "+ area +" for radius "+ radius);
5
6  // Compute the second area
7  radius = 2.0;  // radius: 2.0
8  area = radius * radius * 3.14159;  // area: 12.56636
9  System.out.println("The area is "+ area +" for radius "+ radius);
```

Variables are for representing data of a certain type. To use a variable, you declare it by telling the compiler its name as well as what type of data it can store. The *variable declaration* tells the compiler to allocate appropriate memory space for the variable based on its data type. The syntax for declaring a variable is

```java
datatype variableName;
```

Here are some examples of variable declarations:

```java
int count;  // Declare count to be an integer variable
double radius;  // Declare radius to be a double variable
double interestRate;  // Declare interestRate to be a double variable
```

These examples use the data types `int` and `double`. Later you will be introduced to additional data types, such as `byte, short, long, float, char,` and `boolean`.

If variables are of the same type, they can be declared together, as follows:

```java
datatype variable1, variable2, ..., variablen;
```

The variables are separated by commas. For example,

```java
int i, j, k;  // Declare i, j, and k as int variables
```

Variables often have initial values. You can declare a variable and initialize it in one step. Consider, for instance, the following code:

```java
int count = 1;
```

This is equivalent to the next two statements:

```java
int count;
count = 1;
```

You can also use a shorthand form to declare and initialize variables of the same type together. For example,

```java
int i = 1, j = 2;
```

**Tip**

A variable must be declared before it can be assigned a value. A variable declared in a method must be assigned a value before it can be used.

Whenever possible, declare a variable and assign its initial value in one step. This will make the program easy to read and avoid programming errors.
Every variable has a scope. The scope of a variable is the part of the program where the variable can be referenced. The rules that define the scope of a variable will be introduced gradually later in the book. For now, all you need to know is that a variable must be declared and initialized before it can be used. Consider the following code:

```java
int interestRate = 0.05
int interest = interestRate * 45
```

This code is wrong, because `interestRate` is assigned a value 0.05, but `interestrate` has not been declared and initialized. Java is case sensitive, so it considers `interestRate` and `interestrate` to be two different variables.

### 2.6 Assignment Statements and Assignment Expressions

An assignment statement designates a value for a variable. An assignment statement can be used as an expression in Java.

After a variable is declared, you can assign a value to it by using an assignment statement. In Java, the equal sign (=) is used as the assignment operator. The syntax for assignment statements is as follows:

```java
variable = expression;
```

An expression represents a computation involving values, variables, and operators that, taking them together, evaluates to a value. For example, consider the following code:

```java
int y = 1; // Assign 1 to variable y
double radius = 1.0; // Assign 1.0 to variable radius
int x = 5 * (3 / 2); // Assign the value of the expression to x
x = y + 1; // Assign the addition of y and 1 to x
area = radius * radius * 3.14159; // Compute area
```

You can use a variable in an expression. A variable can also be used in both sides of the = operator. For example,

```java
x = x + 1;
```

In this assignment statement, the result of `x + 1` is assigned to `x`. If `x` is 1 before the statement is executed, then it becomes 2 after the statement is executed.

To assign a value to a variable, you must place the variable name to the left of the assignment operator. Thus, the following statement is wrong:

```java
1 = x; // Wrong
```

**Note**

In mathematics, \(x = 2 \times x + 1\) denotes an equation. However, in Java, \(x = 2 \times x + 1\) is an assignment statement that evaluates the expression \(2 \times x + 1\) and assigns the result to `x`.

In Java, an assignment statement is essentially an expression that evaluates to the value to be assigned to the variable on the left side of the assignment operator. For this reason, an assignment statement is also known as an assignment expression. For example, the following statement is correct:

```java
System.out.println(x = 1);
```
which is equivalent to

```java
x = 1;
System.out.println(x);
```

If a value is assigned to multiple variables, you can use this syntax:

```java
i = j = k = 1;
```

which is equivalent to

```java
k = 1;
j = k;
i = j;
```

**Note**

In an assignment statement, the data type of the variable on the left must be compatible with the data type of the value on the right. For example, `int x = 1.0` would be illegal, because the data type of `x` is `int`. You cannot assign a `double` value (`1.0`) to an `int` variable without using type casting. Type casting is introduced in Section 2.15.

### 2.7 Named Constants

A named constant is an identifier that represents a permanent value.

The value of a variable may change during the execution of a program, but a named constant, or simply constant, represents permanent data that never changes. In our `ComputeArea` program, \( \pi \) is a constant. If you use it frequently, you don’t want to keep typing 3.14159; instead, you can declare a constant for \( \pi \). Here is the syntax for declaring a constant:

```java
final datatype CONSTANTNAME = value;
```

A constant must be declared and initialized in the same statement. The word `final` is a Java keyword for declaring a constant. For example, you can declare \( \pi \) as a constant and rewrite Listing 2.1 as follows:

```java
// ComputeArea.java: Compute the area of a circle
public class ComputeArea {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final double PI = 3.14159; // Declare a constant

        // Assign a radius
        double radius = 20;

        // Compute area
        double area = radius * radius * PI;

        // Display results
        System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius "+radius + " is " + area);
    }
}
```

There are three benefits of using constants: (1) You don’t have to repeatedly type the same value if it is used multiple times; (2) if you have to change the constant value (e.g., from 3.14 to 3.14159 for \( \pi \)), you need to change it only in a single location in the source code; and (3) a descriptive name for a constant makes the program easy to read.
2.8 Naming Conventions

Sticking with the Java naming conventions makes your programs easy to read and avoids errors.

Make sure that you choose descriptive names with straightforward meanings for the variables, constants, classes, and methods in your program. As mentioned earlier, names are case sensitive. Listed below are the conventions for naming variables, methods, and classes.

**name variables and methods**
- Use lowercase for variables and methods. If a name consists of several words, concatenate them into one, making the first word lowercase and capitalizing the first letter of each subsequent word—for example, the variables `radius` and `area` and the method `showMessageDialog`.

**name classes**
- Capitalize the first letter of each word in a class name—for example, the class names `ComputeArea`, `System`, and `JOptionPane`.

**name constants**
- Capitalize every letter in a constant, and use underscores between words—for example, the constants `PI` and `MAX_VALUE`.

It is important to follow the naming conventions to make your programs easy to read.

**Caution**
Do not choose class names that are already used in the Java library. For example, since the `System` class is defined in Java, you should not name your class `System`.

### 2.5 CheckPoint
What are the benefits of using constants? Declare an `int` constant `SIZE` with value 20.

### 2.6 CheckPoint
What are the naming conventions for class names, method names, constants, and variables? Which of the following items can be a constant, a method, a variable, or a class according to the Java naming conventions?

- `MAX_VALUE`, `Test`, `read`, `readInt`

### 2.7 CheckPoint
Translate the following algorithm into Java code:

- Step 1: Declare a `double` variable named `miles` with initial value 100.
- Step 2: Declare a `double` constant named `KILOMETERS_PER_MILE` with value 1.609.
- Step 3: Declare a `double` variable named `kilometers`, multiply `miles` and `KILOMETERS_PER_MILE`, and assign the result to `kilometers`.
- Step 4: Display `kilometers` to the console.

What is kilometers after Step 4?

### 2.9 Numeric Data Types and Operations

Java has six numeric types for integers and floating-point numbers with operators `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, and `%`.

#### 2.9.1 Numeric Types

Every data type has a range of values. The compiler allocates memory space for each variable or constant according to its data type. Java provides eight primitive data types for numeric values, characters, and Boolean values. This section introduces numeric data types and operators.

Table 2.2 lists the six numeric data types, their ranges, and their storage sizes.
### Table 2.2 Numeric Data Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Storage Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>(-2^7 \pm 1 (-128 to 127))</td>
<td>8-bit signed byte type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>(-2^{15} \pm 1 (-32768 to 32767))</td>
<td>16-bit signed short type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>(-2^{31} \pm 1 (-2147483648 to 2147483647))</td>
<td>32-bit signed int type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>(-2^{63} \pm 1) (i.e., (-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807))</td>
<td>64-bit signed long type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>Negative range: (-3.4028235E+38 to -1.4E+45)</td>
<td>32-bit IEEE 754 float type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive range: (1.4E+45 to 3.4028235E+38)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>Negative range: (-1.7976931348623157E+308 to -4.9E+324)</td>
<td>64-bit IEEE 754 double type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive range: (4.9E+324 to 1.7976931348623157E+308)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note**

IEEE 754 is a standard approved by the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers for representing floating-point numbers on computers. The standard has been widely adopted. Java uses the 32-bit IEEE 754 for the float type and the 64-bit IEEE 754 for the double type. The IEEE 754 standard also defines special floating-point values, which are listed in Appendix E.

Java uses four types for integers: byte, short, int, and long. Choose the type that is most appropriate for your variable. For example, if you know an integer stored in a variable is within a range of a byte, declare the variable as a byte. For simplicity and consistency, we will use int for integers most of the time in this book.

Java uses two types for floating-point numbers: float and double. The double type is twice as big as float, so the double is known as double precision and float as single precision. Normally you should use the double type, because it is more accurate than the float type.

**Caution**

When a variable is assigned a value that is too large (in size) to be stored, it causes overflow. For example, executing the following statement causes overflow, because the largest value that can be stored in a variable of the int type is \(2147483647\). \(2147483648\) will be too large for an int value.

```java
int value = 2147483647 + 1;
// value will actually be -2147483648
```

Likewise, executing the following statement causes overflow, because the smallest value that can be stored in a variable of the int type is \(-2147483648\). \(-2147483649\) will be too large in size to be stored in an int variable.

```java
int value = -2147483648 - 1;
// value will actually be 2147483647
```

Java does not report warnings or errors on overflow, so be careful when working with numbers close to the maximum or minimum range of a given type.
When a floating-point number is too small (i.e., too close to zero) to be stored, it causes underflow. Java approximates it to zero, so normally you don’t need to be concerned about underflow.

### 2.9.2 Numeric Operators

The operators for numeric data types include the standard arithmetic operators: addition (+), subtraction (–), multiplication (*), division (/), and remainder (%), as shown in Table 2.3. The operands are the values operated by an operator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>34 + 1</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>–</td>
<td>Subtraction</td>
<td>34.0 – 0.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Multiplication</td>
<td>300 * 30</td>
<td>9000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>1.0 / 2.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Remainder</td>
<td>20 % 3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When both operands of a division are integers, the result of the division is an integer and the fractional part is truncated. For example, 5 / 2 yields 2, not 2.5, and –5 / 2 yields –2, not –2.5. To perform regular mathematical division, one of the operands must be a floating-point number. For example, 5.0 / 2 yields 2.5.

The % operator, known as remainder or modulo operator, yields the remainder after division. The operand on the left is the dividend and the operand on the right is the divisor. Therefore, 7 % 3 yields 1, 3 % 7 yields 3, 12 % 4 yields 0, 26 % 8 yields 2, and 20 % 13 yields 7.

![Integer Division Diagram](image)

The % operator is often used for positive integers, but it can also be used with negative integers and floating-point values. The remainder is negative only if the dividend is negative. For example, –7 % 3 yields –1, –12 % 4 yields 0, –26 % –8 yields –2, and 20 % –13 yields 7.

Remainder is very useful in programming. For example, an even number % 2 is always 0 and an odd number % 2 is always 1. Thus, you can use this property to determine whether a number is even or odd. If today is Saturday, it will be Saturday again in 7 days. Suppose you and your friends are going to meet in 10 days. What day is in 10 days? You can find that the day is Tuesday using the following expression:

\[
(6 + 10) \% 7 = 2
\]

Day 6 in a week is Saturday
A week has 7 days
After 10 days
Day 2 in a week is Tuesday
Note: Day 0 in a week is Sunday
The program in Listing 2.4 obtains minutes and remaining seconds from an amount of time in seconds. For example, 500 seconds contains 8 minutes and 20 seconds.

**Listing 2.4 DisplayTime.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class DisplayTime {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Prompt the user for input
        System.out.print("Enter an integer for seconds: ");
        int seconds = input.nextInt();

        int minutes = seconds / 60; // Find minutes in seconds
        int remainingSeconds = seconds % 60; // Seconds remaining
        System.out.println(seconds + " seconds is " + minutes + " minutes and " + remainingSeconds + " seconds");
    }
}
```

Enter an integer for seconds: 500  
500 seconds is 8 minutes and 20 seconds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>seconds</th>
<th>minutes</th>
<th>remainingSeconds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `nextInt()` method (line 8) reads an integer for `seconds`. Line 10 obtains the minutes using `seconds / 60`. Line 11 (`seconds % 60`) obtains the remaining seconds after taking away the minutes.

The `+` and `-` operators can be both unary and binary. A *unary* operator has only one operand; a *binary* operator has two. For example, the `-` operator in `-5` is a unary operator to negate number 5, whereas the `-` operator in `4 - 5` is a binary operator for subtracting 5 from 4.

**Note**
Calculations involving floating-point numbers are approximated because these numbers are not stored with complete accuracy. For example,

```java
System.out.println(1.0 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1 - 0.1);
```

displays `0.5000000000000001`, not `0.5`, and

```java
System.out.println(1.0 - 0.9);
```

displays `0.09999999999999998`, not `0.1`. Integers are stored precisely. Therefore, calculations with integers yield a precise integer result.
2.9.3 Exponent Operations

The `Math.pow(a, b)` method can be used to compute \(a^b\). The `pow` method is defined in the `Math` class in the Java API. You invoke the method using the syntax `Math.pow(a, b)` (i.e., `Math.pow(2, 3)`), which returns the result of \(a^b\). Here `a` and `b` are parameters for the `pow` method and the numbers 2 and 3 are actual values used to invoke the method. For example,

```
System.out.println(Math.pow(2, 3));  // Displays 8.0
System.out.println(Math.pow(4, 0.5)); // Displays 2.0
System.out.println(Math.pow(2.5, 2)); // Displays 6.25
System.out.println(Math.pow(2.5, -2)); // Displays 0.16
```

Chapter 5 introduces more details on methods. For now, all you need to know is how to invoke the `pow` method to perform the exponent operation.

2.8 Find the largest and smallest `byte`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, and `double`. Which of these data types requires the least amount of memory?

2.9 Show the result of the following remainders.

- \(56 \ % \ 6\)
- \(78 \ % \ -4\)
- \(-34 \ % \ 5\)
- \(-34 \ % \ -5\)
- \(5 \ % \ 1\)
- \(1 \ % \ 5\)

2.10 If today is Tuesday, what will be the day in 100 days?

2.11 What is the result of \(25 \ / \ 4\)? How would you rewrite the expression if you wished the result to be a floating-point number?

2.12 Are the following statements correct? If so, show the output.

```
 System.out.println("25 / 4 is " + 25 / 4);
 System.out.println("25 / 4.0 is " + 25 / 4.0);
 System.out.println("3 * 2 / 4 is " + 3 * 2 / 4);
 System.out.println("3.0 * 2 / 4 is " + 3.0 * 2 / 4);
```

2.13 Write a statement to display the result of \(2^{3.5}\).

2.14 Suppose `m` and `r` are integers. Write a Java expression for \(mr^2\) to obtain a floating-point result.

## 2.10 Numeric Literals

A literal is a constant value that appears directly in a program.

For example, 34 and 0.305 are literals in the following statements:

```
 int numberOfYears = 34;
 double weight = 0.305;
```

### 2.10.1 Integer Literals

An integer literal can be assigned to an integer variable as long as it can fit into the variable. A compile error will occur if the literal is too large for the variable to hold. The statement `byte b = 128`, for example, will cause a compile error, because 128 cannot be stored in a variable of the `byte` type. (Note that the range for a byte value is from –128 to 127.)
An integer literal is assumed to be of the int type, whose value is between \(-2^{31} (-2147483648)\) and \(2^{31} - 1 (2147483647)\). To denote an integer literal of the long type, append the letter L or l to it. For example, to write integer 2147483648 in a Java program, you have to write it as 2147483648L or 2147483648l, because 2147483648 exceeds the range for the int value. L is preferred because l (lowercase L) can easily be confused with 1 (the digit one).

**Note**

By default, an integer literal is a decimal integer number. To denote an octal integer literal, use a leading 0 (zero), and to denote a hexadecimal integer literal, use a leading 0x or 0X (zero x). For example, the following code displays the decimal value 65535 for hexadecimal number FFFF.

```java
System.out.println(0xFFF);
```

Hexadecimal numbers, binary numbers, and octal numbers are introduced in Appendix F.

### 2.10.2 Floating-Point Literals

Floating-point literals are written with a decimal point. By default, a floating-point literal is treated as a double type value. For example, 5.0 is considered a double value, not a float value. You can make a number a float by appending the letter f or F, and you can make a number a double by appending the letter d or D. For example, you can use 100.2f or 100.2F for a float number, and 100.2d or 100.2D for a double number.

**Note**

The double type values are more accurate than the float type values. For example,

```java
System.out.println("1.0 / 3.0 is " + 1.0 / 3.0);
```

displays 1.0 / 3.0 is 0.3333333333333333.

```java
System.out.println("1.0F / 3.0F is " + 1.0F / 3.0F);
```

displays 1.0F / 3.0F is 0.33333334.

### 2.10.3 Scientific Notation

Floating-point literals can be written in scientific notation in the form of \(a \times 10^b\). For example, the scientific notation for 123.456 is \(1.23456 \times 10^2\) and for 0.0123456 is \(1.23456 \times 10^{-2}\). A special syntax is used to write scientific notation numbers. For example, 1.23456 \(\times 10^2\) is written as 1.23456E2 or 1.23456E+2 and 1.23456 \(\times 10^{-2}\) as 1.23456E-2. E (or e) represents an exponent and can be in either lowercase or uppercase.

**Note**

The float and double types are used to represent numbers with a decimal point. Why are they called floating-point numbers? These numbers are stored in scientific notation internally. When a number such as 50.534 is converted into scientific notation, such as 5.0534E+1, its decimal point is moved (i.e., floated) to a new position.

### 2.15

Which of the following are correct literals for floating-point numbers?

- 12.3, 12.3e+2, 23.4e-2, -334.4, 20.5, 39f, 40D

### 2.16

Which of the following are the same as 52.534?

- 5.2534e+1, 0.52534e+2, 525.34e-1, 5.2534e0
2.11 Evaluating Expressions and Operator Precedence

Java expressions are evaluated in the same way as arithmetic expressions.

Writing a numeric expression in Java involves a straightforward translation of an arithmetic expression using Java operators. For example, the arithmetic expression

\[
\frac{3 + 4x}{5} - \frac{10(y - 5)(a + b + c)}{x} + 9\left(\frac{4}{x} + \frac{9 + x}{y}\right)
\]

can be translated into a Java expression as:

\[
\frac{(3 + 4 \times x)}{5} - \frac{10 \times (y - 5) \times (a + b + c)}{x} + 9 \times \left(\frac{4}{x} + \frac{9 + x}{y}\right)
\]

Though Java has its own way to evaluate an expression behind the scene, the result of a Java expression and its corresponding arithmetic expression are the same. Therefore, you can safely apply the arithmetic rule for evaluating a Java expression. Operators contained within pairs of parentheses are evaluated first. Parentheses can be nested, in which case the expression in the inner parentheses is evaluated first. When more than one operator is used in an expression, the following operator precedence rule is used to determine the order of evaluation.

- Multiplication, division, and remainder operators are applied first. If an expression contains several multiplication, division, and remainder operators, they are applied from left to right.

- Addition and subtraction operators are applied last. If an expression contains several addition and subtraction operators, they are applied from left to right.

Here is an example of how an expression is evaluated:

\[
\begin{align*}
3 + 4 \times 4 + 5 \times (4 + 3) - 1 \\
3 + 4 \times 4 + 5 \times 7 - 1 \\
3 + 16 + 5 \times 7 - 1 \\
3 + 16 + 35 - 1 \\
19 + 35 - 1 \\
54 - 1 \\
53
\end{align*}
\]

(1) inside parentheses first
(2) multiplication
(3) multiplication
(4) addition
(5) addition
(6) subtraction

Listing 2.5 gives a program that converts a Fahrenheit degree to Celsius using the formula
\[
celsius = \frac{5}{9}(fahrenheit - 32).
\]

**Listing 2.5** FahrenheitToCelsius.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class FahrenheitToCelsius {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a degree in Fahrenheit: ");
```
double fahrenheit = input.nextDouble();

// Convert Fahrenheit to Celsius
double celsius = (5.0 / 9) * (fahrenheit - 32);
System.out.println("Fahrenheit " + fahrenheit + " is " +
celsius + " in Celsius");
}

Enter a degree in Fahrenheit: 100 Enter
Fahrenheit 100.0 is 37.77777777777778 in Celsius

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>fahrenheit</th>
<th>celsius</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>37.77777777777778</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Be careful when applying division. Division of two integers yields an integer in Java. \( \frac{5}{9} \) is translated to \( 5.0 / 9 \) instead of \( 5 / 9 \) in line 11, because \( 5 / 9 \) yields 0 in Java.

2.17 How would you write the following arithmetic expression in Java?

\[
\frac{4}{3(r + 34)} - 9(a + bc) + \frac{3 + d(2 + a)}{a + bd}
\]

2.12 Case Study: Displaying the Current Time

You can invoke System.currentTimeMillis() to return the current time.

The problem is to develop a program that displays the current time in GMT (Greenwich Mean Time) in the format hour:minute:second, such as 13:19:8.

The currentTimeMillis method in the System class returns the current time in milliseconds elapsed since the time 00:00:00 on January 1, 1970 GMT, as shown in Figure 2.2. This time is known as the UNIX epoch. The epoch is the point when time starts, and 1970 was the year when the UNIX operating system was formally introduced.

![Figure 2.2](image)

The System.currentTimeMillis() returns the number of milliseconds since the UNIX epoch.

You can use this method to obtain the current time, and then compute the current second, minute, and hour as follows.

1. Obtain the total milliseconds since midnight, January 1, 1970, in totalMilliseconds by invoking System.currentTimeMillis() (e.g., 1203183068328 milliseconds).
2. Obtain the total seconds `totalSeconds` by dividing `totalMilliseconds` by 1000 (e.g., `1203183068328` milliseconds / `1000` = `1203183068` seconds).

3. Compute the current second from `totalSeconds % 60` (e.g., `1203183068` seconds % `60` = `8`, which is the current second).

4. Obtain the total minutes `totalMinutes` by dividing `totalSeconds` by 60 (e.g., `1203183068` seconds / `60` = `20053051` minutes).

5. Compute the current minute from `totalMinutes % 60` (e.g., `20053051` minutes % `60` = `31`, which is the current minute).

6. Obtain the total hours `totalHours` by dividing `totalMinutes` by 60 (e.g., `20053051` minutes / `60` = `334217` hours).

7. Compute the current hour from `totalHours % 24` (e.g., `334217` hours % `24` = `17`, which is the current hour).

Listing 2.6 gives the complete program.

**LISTING 2.6  ShowCurrentTime.java**

```java
public class ShowCurrentTime {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Obtain the total milliseconds since midnight, Jan 1, 1970
        long totalMilliseconds = System.currentTimeMillis();

        // Obtain the total seconds since midnight, Jan 1, 1970
        long totalSeconds = totalMilliseconds / 1000;

        // Compute the current second in the minute in the hour
        long currentSecond = totalSeconds % 60;

        // Obtain the total minutes
        long totalMinutes = totalSeconds / 60;

        // Compute the current minute in the hour
        long currentMinute = totalMinutes % 60;

        // Obtain the total hours
        long totalHours = totalMinutes / 60;

        // Compute the current hour
        long currentHour = totalHours % 24;

        // Display results
        System.out.println("Current time is ": currentHour + ":" + currentMinute + ":" + currentSecond + " GMT");
    }
}
```

Current time is 17:31:8 GMT

Line 4 invokes `System.currentTimeMillis()` to obtain the current time in milliseconds as a long value. Thus, all the variables are declared as the long type in this program. The seconds, minutes, and hours are extracted from the current time using the `/` and `%` operators (lines 6–22).
2.13 Augmented Assignment Operators

The operators +, -, *, /, and % can be combined with the assignment operator to form augmented operators.

Very often the current value of a variable is used, modified, and then reassigned back to the same variable. For example, the following statement increases the variable `count` by 1:

```java
count = count + 1;
```

Java allows you to combine assignment and addition operators using an augmented (or compound) assignment operator. For example, the preceding statement can be written as:

```java
count += 1;
```

The `+=` is called the *addition assignment operator*. Table 2.4 shows other augmented assignment operators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+=</td>
<td>Addition assignment</td>
<td><code>i += 8</code></td>
<td><code>i = i + 8</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-=</td>
<td>Subtraction assignment</td>
<td><code>i -= 8</code></td>
<td><code>i = i - 8</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*=</td>
<td>Multiplication assignment</td>
<td><code>i *= 8</code></td>
<td><code>i = i * 8</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>Division assignment</td>
<td><code>i /= 8</code></td>
<td><code>i = i / 8</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%=</td>
<td>Remainder assignment</td>
<td><code>i %= 8</code></td>
<td><code>i = i % 8</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the sample run, a single digit 8 is displayed for the second. The desirable output would be 08. This can be fixed by using a function that formats a single digit with a prefix 0 (see Exercise 5.37).
Chapter 2 Elementary Programming

Table 2.5  Increment and Decrement Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example (assume $i = 1$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>++var</td>
<td>preincrement</td>
<td>Increment $\textvar$ by 1, and use the new $\textvar$ value in the statement</td>
<td>$\text{int } j = ++i;$  \quad $// j \text{ is 2, } i \text{ is 2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var++</td>
<td>postincrement</td>
<td>Increment $\textvar$ by 1, but use the original $\textvar$ value in the statement</td>
<td>$\text{int } j = i++;$  \quad $// j \text{ is 1, } i \text{ is 2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--var</td>
<td>predecrement</td>
<td>Decrement $\textvar$ by 1, and use the new $\textvar$ value in the statement</td>
<td>$\text{int } j = --i;$  \quad $// j \text{ is 0, } i \text{ is 0}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var--</td>
<td>postdecrement</td>
<td>Decrement $\textvar$ by 1, and use the original $\textvar$ value in the statement</td>
<td>$\text{int } j = i--;$  \quad $// j \text{ is 1, } i \text{ is 0}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Caution
There are no spaces in the augmented assignment operators. For example, $+= $ should be $+= $.

Note
Like the assignment operator ($=$), the operators ($+=, -=, *=, /=, %= $) can be used to form an assignment statement as well as an expression. For example, in the following code, $x += 2$ is a statement in the first line and an expression in the second line.

\[
x += 2; \quad \text{// Statement}
\]
\[
\text{System.out.println(x += 2); \quad \text{// Expression}}
\]

2.14 Increment and Decrement Operators

The increment ($++$) and decrement ($--$) operators are for incrementing and decrementing a variable by 1.

- $++$ and $--$ are two shorthand operators for incrementing and decrementing a variable by 1. These are handy, because that’s often how much the value needs to be changed in many programming tasks. For example, the following code increments $i$ by 1 and decrements $j$ by 1.

```
int i = 3, j = 3;
i++;  // $i$ becomes 4
j--;  // $j$ becomes 2
```

In some cases, the number is not always 1. For example, $++i$ increments $i$ by 2, and $--j$ decrements $j$ by 2. These operators are known as postfix increment (or postincrement) and postfix decrement (or postdecrement), because the operators $++$ and $--$ are placed after the variable. These operators can also be placed before the variable. For example,

```
int i = 3, j = 3;
++i;  // $i$ becomes 5
--j;  // $j$ becomes 1
```

As you see, the effect of $i++$ and $++i$ or $i--$ and $--i$ are the same in the preceding examples. However, their effects are different when they are used in statements that do more than just increment and decrement. Table 2.5 describes their differences and gives examples.
2.14 Increment and Decrement Operators

Here are additional examples to illustrate the differences between the prefix form of `++` (or `--`) and the postfix form of `++` (or `--`). Consider the following code:

```java
int i = 10;
int newNum = 10 * i++;
System.out.print("i is " + i
    + ", newNum is " + newNum);
```

```plaintext
i is 11, newNum is 100
```

In this case, `i` is incremented by 1, then the old value of `i` is used in the multiplication. So `newNum` becomes 100. If `i++` is replaced by `++i` as follows,

```java
int i = 10;
int newNum = 10 * (++i);
System.out.print("i is " + i
    + ", newNum is " + newNum);
```

```plaintext
i is 11, newNum is 110
```

`i` is incremented by 1, and the new value of `i` is used in the multiplication. Thus `newNum` becomes 110.

Here is another example:

```java
double x = 1.0;
double y = 5.0;
double z = x-- + (++y);
```

After all three lines are executed, `y` becomes 6.0, `z` becomes 7.0, and `x` becomes 0.0.

**Tip**

Using increment and decrement operators makes expressions short, but it also makes them complex and difficult to read. Avoid using these operators in expressions that modify multiple variables or the same variable multiple times, such as this one: `int k = ++i + i`.

### 2.18 Which of these statements are true?

a. Any expression can be used as a statement.

b. The expression `x++` can be used as a statement.

c. The statement `x = x + 5` is also an expression.

d. The statement `x = y = x = 0` is illegal.

### 2.19 Assume that `int a = 1` and `double d = 1.0`, and that each expression is independent. What are the results of the following expressions?

```java
a = 46 / 9;
a = 46 % 9 + 4 * 4 - 2;
a = 45 + 43 % 5 * (23 * 3 % 2);
a %= 3 / a + 3;
d = 4 + d * d + 4;
d += 1.5 * 3 + (++a);
d -= 1.5 * 3 + a++;
```
Chapter 2 Elementary Programming

2.20 How do you obtain the current minute using the `System.currentTimeMillis()` method?

2.15 Numeric Type Conversions

Floating-point numbers can be converted into integers using explicit casting.

Can you perform binary operations with two operands of different types? Yes. If an integer and a floating-point number are involved in a binary operation, Java automatically converts the integer to a floating-point value. So, \(3 * 4.5\) is same as \(3.0 * 4.5\).

You can always assign a value to a numeric variable whose type supports a larger range of values; thus, for instance, you can assign a `long` value to a `float` variable. You cannot, however, assign a value to a variable of a type with a smaller range unless you use type casting. Casting is an operation that converts a value of one data type into a value of another data type. Casting a type with a small range to a type with a larger range is known as widening a type. Casting a type with a large range to a type with a smaller range is known as narrowing a type. Java will automatically widen a type, but you must narrow a type explicitly.

The syntax for casting a type is to specify the target type in parentheses, followed by the variable’s name or the value to be cast. For example, the following statement

```java
System.out.println(((int)1.7));
```

displays 1. When a `double` value is cast into an `int` value, the fractional part is truncated. The following statement

```java
System.out.println(((double)1 / 2));
```

displays 0.5, because 1 is cast to 1.0 first, then 1.0 is divided by 2. However, the statement

```java
System.out.println(1 / 2);
```

displays 0, because 1 and 2 are both integers and the resulting value should also be an integer.

**Caution**

Casting is necessary if you are assigning a value to a variable of a smaller type range, such as assigning a `double` value to an `int` variable. A compile error will occur if casting is not used in situations of this kind. However, be careful when using casting, as loss of information might lead to inaccurate results.

**Note**

Casting does not change the variable being cast. For example, `d` is not changed after casting in the following code:

```java
double d = 4.5;
int i = (int)d; // i becomes 4, but d is still 4.5
```

**Note**

In Java, an augmented expression of the form `x1 op= x2` is implemented as `x1 = (T)(x1 op x2)`, where `T` is the type for `x1`. Therefore, the following code is correct.

```java
int sum = 0;
sum += 4.5; // sum becomes 4 after this statement
```

`sum += 4.5` is equivalent to `sum = (int)(sum + 4.5)`. 
2.15 Numeric Type Conversions

Note
To assign a variable of the `int` type to a variable of the `short` or `byte` type, explicit casting must be used. For example, the following statements have a compile error:

```java
int i = 1;
byte b = i; // Error because explicit casting is required
```

However, so long as the integer literal is within the permissible range of the target variable, explicit casting is not needed to assign an integer literal to a variable of the `short` or `byte` type (see Section 2.10, Numeric Literals).

The program in Listing 2.7 displays the sales tax with two digits after the decimal point.

**Listing 2.7 SalesTax.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

double tax = purchaseAmount * 0.06;
System.out.println("Sales tax is "+(int)(tax * 100) / 100.0);
```

Enter purchase amount: 197.55
Sales tax is $11.85

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>purchaseAmount</th>
<th>tax</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>197.55</td>
<td>11.853</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variable `purchaseAmount` is **197.55** (line 8). The sales tax is **6%** of the purchase, so the `tax` is evaluated as **11.853** (line 10). Note that

- `tax * 100` is **1185.3**
- `(int)(tax * 100)` is **1185**
- `(int)(tax * 100) / 100.0` is **11.85**

So, the statement in line 11 displays the tax **11.85** with two digits after the decimal point.

2.21 Can different types of numeric values be used together in a computation?
2.22 What does an explicit casting from a `double` to an `int` do with the fractional part of the `double` value? Does casting change the variable being cast?
2.23 Show the following output:

```java
float f = 12.5F;
int i = (int)f;
```
2.24 If you change `(int)(tax * 100) / 100.0` to `(int)(tax * 100) / 100` in line 11 in Listing 2.7, what will be the output for the input purchase amount of 197.556?

2.16 Software Development Process

The software development life cycle is a multi-stage process that includes requirements specification, analysis, design, implementation, testing, deployment, and maintenance.

Developing a software product is an engineering process. Software products, no matter how large or how small, have the same life cycle: requirements specification, analysis, design, implementation, testing, deployment, and maintenance, as shown in Figure 2.3.

**Figure 2.3** At any stage of the software development life cycle, it may be necessary to go back to a previous stage to correct errors or deal with other issues that might prevent the software from functioning as expected.

**Requirements specification** is a formal process that seeks to understand the problem that the software will address and to document in detail what the software system needs to do. This phase involves close interaction between users and developers. Most of the examples in this book are simple, and their requirements are clearly stated. In the real world, however, problems are not always well defined. Developers need to work closely with their customers (the individuals or organizations that will use the software) and study the problem carefully to identify what the software needs to do.

**System analysis** seeks to analyze the data flow and to identify the system’s input and output. When you do analysis, it helps to identify what the output is first, and then figure out what input data you need in order to produce the output.

**System design** is to design a process for obtaining the output from the input. This phase involves the use of many levels of abstraction to break down the problem into manageable components and design strategies for implementing each component. You can view each component as a subsystem that performs a specific function of the system. The essence of system analysis and design is input, process, and output (IPO).
Implementation involves translating the system design into programs. Separate programs are written for each component and then integrated to work together. This phase requires the use of a programming language such as Java. The implementation involves coding, self-testing, and debugging (that is, finding errors, called bugs, in the code).

Testing ensures that the code meets the requirements specification and weeds out bugs. An independent team of software engineers not involved in the design and implementation of the product usually conducts such testing.

Deployment makes the software available for use. Depending on the type of the software, it may be installed on each user’s machine or installed on a server accessible on the Internet.

Maintenance is concerned with updating and improving the product. A software product must continue to perform and improve in an ever-evolving environment. This requires periodic upgrades of the product to fix newly discovered bugs and incorporate changes.

To see the software development process in action, we will now create a program that computes loan payments. The loan can be a car loan, a student loan, or a home mortgage loan. For an introductory programming course, we focus on requirements specification, analysis, design, implementation, and testing.

**Stage 1: Requirements Specification**

The program must satisfy the following requirements:

- It must let the user enter the interest rate, the loan amount, and the number of years for which payments will be made.
- It must compute and display the monthly payment and total payment amounts.

**Stage 2: System Analysis**

The output is the monthly payment and total payment, which can be obtained using the following formulas:

\[
monthlyPayment = \frac{loanAmount \times monthlyInterestRate}{1 - \frac{1}{(1 + monthlyInterestRate)^{numberOfYears \times 12}}}
\]

\[
totalPayment = monthlyPayment \times numberOfYears \times 12
\]

So, the input needed for the program is the monthly interest rate, the length of the loan in years, and the loan amount.

**Note**

The requirements specification says that the user must enter the annual interest rate, the loan amount, and the number of years for which payments will be made. During analysis, however, it is possible that you may discover that input is not sufficient or that some values are unnecessary for the output. If this happens, you can go back and modify the requirements specification.

**Note**

In the real world, you will work with customers from all walks of life. You may develop software for chemists, physicists, engineers, economists, and psychologists, and of course you will not have (or need) complete knowledge of all these fields. Therefore, you don’t have to know how formulas are derived, but given the monthly interest rate, the number of years, and the loan amount, you can compute the monthly payment in this program. You will, however, need to communicate with customers and understand how a mathematical model works for the system.
Stage 3: System Design

During system design, you identify the steps in the program.

Step 1. Prompt the user to enter the annual interest rate, the number of years, and the loan amount.

Step 2. The input for the annual interest rate is a number in percent format, such as 4.5%. The program needs to convert it into a decimal by dividing it by 100. To obtain the monthly interest rate from the annual interest rate, divide it by 12, since a year has 12 months. So, to obtain the monthly interest rate in decimal format, you need to divide the annual interest rate in percentage by 1200. For example, if the annual interest rate is 4.5%, then the monthly interest rate is 4.5/1200 = 0.00375.

Step 3. Compute the monthly payment using the preceding formula.

Step 4. Compute the total payment, which is the monthly payment multiplied by 12 and multiplied by the number of years.

Step 5. Display the monthly payment and total payment.

Stage 4: Implementation

Implementation is also known as coding (writing the code). In the formula, you have to compute \( (1 + monthly\text{InterestRate})^{\text{numberOfYears} \times 12} \), which can be obtained using \( \text{Math.pow}(1 + monthly\text{InterestRate}, \text{numberOfYears} \times 12) \).

Listing 2.8 gives the complete program.

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeLoan {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Enter annual interest rate in percentage, e.g., 7.25%
        System.out.print("Enter annual interest rate, e.g., 7.25%: ");
        double annualInterestRate = input.nextDouble();

        // Obtain monthly interest rate
        double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;

        // Enter number of years
        System.out.print("Enter number of years as an integer, e.g., 5: ");
        int numberOfYears = input.nextInt();

        // Enter loan amount
        System.out.print("Enter loan amount, e.g., 120000.95: ");
        double loanAmount = input.nextDouble();

        // Calculate payment
        double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 - 1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12));
        double totalPayment = monthlyPayment * numberOfYears * 12;

        // Display results
    }
}
```
Enter annual interest rate, e.g., 5.75%: 5.75
Enter number of years as an integer, e.g., 5: 15
Enter loan amount, e.g., 120000.95: 250000
The monthly payment is $2076.02
The total payment is $373684.53

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>variables</th>
<th>values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>annualInterestRate</td>
<td>5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>monthlyInterestRate</td>
<td>0.00479166666666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>numberOfYears</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>loanAmount</td>
<td>250000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>monthlyPayment</td>
<td>2076.0252175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>totalPayment</td>
<td>373684.539</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Line 10 reads the annual interest rate, which is converted into the monthly interest rate in line 13.

Choose the most appropriate data type for the variable. For example, `numberOfYears` is best declared as an `int` (line 18), although it could be declared as a `long`, `float`, or `double`. Note that `byte` might be the most appropriate for `numberOfYears`. For simplicity, however, the examples in this book will use `int` for integer and `double` for floating-point values.

The formula for computing the monthly payment is translated into Java code in lines 25–27. Casting is used in lines 31 and 33 to obtain a new `monthlyPayment` and `totalPayment` with two digits after the decimal points.

The program uses the `Scanner` class, imported in line 1. The program also uses the `Math` class, and you might be wondering why that class isn’t imported into the program. The `Math` class is in the `java.lang` package, and all classes in the `java.lang` package are implicitly imported. Therefore, you don’t need to explicitly import the `Math` class.

**Stage 5: Testing**

After the program is implemented, test it with some sample input data and verify whether the output is correct. Some of the problems may involve many cases, as you will see in later chapters. For these types of problems, you need to design test data that cover all cases.

**Tip**

The system design phase in this example identified several steps. It is a good approach to developing and testing these steps incrementally by adding them one at a time. This approach makes it much easier to pinpoint problems and debug the program.
2.25 How would you write the following arithmetic expression?
\[-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac} \over 2a\]

2.17 Character Data Type and Operations

A character data type represents a single character.

In addition to processing numeric values, you can process characters in Java. The character data type, char, is used to represent a single character. A character literal is enclosed in single quotation marks. Consider the following code:

```java
char letter = 'A';
char numChar = '4';
```

The first statement assigns character A to the char variable letter. The second statement assigns digit character 4 to the char variable numChar.

**Caution**

A string literal must be enclosed in quotation marks (" "). A character literal is a single character enclosed in single quotation marks ( ' ' ). Therefore, "A" is a string, but 'A' is a character.

2.17.1 Unicode and ASCII code

Computers use binary numbers internally. A character is stored in a computer as a sequence of 0s and 1s. Mapping a character to its binary representation is called encoding. There are different ways to encode a character. How characters are encoded is defined by an encoding scheme. Java supports Unicode, an encoding scheme established by the Unicode Consortium to support the interchange, processing, and display of written texts in the world’s diverse languages. Unicode was originally designed as a 16-bit character encoding. The primitive data type char was intended to take advantage of this design by providing a simple data type that could hold any character. However, it turned out that the 65,536 characters possible in a 16-bit encoding are not sufficient to represent all the characters in the world. The Unicode standard therefore has been extended to allow up to 1,112,064 characters. Those characters that go beyond the original 16-bit limit are called supplementary characters. Java supports the supplementary characters. The processing and representing of supplementary characters are beyond the scope of this book. For simplicity, this book considers only the original 16-bit Unicode characters. These characters can be stored in a char type variable.

A 16-bit Unicode takes two bytes, preceded by \u, expressed in four hexadecimal digits that run from \u0000 to \uFFFF. Hexadecimal numbers are introduced in Appendix F, Number Systems. For example, the English word welcome is translated into Chinese using two characters, 欢迎. The Unicodes of these two characters are \u6B22\u8FCE.

Listing 2.9 gives a program that displays two Chinese characters and three Greek letters.

**Listing 2.9 DisplayUnicode.java**

```
1 import javax.swing.JOptionPane;
2
3 public class DisplayUnicode {
4    public static void main(String[] args) {
5        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null,
6            "\u6B22\u8FCE \u03b1 \u03b2 \u03b3",
7            "\u6B22\u8FCE Welcome",
8        );
9    }
10}
```
If no Chinese font is installed on your system, you will not be able to see the Chinese characters. The Unicodes for the Greek letters \( \alpha \beta \gamma \) are \( \text{\u03b1} \text{\u03b2} \text{\u03b3} \).

Most computers use ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange), a 7-bit encoding scheme for representing all uppercase and lowercase letters, digits, punctuation marks, and control characters. Unicode includes ASCII code, with \( \text{\u0000} \) to \( \text{\u007F} \) corresponding to the 128 ASCII characters. (See Appendix B for a list of ASCII characters and their decimal and hexadecimal codes.) You can use ASCII characters such as 'X', '1', and '$' in a Java program as well as Unicodes. Thus, for example, the following statements are equivalent:

```java
char letter = 'A';
char letter = '\u0041'; // Character A's Unicode is 0041
```

Both statements assign character \( A \) to the \texttt{char} variable \texttt{letter}.

**Note**
The increment and decrement operators can also be used on \texttt{char} variables to get the next or preceding Unicode character. For example, the following statements display character \( b \).

```java
char ch = 'a';
System.out.println(++ch);
```

### 2.17.2 Escape Characters

Suppose you want to print a message with quotation marks in the output. Can you write a statement like this?

```java
System.out.println("He said "Java is fun"");
```

No, this statement has a compile error. The compiler thinks the second quotation character is the end of the string and does not know what to do with the rest of the characters.

To overcome this problem, Java uses a special notation to represent special characters, as shown in Table 2.6. This special notation, called an escape character, consists of a backslash (\) followed by a character or a character sequence. For example, \( \text{\t} \) is an escape character for the Tab character and an escape character such as \( \text{\u03b1} \) is used to represent a Unicode. The symbols in an escape character are interpreted as a whole rather than individually.

So, now you can print the quoted message using the following statement:

```java
System.out.println("He said "Java is fun"");
```

The output is

He said "Java is fun"

Note that the symbols \( \text{\t} \) and " together represent one character.

### 2.17.3 Casting between \texttt{char} and Numeric Types

A \texttt{char} can be cast into any numeric type, and vice versa. When an integer is cast into a \texttt{char}, only its lower 16 bits of data are used; the other part is ignored. For example:

```java
char ch = \( (\texttt{char})\text{\texttt{0XAB0041}} \); // The lower 16 bits hex code 0041 is assigned to ch
System.out.println(ch); // ch is character A
```
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Escape Character</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Unicode Code</th>
<th>Decimal Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\b</td>
<td>Backspace</td>
<td>\u0008</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\t</td>
<td>Tab</td>
<td>\u0009</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\n</td>
<td>Linefeed</td>
<td>\u000A</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\f</td>
<td>Formfeed</td>
<td>\u000C</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\r</td>
<td>Carriage Return</td>
<td>\u000D</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\</td>
<td>Backslash</td>
<td>\u005C</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Double Quote</td>
<td>\u0022</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When a floating-point value is cast into a `char`, the floating-point value is first cast into an `int`, which is then cast into a `char`.

```java
char ch = (char) 65.25; // Decimal 65 is assigned to ch
System.out.println(ch); // ch is character A
```

When a `char` is cast into a numeric type, the character’s Unicode is cast into the specified numeric type.

```java
int i = (int) 'A'; // The Unicode of character A is assigned to i
System.out.println(i); // i is 65
```

Implicit casting can be used if the result of a casting fits into the target variable. Otherwise, explicit casting must be used. For example, since the Unicode of ‘a’ is 97, which is within the range of a byte, these implicit castings are fine:

```java
byte b = 'a';
int i = 'a';
```

But the following casting is incorrect, because the Unicode \uFFF4 cannot fit into a byte:

```java
byte b = '\uFFF4';
```

To force this assignment, use explicit casting, as follows:

```java
byte b = (byte) '\uFFF4';
```

Any positive integer between 0 and FFFF in hexadecimal can be cast into a character implicitly. Any number not in this range must be cast into a `char` explicitly.

**Note**

All numeric operators can be applied to `char` operands. A `char` operand is automatically cast into a number if the other operand is a number or a character. If the other operand is a string, the character is concatenated with the string. For example, the following statements

```java
int i = '2' + '3'; // (int)'2' is 50 and (int)'3' is 51
System.out.println("i is " + i); // i is 101
```
2.17 Character Data Type and Operations

```java
int j = 2 + 'a'; // (int)'a' is 97
System.out.println("j is " + j); // j is 99
System.out.println(j + " is the Unicode for character " + (char)j); // j is the Unicode for character c
System.out.println("Chapter " + '2');
```

Note
The Unicodes for lowercase letters are consecutive integers starting from the Unicode for 'a', then for 'b', 'c', ..., and 'z'. The same is true for the uppercase letters. Furthermore, the Unicode for 'a' is greater than the Unicode for 'A', so 'a' - 'A' is the same as 'b' - 'B'. For a lowercase letter ch, its corresponding uppercase letter is (char)('A' + (ch - 'a')).

2.17.4 Case Study: Counting Monetary Units
Suppose you want to develop a program that changes a given amount of money into smaller monetary units. The program lets the user enter an amount as a **double** value representing a total in dollars and cents, and outputs a report listing the monetary equivalent in the maximum number of dollars, quarters, dimes, nickels, and pennies, in this order, to result in the minimum number of coins, as shown in the sample run.

Here are the steps in developing the program:

1. Prompt the user to enter the amount as a decimal number, such as 11.56.
2. Convert the amount (e.g., 11.56) into cents (1156).
3. Divide the cents by 100 to find the number of dollars. Obtain the remaining cents using the cents remainder 100.
4. Divide the remaining cents by 25 to find the number of quarters. Obtain the remaining cents using the remaining cents remainder 25.
5. Divide the remaining cents by 10 to find the number of dimes. Obtain the remaining cents using the remaining cents remainder 10.
6. Divide the remaining cents by 5 to find the number of nickels. Obtain the remaining cents using the remaining cents remainder 5.
7. The remaining cents are the pennies.
8. Display the result.

The complete program is given in Listing 2.10.

**Listing 2.10 ComputeChange.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeChange {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Receive the amount
        System.out.print("Enter the amount in dollars and cents: ");
        double amount = input.nextDouble();
        // Convert the amount into cents
        int cents = (int) (amount * 100);
        // Find the number of dollars
        int dollars = cents / 100;
        cents %= 100;
        // Find the number of quarters
        int quarters = cents / 25;
        cents %= 25;
        // Find the number of dimes
        int dimes = cents / 10;
        cents %= 10;
        // Find the number of nickels
        int nickels = cents / 5;
        cents %= 5;
        // The remaining cents are the pennies
        int pennies = cents;
        // Display the result
        System.out.printf("%d dollars, %d quarters, %d dimes, %d nickels, and %d pennies.
", dollars, quarters, dimes, nickels, pennies);
    }
}
```

import class
Enter an amount, for example, 11.56: 

double amount = input.nextDouble();

int remainingAmount = (int)(amount * 100);

// Find the number of one dollars
int numberOfOneDollars = remainingAmount / 100;
remainingAmount = remainingAmount % 100;

// Find the number of quarters in the remaining amount
int numberOfQuarters = remainingAmount / 25;
remainingAmount = remainingAmount % 25;

// Find the number of dimes in the remaining amount
int numberOfDimes = remainingAmount / 10;
remainingAmount = remainingAmount % 10;

// Find the number of nickels in the remaining amount
int numberOfNickels = remainingAmount / 5;
remainingAmount = remainingAmount % 5;

// Find the number of pennies in the remaining amount
int numberOfPennies = remainingAmount;

// Display results
System.out.println("Your amount "+ amount + " consists of 
"+ numberOfOneDollars + " dollars\n"+ numberOfQuarters + " quarters\n"+ numberOfDimes + " dimes\n"+ numberOfNickels + " nickels\n"+ numberOfPennies + " pennies");

Enter an amount, for example, 11.56: 11.56
Your amount 11.56 consists of
11 dollars
2 quarters
0 dimes
1 nickels
1 pennies
2.17 Character Data Type and Operations

The variable `amount` stores the amount entered from the console (line 11). This variable is not changed, because the amount has to be used at the end of the program to display the results. The program introduces the variable `remainingAmount` (line 13) to store the changing remaining amount.

The variable `amount` is a `double` decimal representing dollars and cents. It is converted to an `int` variable `remainingAmount`, which represents all the cents. For instance, if `amount` is `11.56`, then the initial `remainingAmount` is `1156`. The division operator yields the integer part of the division, so `1156 / 100` is `11`. The remainder operator obtains the remainder of the division, so `1156 % 100` is `56`.

The program extracts the maximum number of singles from the remaining amount and obtains a new remaining amount in the variable `remainingAmount` (lines 16–17). It then extracts the maximum number of quarters from `remainingAmount` and obtains a new `remainingAmount` (lines 20–21). Continuing the same process, the program finds the maximum number of dimes, nickels, and pennies in the remaining amount.

One serious problem with this example is the possible loss of precision when casting a `double amount` to an `int remainingAmount`. This could lead to an inaccurate result. If you try to enter the amount `10.03 * 100` becomes `1002.9999999999999`. You will find that the program displays `10` dollars and `2` pennies. To fix the problem, enter the amount as an integer value representing cents (see Exercise 2.24).

As shown in the sample run, `0` dimes, `1` nickels, and `1` pennies are displayed in the result. It would be better not to display `0` dimes, and to display `1` nickel and `1` penny using the singular forms of the words. You will learn how to use selection statements to modify this program in the next chapter (see Exercise 3.7).

2.26 Use print statements to find out the ASCII code for '1', 'A', 'B', 'a', and 'b'. Use print statements to find out the character for the decimal codes 40, 59, 79, 85, and 90. Use print statements to find out the character for the hexadecimal code 40, 5A, 71, 72, and 7A.

2.27 Which of the following are correct literals for characters?
   '1', '\u345dE', '\u3ffA', 'b', '\t'

2.28 How do you display the characters \ and "?  

2.29 Evaluate the following:

```java
int i = '1';
int j = '1' + '2' * ('4' - '3') + 'b' / 'a';
int k = 'a';
char c = 90;
```

2.30 Can the following conversions involving casting be allowed? If so, find the converted result.

```java
char c = 'A';
int i = (int)c;

float f = 1000.34f;
int i = (int)f;

double d = 1000.34;
int i = (int)d;

int i = 97;
char c = (char)i;
```
2.31 Show the output of the following program:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        char x = 'a';
        char y = 'c';

        System.out.println(++x);
        System.out.println(y++);
        System.out.println(x - y);
    }
}
```

2.18 The String Type

A string is a sequence of characters.

The `char` type represents only one character. To represent a string of characters, use the data type called `String`. For example, the following code declares the message to be a string with the value "Welcome to Java".

```java
String message = "Welcome to Java";
```

`String` is a predefined class in the Java library, just like the classes `System`, `JOptionPane`, and `Scanner`. The `String` type is not a primitive type. It is known as a reference type. Any Java class can be used as a reference type for a variable. Reference data types will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter 8, Objects and Classes. For the time being, you need to know only how to declare a `String` variable, how to assign a string to the variable, and how to concatenate strings.

As first shown in Listing 2.1, two strings can be concatenated. The plus sign (+) is the concatenation operator if one of the operands is a string. If one of the operands is a nonstring (e.g., a number), the nonstring value is converted into a string and concatenated with the other string. Here are some examples:

```java
// Three strings are concatenated
String message = "Welcome " + "to " + "Java";

// String Chapter is concatenated with number 2
String s = "Chapter" + 2; // s becomes Chapter2

// String Supplement is concatenated with character B
String s1 = "Supplement" + 'B'; // s1 becomes SupplementB
```

If neither of the operands is a string, the plus sign (+) is the addition operator that adds two numbers.

The augmented `+=` operator can also be used for string concatenation. For example, the following code appends the string "and Java is fun" with the string "Welcome to Java" in `message`.

```java
message += " and Java is fun";
```

So the new `message` is "Welcome to Java and Java is fun".

If `i = 1` and `j = 2`, what is the output of the following statement?

```java
System.out.println("i + j is " + i + j);
```

The output is "i + j is 12" because "i + j is " is concatenated with the value of `i` first. To force `i + j` to be executed first, enclose `i + j` in the parentheses, as follows:

```java
System.out.println("i + j is " + (i + j));
```
To read a string from the console, invoke the `next()` method on a `Scanner` object. For example, the following code reads three strings from the keyboard:

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
System.out.println("Enter three words separated by spaces: ");
String s1 = input.next();
String s2 = input.next();
String s3 = input.next();
System.out.println("s1 is "+s1);
System.out.println("s2 is "+s2);
System.out.println("s3 is "+s3);
```

Enter three words separated by spaces: Welcome to Java
s1 is Welcome
s2 is to
s3 is Java

The `next()` method reads a string that ends with a whitespace character. The characters ' ', \t, \f, \r, or \n are known as *whitespace characters*.

You can use the `nextLine()` method to read an entire line of text. The `nextLine()` method reads a string that ends with the `Enter` key pressed. For example, the following statements read a line of text.

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
System.out.println("Enter a line: ");
String s = input.nextLine();
System.out.println("The line entered is "+s);
```

Enter a line: Welcome to Java
The line entered is Welcome to Java

**Important Caution**

To avoid input errors, do not use `nextLine()` after `nextByte()`, `nextShort()`, `nextInt()`, `nextLong()`, `nextFloat()`, `nextDouble()`, or `next()`. The reasons will be explained in Section 14.11.3, "How Does Scanner Work?"

2.32 Show the output of the following statements (write a program to verify your results):

```java
System.out.println("1" + 1);
System.out.println("1" + 1);
System.out.println("1" + 1 + 1);
System.out.println("1" + (1 + 1));
System.out.println("1" + 1 + 1);
```

2.33 Evaluate the following expressions (write a program to verify your results):

```java
1 + "Welcome " + 1 + 1
1 + "Welcome " + (1 + 1)
1 + "Welcome " + (\u0001 + 1)
1 + "Welcome " + 'a' + 1
```
2.19 Getting Input from Input Dialogs

An input dialog box prompts the user to enter an input graphically.

You can obtain input from the console. Alternatively, you can obtain input from an input dialog box by invoking the `JOptionPane.showInputDialog` method, as shown in Figure 2.4.

![Input dialog box](image)

**FIGURE 2.4** The input dialog box enables the user to enter a string.

When this method is executed, a dialog is displayed to enable you to enter an input value. After entering a string, click OK to accept the input and close the dialog box. The input is returned from the method as a string.

There are several ways to use the `showInputDialog` method. For the time being, you need to know only two ways to invoke it.

One is to use a statement like this one:

```java
JOptionPane.showInputDialog(x);
```

where `x` is a string for the prompting message.

The other is to use a statement such as the following:

```java
String string = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(null, x, y, JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE);
```

where `x` is a string for the prompting message and `y` is a string for the title of the input dialog box, as shown in the example below.

![Input dialog box](image)

### 2.19.1 Converting Strings to Numbers

The input returned from the input dialog box is a string. If you enter a numeric value such as `123`, it returns "123". You have to convert a string into a number to obtain the input as a number.

To convert a string into an `int` value, use the `Integer.parseInt` method, as follows:

```java
int intValue = Integer.parseInt(intString);
```

where `intString` is a numeric string such as `123`.

To convert a string into a `double` value, use the `Double.parseDouble` method, as follows:

```java
double doubleValue = Double.parseDouble(doubleString);
```

where `doubleString` is a numeric string such as `123.45`.

The `Integer` and `Double` classes are both included in the `java.lang` package, and thus they are automatically imported.
2.19.2 Using Input Dialog Boxes

Having learned how to read input from an input dialog box, you can rewrite the program in Listing 2.8, ComputeLoan.java, to read from input dialog boxes rather than from the console. Listing 2.11 gives the complete program. Figure 2.5 shows a sample run of the program.

![Image of input dialog boxes](image)

**Figure 2.5** The program accepts the annual interest rate (a), number of years (b), and loan amount (c), then displays the monthly payment and total payment (d).

**Listing 2.11 ComputeLoanUsingInputDialog.java**

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class ComputeLoanUsingInputDialog {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Enter annual interest rate
        String annualInterestRateString = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(
            "Enter annual interest rate, for example, 8.25:"
        );
        double annualInterestRate = Double.parseDouble(annualInterestRateString);

        // Convert string to double
        double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;

        // Enter number of years
        String numberOfYearsString = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(
            "Enter number of years as an integer, for example, 5:"
        );
        int numberOfYears = Integer.parseInt(numberOfYearsString);

        // Enter loan amount
        String loanString = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(
            "Enter loan amount, for example, 120000.95:"
        );
        double loanAmount = Double.parseDouble(loanString);
```
// Calculate payment
double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 - 1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12));

double totalPayment = monthlyPayment * numberOfYears * 12;

// Format to keep two digits after the decimal point
monthlyPayment = (int)(monthlyPayment * 100) / 100.0;
totalPayment = (int)(totalPayment * 100) / 100.0;

// Display results
String output = "The monthly payment is $" + monthlyPayment + "\nThe total payment is $" + totalPayment;
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, output);

The `showInputDialog` method in lines 6–7 displays an input dialog. Enter the interest rate as a double value and click OK to accept the input. The value is returned as a string that is assigned to the `String` variable `annualInterestRateString`. The `Double.parseDouble (annualInterestRateString)` (line 11) is used to convert the string into a `double` value.

**Pedagogical Note**

For obtaining input you can use either `JOptionPane` or `Scanner`—whichever is more convenient. For consistency and simplicity, the examples in this book use `Scanner` for getting input. You can easily revise the examples using `JOptionPane` for getting input.

2.34 Why do you have to import `JOptionPane` but not the `Math` class?

2.35 How do you prompt the user to enter an input using a dialog box?

2.36 How do you convert a string to an integer? How do you convert a string to a double?

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CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. **Identifiers** are names for naming elements such as variables, constants, methods, classes, packages in a program.

2. An identifier is a sequence of characters that consists of letters, digits, underscores (_), and dollar signs ($). An identifier must start with a letter or an underscore. It cannot start with a digit. An identifier cannot be a reserved word. An identifier can be of any length.

3. **Variables** are used to store data in a program.

4. To declare a variable is to tell the compiler what type of data a variable can hold.

5. In Java, the equal sign (=) is used as the *assignment operator*.

6. A variable declared in a method must be assigned a value before it can be used.

7. A **named constant** (or simply a **constant**) represents permanent data that never changes.

8. A named constant is declared by using the keyword **final**.

9. Java provides four integer types (**byte**, **short**, **int**, and **long**) that represent integers of four different sizes.

10. Java provides two **floating-point types** (**float** and **double**) that represent floating-point numbers of two different precisions.

11. Java provides **operators** that perform numeric operations: + (addition), – (subtraction), * (multiplication), / (division), and % (remainder).

12. Integer arithmetic (/) yields an integer result.

13. The numeric operators in a Java expression are applied the same way as in an arithmetic expression.

14. Java provides the augmented assignment operators += (addition assignment), -= (subtraction assignment), *= (multiplication assignment), /= (division assignment), and %= (remainder assignment).

15. The **increment operator** (++ and the **decrement operator** (--) increment or decrement a variable by 1.

16. When evaluating an expression with values of mixed types, Java automatically converts the operands to appropriate types.

17. You can explicitly convert a value from one type to another using the **(type)value** notation.
18. *Casting* a variable of a type with a small range to a variable of a type with a larger range is known as *widening a type*.

19. Casting a variable of a type with a large range to a variable of a type with a smaller range is known as *narrowing a type*.

20. Widening a type can be performed automatically without explicit casting. Narrowing a type must be performed explicitly.

21. The character type `char` represents a single character.

22. An *escape character* is a notation for representing a special character. An escape character consists of a backslash (`\`) followed by a character or a character sequence.

23. The characters `' '`, `\t`, `\f`, `\r`, and `\n` are known as the whitespace characters.

24. In computer science, midnight of January 1, 1970, is known as the *UNIX epoch*.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

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**Note**

You can run all exercises by downloading `exercise9e.zip` from [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/exercise9e.zip](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/exercise9e.zip) and use the command `java -cp exercise9e.zip Exercisei_j` to run `Exercisei_j`. For example, to run `Exercise 2.1`, use:

```
java -cp exercise9e.zip Exercise02_01
```

This will give you an idea how the program runs.

**Debugging TIP**

The compiler usually gives a reason for a syntax error. If you don’t know how to correct it, compare your program closely, character by character, with similar examples in the text.

**Pedagogical Note**

Instructors may ask you to document your analysis and design for selected exercises. Use your own words to analyze the problem, including the input, output, and what needs to be computed, and describe how to solve the problem in pseudocode.

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**Sections 2.2–2.12**

2.1 *(Convert Celsius to Fahrenheit)* Write a program that reads a Celsius degree in a `double` value from the console, then converts it to Fahrenheit and displays the result. The formula for the conversion is as follows:

\[
\text{fahrenheit} = \frac{9}{5} \times \text{celsius} + 32
\]

*Hint:* In Java, `9 / 5` is `1`, but `9.0 / 5` is `1.8`.

Here is a sample run:
2.2 *(Compute the volume of a cylinder)* Write a program that reads in the radius and length of a cylinder and computes the area and volume using the following formulas:

\[
\text{area} = \text{radius} \times \text{radius} \times \pi \\
\text{volume} = \text{area} \times \text{length}
\]

Here is a sample run:

Enter the radius and length of a cylinder: 5.5 12
The area is 95.0331
The volume is 1140.4

2.3 *(Convert feet into meters)* Write a program that reads a number in feet, converts it to meters, and displays the result. One foot is 0.305 meter. Here is a sample run:

Enter a value for feet: 16.5
16.5 feet is 5.0325 meters

2.4 *(Convert pounds into kilograms)* Write a program that converts pounds into kilograms. The program prompts the user to enter a number in pounds, converts it to kilograms, and displays the result. One pound is 0.454 kilograms. Here is a sample run:

Enter a number in pounds: 55.5
55.5 pounds is 25.197 kilograms

2.5 *(Financial application: calculate tips)* Write a program that reads the subtotal and the gratuity rate, then computes the gratuity and total. For example, if the user enters 10 for subtotal and 15\% for gratuity rate, the program displays $1.5 as gratuity and $11.5 as total. Here is a sample run:

Enter the subtotal and a gratuity rate: 10 15
The gratuity is $1.5 and total is $11.5

2.6 *(Sum the digits in an integer)* Write a program that reads an integer between 0 and 1000 and adds all the digits in the integer. For example, if an integer is 932, the sum of all its digits is 14.

*Hint:* Use the \% operator to extract digits, and use the / operator to remove the extracted digit. For instance, 932 \% 10 = 2 and 932 / 10 = 93.

Here is a sample run:

Enter a number between 0 and 1000: 999
The sum of the digits is 27
**2.7** *(Find the number of years)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter the minutes (e.g., 1 billion), and displays the number of years and days for the minutes. For simplicity, assume a year has 365 days. Here is a sample run:

Enter the number of minutes: 1000000000
1000000000 minutes is approximately 1902 years and 214 days

**2.8** *(Current time)* Listing 2.6, ShowCurrentTime.java, gives a program that displays the current time in GMT. Revise the program so that it prompts the user to enter the time zone offset to GMT and displays the time in the specified time zone. Here is a sample run:

Enter the time zone offset to GMT: -5
The current time is 4:50:34

**2.9** *(Physics: acceleration)* Average acceleration is defined as the change of velocity divided by the time taken to make the change, as shown in the following formula:

\[
a = \frac{v_1 - v_0}{t}
\]

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the starting velocity \(v_0\) in meters/second, the ending velocity \(v_1\) in meters/second, and the time span \(t\) in seconds, and displays the average acceleration. Here is a sample run:

Enter \(v_0\), \(v_1\), and \(t\): 5.5 50.9 4.5
The average acceleration is 10.0889

**2.10** *(Science: calculating energy)* Write a program that calculates the energy needed to heat water from an initial temperature to a final temperature. Your program should prompt the user to enter the amount of water in kilograms and the initial and final temperatures of the water. The formula to compute the energy is

\[
Q = M \times (\text{finalTemperature} - \text{initialTemperature}) \times 4184
\]

where \(M\) is the weight of water in kilograms, temperatures are in degrees Celsius, and energy \(Q\) is measured in joules. Here is a sample run:

Enter the amount of water in kilograms: 55.5
Enter the initial temperature: 3.5
Enter the final temperature: 10.5
The energy needed is 1625484.0

**2.11** *(Population projection)* Rewrite Exercise 1.11 to prompt the user to enter the number of years and displays the population after the number of years. Here is a sample run of the program:
Enter the number of years: 5
The population in 5 years is 325932970

2.12 (Physics: finding runway length) Given an airplane’s acceleration $a$ and take-off speed $v$, you can compute the minimum runway length needed for an airplane to take off using the following formula:

$$length = \frac{v^2}{2a}$$

Write a program that prompts the user to enter $v$ in meters/second (m/s) and the acceleration $a$ in meters/second squared (m/s²), and displays the minimum runway length. Here is a sample run:

Enter speed and acceleration: 60 3.5
The minimum runway length for this airplane is 514.286

**2.13 (Financial application: compound value) Suppose you save $100 each month into a savings account with the annual interest rate 5%. Thus, the monthly interest rate is $0.05/12 = 0.00417$. After the first month, the value in the account becomes

$100 \times (1 + 0.00417) = 100.417$

After the second month, the value in the account becomes

$(100 + 100.417) \times (1 + 0.00417) = 201.252$

After the third month, the value in the account becomes

$(100 + 201.252) \times (1 + 0.00417) = 302.507$

and so on.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a monthly saving amount and displays the account value after the sixth month. (In Exercise 4.30, you will use a loop to simplify the code and display the account value for any month.)

Enter the monthly saving amount: 100
After the sixth month, the account value is $608.81

*2.14 (Health application: computing BMI) Body Mass Index (BMI) is a measure of health on weight. It can be calculated by taking your weight in kilograms and dividing by the square of your height in meters. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a weight in pounds and height in inches and displays the BMI. Note that one pound is $0.45359237$ kilograms and one inch is $0.0254$ meters. Here is a sample run:
Chapter 2  Elementary Programming

Enter weight in pounds: 95.5
Enter height in inches: 50
BMI is 26.8573

*2.15  (Geometry: area of a triangle) Write a program that prompts the user to enter three points \((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3)\) of a triangle and displays its area. The formula for computing the area of a triangle is

\[
s = \frac{(side1 + side2 + side3)}{2};
\]

\[
area = \sqrt{s(s - side1)(s - side2)(s - side3)}
\]

Here is a sample run:

Enter three points for a triangle: 1.5 -3.4 4.6 5 9.5 -3.4
The area of the triangle is 33.6

2.16  (Geometry: area of a hexagon) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the side of a hexagon and displays its area. The formula for computing the area of a hexagon is

\[
Area = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}s^2,
\]

where \(s\) is the length of a side. Here is a sample run:

Enter the side: 5.5
The area of the hexagon is 78.5895

*2.17  (Science: wind-chill temperature) How cold is it outside? The temperature alone is not enough to provide the answer. Other factors including wind speed, relative humidity, and sunshine play important roles in determining coldness outside. In 2001, the National Weather Service (NWS) implemented the new wind-chill temperature to measure the coldness using temperature and wind speed. The formula is:

\[
t_{wc} = 35.74 + 0.6215t_a - 35.75v^{0.16} + 0.4275t_av^{0.16}
\]

where \(t_a\) is the outside temperature measured in degrees Fahrenheit and \(v\) is the speed measured in miles per hour. \(t_{wc}\) is the wind-chill temperature. The formula cannot be used for wind speeds below 2 mph or temperatures below \(-58^\circ F\) or above \(41^\circ F\).

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a temperature between \(-58^\circ F\) and \(41^\circ F\) and a wind speed greater than or equal to 2 and displays the wind-chill temperature. Use \texttt{Math.pow(a, b)} to compute \(v^{0.16}\). Here is a sample run:

Enter the temperature in Fahrenheit: 5.3
Enter the wind speed in miles per hour: 6
The wind chill index is -5.56707
2.18 *(Print a table)* Write a program that displays the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>pow(a, b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15625</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.19 *(Geometry: distance of two points)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter two points \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) and displays their distance between them. The formula for computing the distance is \(\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}\). Note that you can use `Math.pow(a, 0.5)` to compute \(\sqrt{a}\). Here is a sample run:

```
Enter x1 and y1: 1.5 -3.4
Enter x2 and y2: 4 5
The distance between the two points is 8.764131445842194
```

Sections 2.13–2.16

*2.20 *(Financial application: calculate interest)* If you know the balance and the annual percentage interest rate, you can compute the interest on the next monthly payment using the following formula:

\[
\text{interest} = \text{balance} \times \left(\frac{\text{annualInterestRate}}{1200}\right)
\]

Write a program that reads the balance and the annual percentage interest rate and displays the interest for the next month. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter balance and interest rate (e.g., 3 for 3%): 1000 3.5
The interest is 2.91667
```

*2.21 *(Financial application: calculate future investment value)* Write a program that reads in investment amount, annual interest rate, and number of years, and displays the future investment value using the following formula:

\[
\text{futureInvestmentValue} = \text{investmentAmount} \times (1 + \frac{\text{monthlyInterestRate}}{12})^{\text{numberOfYears} \times 12}
\]

For example, if you enter amount 1000, annual interest rate 3.25\%, and number of years 1, the future investment value is 1032.98.

Here is a sample run:

```
Enter investment amount: 1000
Enter annual interest rate in percentage: 4.25
Enter number of years: 1
Accumulated value is $1043.34
```
Sections 2.17–2.18

2.22 (Random character) Write a program that displays a random uppercase letter using the `System.currentTimeMillis()` method.

2.23 (Find the character of an ASCII code) Write a program that receives an ASCII code (an integer between 0 and 127) and displays its character. For example, if the user enters 97, the program displays character a. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter an ASCII code: 69
The character is E
```

2.24 (Financial application: monetary units) Rewrite Listing 2.10, ComputeChange.java, to fix the possible loss of accuracy when converting a double value to an int value. Enter the input as an integer whose last two digits represent the cents. For example, the input 1156 represents 11 dollars and 56 cents.

2.25 (Financial application: payroll) Write a program that reads the following information and prints a payroll statement:

- Employee’s name (e.g., Smith)
- Number of hours worked in a week (e.g., 10)
- Hourly pay rate (e.g., 6.75)
- Federal tax withholding rate (e.g., 20%)
- State tax withholding rate (e.g., 9%)

```
Enter employee's name: Smith
Enter number of hours worked in a week: 10
Enter hourly pay rate: 6.75
Enter federal tax withholding rate: 0.20
Enter state tax withholding rate: 0.09

Employee Name: Smith
Hours Worked: 10.0
Pay Rate: $6.75
Gross Pay: $67.5
Deductions:
    Federal Withholding (20.0%): $13.5
    State Withholding (9.0%): $6.07
    Total Deduction: $19.57
Net Pay: $47.92
```

Section 2.19

2.26 (Use input dialog) Rewrite Listing 2.10, ComputeChange.java, using input and output dialog boxes.

2.27 (Financial application: payroll) Rewrite Exercise 2.25 using GUI input and output dialog boxes.
SELECTIONS

Objectives

■ To declare boolean variables and write Boolean expressions using comparison operators (§3.2).
■ To implement selection control using one-way if statements (§3.3).
■ To program using one-way if statements (GuessBirthday) (§3.4).
■ To implement selection control using two-way if-else statements (§3.5).
■ To implement selection control using nested if and multi-way if statements (§3.6).
■ To avoid common errors in if statements (§3.7).
■ To generate random numbers using the Math.random() method (§3.8).
■ To program using selection statements for a variety of examples (SubtractionQuiz, BMI, ComputeTax) (§§3.8–3.10).
■ To combine conditions using logical operators (&&, ||, and !) (§3.11).
■ To program using selection statements with combined conditions (LeapYear, Lottery) (§§3.12–3.13).
■ To implement selection control using switch statements (§3.14).
■ To write expressions using the conditional operator (§3.15).
■ To format output using the System.out.printf method (§3.16).
■ To examine the rules governing operator precedence and associativity (§3.17).
■ To get user confirmation using confirmation dialogs (§3.18).
■ To apply common techniques to debug errors (§3.19).
3.1 Introduction

The program can decide which statements to execute based on a condition.

If you enter a negative value for `radius` in Listing 2.2, ComputeAreaWithConsoleInput.java, the program displays an invalid result. If the radius is negative, you don’t want the program to compute the area. How can you deal with this situation?

Like all high-level programming languages, Java provides selection statements: statements that let you choose actions with two or more alternative courses. You can use the following selection statement to replace lines 12–17 in Listing 2.2:

```java
if (radius < 0) {
    System.out.println("Incorrect input");
} else {
    area = radius * radius * 3.14159;
    System.out.println("Area is " + area);
}
```

Selection statements use conditions that are Boolean expressions. A Boolean expression is an expression that evaluates to a Boolean value: `true` or `false`. We now introduce Boolean types and comparison operators.

3.2 boolean Data Type

A boolean data type declares a variable with the value either `true` or `false`.

How do you compare two values, such as whether a radius is greater than 0, equal to 0, or less than 0? Java provides six comparison operators (also known as relational operators), shown in Table 3.1, which can be used to compare two values (assume radius is 5 in the table).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Java Operator</th>
<th>Mathematics Symbol</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Example (radius is 5)</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>&lt;</code></td>
<td><code>&lt;</code></td>
<td>less than</td>
<td>radius &lt; 0</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&lt;=</code></td>
<td><code>&lt;=</code></td>
<td>less than or equal to</td>
<td>radius &lt;= 0</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&gt;</code></td>
<td><code>&gt;</code></td>
<td>greater than</td>
<td>radius &gt; 0</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&gt;=</code></td>
<td><code>&gt;=</code></td>
<td>greater than or equal to</td>
<td>radius &gt;= 0</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>==</code></td>
<td><code>=</code></td>
<td>equal to</td>
<td>radius == 0</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>!=</code></td>
<td><code>!=</code></td>
<td>not equal to</td>
<td>radius != 0</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note

You can also compare characters. Comparing characters is the same as comparing their Unicodes. For example, `a` is larger than `A` because the Unicode of `a` is larger than the Unicode of `A`. See Appendix B, The ASCII Character Set, to find the order of characters.

Caution

The equality comparison operator is two equal signs (==), not a single equal sign (=). The latter symbol is for assignment.

The result of the comparison is a Boolean value: `true` or `false`. For example, the following statement displays `true`:

```java
double radius = 1;
System.out.println(radius > 0);
```
3.2 boolean Data Type

A variable that holds a Boolean value is known as a Boolean variable. The boolean data type is used to declare Boolean variables. A boolean variable can hold one of the two values: true or false. For example, the following statement assigns true to the variable lightsOn:

```java
boolean lightsOn = true;
```

true and false are literals, just like a number such as 10. They are reserved words and cannot be used as identifiers in your program.

Suppose you want to develop a program to let a first-grader practice addition. The program randomly generates two single-digit integers, number1 and number2, and displays to the student a question such as “What is 1 + 7?”, as shown in the sample run in Listing 3.1. After the student types the answer, the program displays a message to indicate whether it is true or false.

There are several ways to generate random numbers. For now, generate the first integer using `System.currentTimeMillis() % 10` and the second using `System.currentTimeMillis() / 7 % 10`. Listing 3.1 gives the program. Lines 5–6 generate two numbers, number1 and number2. Line 14 obtains an answer from the user. The answer is graded in line 18 using a Boolean expression `number1 + number2 == answer`.

### Listing 3.1 AdditionQuiz.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class AdditionQuiz {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int number1 = (int)(System.currentTimeMillis() % 10);
        int number2 = (int)(System.currentTimeMillis() / 7 % 10);

        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        System.out.print("What is "+ number1 + " + " + number2 + "? ");
        int answer = input.nextInt();

        System.out.println(
            number1 + " + " + number2 + " = " + answer + " is " +
            (number1 + number2 == answer));
    }
}
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>number1</th>
<th>number2</th>
<th>answer</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 + 8 = 9 is false</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is 1 + 7? 8
1 + 7 = 8 is true
What is 4 + 8? 9
4 + 8 = 9 is false
3.1 List six comparison operators.

3.2 Show the printout of the following statements:

```java
System.out.println('a' < 'b');
System.out.println('a' <= 'A');
System.out.println('a' > 'b');
System.out.println('a' >= 'A');
System.out.println('a' == 'a');
System.out.println('a' != 'b');
```

3.3 Can the following conversions involving casting be allowed? If so, find the converted result.

```java
boolean b = true;
i = (int)b;

int i = 1;
boolean b = (boolean)i;
```

3.3 if Statements

An if statement executes the statements if the condition is true.

The preceding program displays a message such as “6 + 2 = 7 is false.” If you wish the message to be “6 + 2 = 7 is incorrect,” you have to use a selection statement to make this minor change.

Java has several types of selection statements: one-way if statements, two-way if-else statements, nested if statements, switch statements, and conditional expressions.

A one-way if statement executes an action if and only if the condition is true. The syntax for a one-way if statement is:

```java
if (boolean-expression) {
    statement(s);
}
```

The flowchart in Figure 3.1 illustrates how Java executes the syntax of an if statement. A flowchart is a diagram that describes an algorithm or process, showing the steps as boxes of various kinds, and their order by connecting these with arrows. Process operations are represented in these boxes, and arrows connecting them represent the flow of control. A diamond box is used to denote a Boolean condition and a rectangle box is for representing statements.

If the boolean-expression evaluates to true, the statements in the block are executed. As an example, see the following code:

```java
if (radius >= 0) {
    area = radius * radius * PI;
    System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius " + radius + " is " + area);
}
```

The flowchart of the preceding statement is shown in Figure 3.1b. If the value of radius is greater than or equal to 0, then the area is computed and the result is displayed; otherwise, the two statements in the block will not be executed.

The boolean-expression is enclosed in parentheses. For example, the code in (a) below is wrong. It should be corrected, as shown in (b).
The block braces can be omitted if they enclose a single statement. For example, the following statements are equivalent.

```java
if (i > 0) {
    System.out.println("i is positive");
}
```

(a) Wrong

```
if (i > 0) {
    System.out.println("i is positive");
}
```

(b) Correct

### Note
Omitting braces makes the code shorter, but it is prone to errors. It is a common mistake to forget the braces when you go back to modify the code that omits the braces.

Listing 3.2 gives a program that prompts the user to enter an integer. If the number is a multiple of 5, the program displays **HiFive**. If the number is divisible by 2, it displays **HiEven**.

**LISTING 3.2 SimpleIfDemo.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SimpleIfDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.println("Enter an integer: ");
        int number = input.nextInt();

        if (number % 5 == 0) {
            System.out.println("HiFive");
        }

        if (number % 2 == 0) {
            System.out.println("HiEven");
        }
    }
}
```
Enter an integer: 4  
HiEven

Enter an integer: 30  
HiFive  
HiEven

The program prompts the user to enter an integer (lines 6–7) and displays **HiFive** if it is divisible by 5 (lines 9–10) and **HiEven** if it is divisible by 2 (lines 12–13).

### 3.4 Write an if statement that assigns 1 to x if y is greater than 0.

### 3.5 Write an if statement that increases pay by 3% if score is greater than 90.

### 3.4 Case Study: Guessing Birthdays

*Guessing birthdays is an interesting problem with a simple programming solution.*

You can find out the date of the month when your friend was born by asking five questions. Each question asks whether the day is in one of the five sets of numbers.

The birthday is the sum of the first numbers in the sets where the day appears. For example, if the birthday is 19, it appears in Set1, Set2, and Set5. The first numbers in these three sets are 1, 2, and 16. Their sum is 19.

Listing 3.3 gives a program that prompts the user to answer whether the day is in Set1 (lines 41–44), in Set2 (lines 50–53), in Set3 (lines 59–62), in Set4 (lines 68–71), and in Set5 (lines 77–80). If the number is in the set, the program adds the first number in the set to `day` (lines 47, 56, 65, 74, 83).

#### Listing 3.3  GuessBirthday.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class GuessBirthday {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    String set1 = " 1  3  5  7
                    +  
              9 11 13 15
             17 19 21 23
           25 27 29 31";
    String set2 = " 2  3  6  7
                    +  
              10 11 14 15
             18 19 22 23
           26 27 30 31";
    String set3 = " 4  5  6  7
                    +  
              12 13 14 15
             20 21 22 23
           28 29 30 31";
    String set4 = " 8  9 10 11
                +  
           12 13 14 15
          24 25 26 27
         28 29 30 31";
    String set5 = "16 17 18 19
                     +  
                20 21 22 23
               24 25 26 27
              28 29 30 31";
    int day = 0;
    System.out.println("Enter a day: ");
    Scanner scanner = new Scanner(System.in);
    int day = scanner.nextInt();
    if (day >= 1 && day <= 31) {
      day = day;
    } else {
      System.out.println("Invalid day.");
      return;
    }
    Set set = new Set();
    if (set.set1.contains(day)) {
      day += 1;
    }
    if (set.set2.contains(day)) {
      day += 2;
    }
    if (set.set3.contains(day)) {
      day += 16;
    }
    if (set.set4.contains(day)) {
      day += 20;
    }
    if (set.set5.contains(day)) {
      day += 19;
    }
    System.out.println("The birthday is: ");
    System.out.println(day);
  }
}
```
String set2 =
  " 2 3 6 7\n" +
  "10 11 14 15\n" +
  "18 19 22 23\n" +
  "26 27 30 31";

String set3 =
  " 4 5 6 7\n" +
  "12 13 14 15\n" +
  "20 21 22 23\n" +
  "28 29 30 31";

String set4 =
  " 8 9 10 11\n" +
  "12 13 14 15\n" +
  "24 25 26 27\n" +
  "28 29 30 31";

String set5 =
  "16 17 18 19\n" +
  "20 21 22 23\n" +
  "24 25 26 27\n" +
  "28 29 30 31";

int day = 0;

// Create a Scanner
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

// Prompt the user to answer questions
System.out.print("Is your birthday in Set1?\n");
System.out.print(set1);
System.out.print("\nEnter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
int answer = input.nextInt();

if (answer == 1)
  day += 1;

// Prompt the user to answer questions
System.out.print("\nIs your birthday in Set2?\n");
System.out.print(set2);
System.out.print("\nEnter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
answer = input.nextInt();

if (answer == 1)
  day += 2;

// Prompt the user to answer questions
System.out.print("\nIs your birthday in Set3?\n");
System.out.print(set3);
System.out.print("\nEnter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
answer = input.nextInt();

if (answer == 1)
  day += 4;
// Prompt the user to answer questions
System.out.print("Is your birthday in Set4?\n");
System.out.print(set4);
System.out.print("Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
answer = input.nextInt();

if (answer == 1)
day += 8;

// Prompt the user to answer questions
System.out.print("Is your birthday in Set5?\n");
System.out.print(set5);
System.out.print("Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
answer = input.nextInt();

if (answer == 1)
day += 16;

System.out.println("Your birthday is " + day + "!");
}

3.5 Two-Way if-else Statements

An if-else statement decides which statements to execute based on whether the condition is true or false.

A one-way if statement takes an action if the specified condition is true. If the condition is false, nothing is done. But what if you want to take alternative actions when the condition is false? You can use a two-way if-else statement. The actions that a two-way if-else statement specifies differ based on whether the condition is true or false.

This game is easy to program. You may wonder how the game was created. The mathematics behind the game is actually quite simple. The numbers are not grouped together by accident—the way they are placed in the five sets is deliberate. The starting numbers in the five sets are 1, 2, 4, 8, and 16, which correspond to 1, 10, 100, 1000, and 10000 in binary (binary numbers are introduced in Appendix F, Number Systems). A binary number for decimal integers between 1 and 31 has at most five digits, as shown in Figure 3.2a. Let it be \( b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1 \). Thus, \( b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1 = b_50000 + b_4000 + b_300 + b_20 + b_1 \), as shown in Figure 3.2b. If a day’s binary number has a digit 1 in \( b_k \), the number should appear in Set\( k \). For example, number 19 is binary 10011, so it appears in Set1, Set2, and Set5. It is binary \( 1 + 10 + 10000 = 10011 \) or decimal \( 1 + 2 + 16 = 19 \). Number 31 is binary 11111, so it appears in Set1, Set2, Set3, Set4, and Set5. It is binary \( 1 + 10 + 100 + 1000 + 10000 = 11111 \) or decimal \( 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 31 \).

![Figure 3.2](https://example.com/figure3.2.png)

**Figure 3.2** (a) A number between 1 and 31 can be represented using a 5-digit binary number. (b) A 5-digit binary number can be obtained by adding binary numbers 1, 10, 100, 1000, or 10000.

### Table 3.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>day</th>
<th>answer</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Your birthday is 19!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here is the syntax for a two-way if-else statement:

```java
if (boolean-expression) {
    statement(s)-for-the-true-case;
} else {
    statement(s)-for-the-false-case;
}
```

The flowchart of the statement is shown in Figure 3.3.

![Flowchart of an if-else statement](image)

**Figure 3.3** An if-else statement executes statements for the true case if the Boolean-expression evaluates to true; otherwise, statements for the false case are executed.

If the boolean-expression evaluates to true, the statement(s) for the true case are executed; otherwise, the statement(s) for the false case are executed. For example, consider the following code:

```java
two-way if-else statement
if (radius >= 0) {
    area = radius * radius * PI;
    System.out.println("The area for the circle of radius "+
        radius + " is " + area);
} else {
    System.out.println("Negative input");
}
```

If `radius >= 0` is true, `area` is computed and displayed; if it is false, the message "Negative input" is displayed.

As usual, the braces can be omitted if there is only one statement within them. The braces enclosing the `System.out.println("Negative input")` statement can therefore be omitted in the preceding example.

Here is another example of using the if-else statement. The example checks whether a number is even or odd, as follows:

```java
if (number % 2 == 0)
    System.out.println(number + " is even.");
else
    System.out.println(number + " is odd.");
```
3.6 Nested if and Multi-Way if-else Statements

An if statement can be inside another if statement to form a nested if statement.

The statement in an if or if-else statement can be any legal Java statement, including another if or if-else statement. The inner if statement is said to be nested inside the outer if statement. The inner if statement can contain another if statement; in fact, there is no limit to the depth of the nesting. For example, the following is a nested if statement:

```java
if (i > k) {
    if (j > k)
        System.out.println("i and j are greater than k");
} else
    System.out.println("i is less than or equal to k");
```

The if (j > k) statement is nested inside the if (i > k) statement.

The nested if statement can be used to implement multiple alternatives. The statement given in Figure 3.4a, for instance, assigns a letter grade to the variable grade according to the score, with multiple alternatives.

```java
if (score >= 90.0)
    grade = 'A';
else
    if (score >= 80.0)
        grade = 'B';
    else
        if (score >= 70.0)
            grade = 'C';
        else
            if (score >= 60.0)
                grade = 'D';
            else
                grade = 'F';
```

This is better than the equivalent:

```java
if (score >= 90.0)
    grade = 'A';
else if (score >= 80.0)
    grade = 'B';
else if (score >= 70.0)
    grade = 'C';
else if (score >= 60.0)
    grade = 'D';
else
    grade = 'F';
```

Figure 3.4 A preferred format for multiple alternatives is shown in (b) using a multi-way if-else statement.

The execution of this if statement proceeds as shown in Figure 3.5. The first condition (score >= 90.0) is tested. If it is true, the grade becomes A. If it is false, the second condition (score >= 80.0) is tested. If the second condition is true, the grade becomes B. If that condition is false, the third condition and the rest of the conditions (if necessary) are tested until a condition is met or all of the conditions prove to be false. If all of the conditions are false, the grade becomes F. Note that a condition is tested only when all of the conditions that come before it are false.
Chapter 3  Selections

The if statement in Figure 3.4a is equivalent to the if statement in Figure 3.4b. In fact, Figure 3.4b is the preferred coding style for multiple alternative if statements. This style, called **multi-way if-else statements**, avoids deep indentation and makes the program easy to read.

3.8 Suppose $x = 3$ and $y = 2$; show the output, if any, of the following code. What is the output if $x = 3$ and $y = 4$? What is the output if $x = 2$ and $y = 2$? Draw a flowchart of the code.

```java
if (x > 2) {
    if (y > 2) {
        z = x + y;
        System.out.println("z is " + z);
    }
}
else
    System.out.println("x is " + x);
```

3.9 Suppose $x = 2$ and $y = 3$. Show the output, if any, of the following code. What is the output if $x = 3$ and $y = 2$? What is the output if $x = 3$ and $y = 3$? (Hint: Indent the statement correctly first.)

```java
if (x > 2)
    if (y > 2) {
        int z = x + y;
        System.out.println("z is " + z);
    }
else
    System.out.println("x is " + x);
```
3.10 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
if (score >= 60.0)
grade = 'D';
else if (score >= 70.0)
grade = 'C';
else if (score >= 80.0)
grade = 'B';
else if (score >= 90.0)
grade = 'A';
else
grade = 'F';
```

3.7 Common Errors in Selection Statements

*Forgetting necessary braces, ending an if statement in the wrong place, mistaking == for =, and dangling else clauses are common errors in selection statements.*

The following errors are common among new programmers.

**Common Error 1: Forgetting Necessary Braces**

The braces can be omitted if the block contains a single statement. However, forgetting the braces when they are needed for grouping multiple statements is a common programming error. If you modify the code by adding new statements in an if statement without braces, you will have to insert the braces. For example, the following code in (a) is wrong. It should be written with braces to group multiple statements, as shown in (b).

```java
if (radius >= 0)
area = radius * radius * PI;
System.out.println("The area is " + area);
}
```

(a) Wrong

```java
if (radius >= 0) {
area = radius * radius * PI;
System.out.println("The area is " + area);
}
```

(b) Correct

**Common Error 2: Wrong Semicolon at the if Line**

Adding a semicolon at the end of an if line, as shown in (a) below, is a common mistake.

```java
if (radius >= 0);
{ 
area = radius * radius * PI;
System.out.println("The area is " + area);
}
```

(a) Logic error

```java
if (radius >= 0) {
area = radius * radius * PI;
System.out.println("The area is " + area);
}
```

(b) Equivalent

This mistake is hard to find, because it is neither a compile error nor a runtime error; it is a logic error. The code in (a) is equivalent to that in (b) with an empty block.

This error often occurs when you use the next-line block style. Using the end-of-line block style can help prevent this error.
Common Error 3: Redundant Testing of Boolean Values

To test whether a boolean variable is true or false in a test condition, it is redundant to use the equality comparison operator like the code in (a):

```
if (even == true)
    System.out.println("It is even.");
```

Instead, it is better to test the boolean variable directly, as shown in (b). Another good reason for doing this is to avoid errors that are difficult to detect. Using the = operator instead of the == operator to compare the equality of two items in a test condition is a common error. It could lead to the following erroneous statement:

```
if (even = true)
    System.out.println("It is even.");
```

This statement does not have compile errors. It assigns true to even, so that even is always true.

Common Error 4: Dangling else Ambiguity

The code in (a) below has two if clauses and one else clause. Which if clause is matched by the else clause? The indentation indicates that the else clause matches the first if clause. However, the else clause actually matches the second if clause. This situation is known as the dangling else ambiguity. The else clause always matches the most recent unmatched if clause in the same block. So, the statement in (a) is equivalent to the code in (b).

```
int i = 1, j = 2, k = 3;
if (i > j)
    if (i > k)
        System.out.println("A");
else
    System.out.println("B");
```

Since (i > j) is false, nothing is displayed from the statements in (a) and (b). To force the else clause to match the first if clause, you must add a pair of braces:

```
int i = 1, j = 2, k = 3;
if (i > j) {
    if (i > k)
        System.out.println("A");
} else
    System.out.println("B");
```

This statement displays B.
3.7 Common Errors in Selection Statements

Tip

Often new programmers write the code that assigns a test condition to a boolean variable like the code in (a):

```java
if (number % 2 == 0)
  even = true;
else
  even = false;
```

(a)

This is shorter

```java
boolean even = number % 2 == 0;
```

(b)

The code can be simplified by assigning the test value directly to the variable, as shown in (b).

3.11 Which of the following statements are equivalent? Which ones are correctly indented?

(a)

```java
if (i > 0) if (j > 0) x = 0; else if (k > 0) y = 0; else z = 0;
else
  z = 0;
```

(b)

```java
if (i > 0) {
  if (j > 0) x = 0;
  else if (k > 0) y = 0;
  else
    y = 0;
}
else
  z = 0;
```

(c)

```java
if (i > 0) if (j > 0) x = 0;
else if (k > 0) y = 0;
else
  z = 0;
```

(d)

```java
if (i > 0) if (j > 0) x = 0;
else if (k > 0) y = 0;
else
  z = 0;
```

3.12 Rewrite the following statement using a Boolean expression:

```java
if (count % 10 == 0)
  newLine = true;
else
  newLine = false;
```

3.13 Are the following statements correct? Which one is better?

(a)

```java
if (age < 16)
  System.out.println("Cannot get a driver's license");
if (age >= 16)
  System.out.println("Can get a driver's license");
```

(b)

```java
if (age < 16)
  System.out.println("Cannot get a driver's license");
else
  System.out.println("Can get a driver's license");
```

3.14 What is the output of the following code if number is 14, 15, and 30?

(a)

```java
if (number % 2 == 0)
  System.out.println(number + " is even");
if (number % 5 == 0)
  System.out.println(number + " is multiple of 5");
```

(b)

```java
if (number % 2 == 0)
  System.out.println(number + " is even");
else if (number % 5 == 0)
  System.out.println(number + " is multiple of 5");
```
3.8 Generating Random Numbers

You can use Math.random() to obtain a random double value between 0.0 and 1.0, excluding 1.0.

Suppose you want to develop a program for a first-grader to practice subtraction. The program randomly generates two single-digit integers, number1 and number2, with number1 >= number2, and it displays to the student a question such as “What is 9 – 2?” After the student enters the answer, the program displays a message indicating whether it is correct.

The previous programs generate random numbers using System.currentTimeMillis(). A better approach is to use the random() method in the Math class. Invoking this method returns a random double value d such that 0.0 ≤ d < 1.0. Thus, (int)(Math.random() * 10) returns a random single-digit integer (i.e., a number between 0 and 9).

The program can work as follows:

1. Generate two single-digit integers into number1 and number2.
2. If number1 < number2, swap number1 with number2.
3. Prompt the student to answer, "What is number1 – number2?"
4. Check the student’s answer and display whether the answer is correct.

The complete program is shown in Listing 3.4.

Listing 3.4 SubtractionQuiz.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SubtractionQuiz {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int number1 = (int)(Math.random() * 10);
        int number2 = (int)(Math.random() * 10);

        if (number1 < number2) {
            int temp = number1;
            number1 = number2;
            number2 = temp;
        }

        System.out.print("What is ");
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        int answer = input.nextInt();

        if (number1 - number2 == answer)
            System.out.println("You are correct!");
        else
            System.out.println("Your answer is wrong\n" + number1 + " - " + number2 + " is " + (number1 - number2));
    }
}
```

What is 6 - 6? 0 Enter
You are correct!
3.9 Case Study: Computing Body Mass Index

You can use nested if statements to write a program that interprets body mass index.

Body Mass Index (BMI) is a measure of health based on height and weight. It can be calculated by taking your weight in kilograms and dividing it by the square of your height in meters. The interpretation of BMI for people 20 years or older is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BMI</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 18.5</td>
<td>Underweight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.5–24.9</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.0–29.9</td>
<td>Overweight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 30.0</td>
<td>Obese</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a weight in pounds and height in inches and displays the BMI. Note that one pound is \(0.45359237\) kilograms and one inch is \(0.0254\) meters. Listing 3.5 gives the program.
Listing 3.5  ComputeAndInterpretBMI.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeAndInterpretBMI {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter weight in pounds
        System.out.print("Enter weight in pounds: ");
        double weight = input.nextDouble();

        // Prompt the user to enter height in inches
        System.out.print("Enter height in inches: ");
        double height = input.nextDouble();

        final double KILOGRAMS_PER_POUND = 0.45359237; // Constant
        final double METERS_PER_INCH = 0.0254; // Constant

        // Compute BMI
        double weightInKilograms = weight * KILOGRAMS_PER_POUND;
        double heightInMeters = height * METERS_PER_INCH;
        double bmi = weightInKilograms / (heightInMeters * heightInMeters);

        // Display result
        System.out.println("BMI is "+ bmi);
        if (bmi < 18.5) System.out.println("Underweight");
        else if (bmi < 25) System.out.println("Normal");
        else if (bmi < 30) System.out.println("Overweight");
        else System.out.println("Obese");
    }
}
```

Enter weight in pounds: 146
Enter height in inches: 70
BMI is 20.948603801493316
Normal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>weight</th>
<th>height</th>
<th>weightInKilograms</th>
<th>heightInMeters</th>
<th>bmi</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>146</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>66.22448602</td>
<td>1.778</td>
<td>20.946</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>BMI is 20.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The constants `KILOGRAMS_PER_POUND` and `METERS_PER_INCH` are defined in lines 15–16. Using constants here makes programs easy to read.

### 3.10 Case Study: Computing Taxes

*You can use nested `if` statements to write a program for computing taxes.*

The United States federal personal income tax is calculated based on filing status and taxable income. There are four filing statuses: single filers, married filing jointly or qualified widow(er), married filing separately, and head of household. The tax rates vary every year. Table 3.2 shows the rates for 2009. If you are, say, single with a taxable income of $10,000, the first $8,350 is taxed at 10% and the other $1,650 is taxed at 15%, so, your total tax is $1,082.50.

#### Table 3.2  2009 U.S. Federal Personal Tax Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marginal Tax Rate</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Married Filing Jointly or Qualifying Widow(er)</th>
<th>Married Filing Separately</th>
<th>Head of Household</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>$0 – $8,350</td>
<td>$0 – $16,700</td>
<td>$0 – $8,350</td>
<td>$0 – $11,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>$8,351 – $33,950</td>
<td>$16,701 – $67,900</td>
<td>$8,351 – $33,950</td>
<td>$11,951 – $45,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35%</td>
<td>$372,951+</td>
<td>$372,951+</td>
<td>$186,476+</td>
<td>$372,951+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You are to write a program to compute personal income tax. Your program should prompt the user to enter the filing status and taxable income and compute the tax. Enter 0 for single filers, 1 for married filing jointly or qualified widow(er), 2 for married filing separately, and 3 for head of household.

Your program computes the tax for the taxable income based on the filing status. The filing status can be determined using `if` statements outlined as follows:

```java
if (status == 0) {
    // Compute tax for single filers
}
else if (status == 1) {
    // Compute tax for married filing jointly or qualifying widow(er)
}
else if (status == 2) {
    // Compute tax for married filing separately
}
else if (status == 3) {
    // Compute tax for head of household
}
else {
    // Display wrong status
}
```

For each filing status there are six tax rates. Each rate is applied to a certain amount of taxable income. For example, of a taxable income of $400,000 for single filers, $8,350 is taxed at 10%, $(33,950 – 8,350) at 15%, $(82,250 – 33,950) at 25%, $(171,550 – 82,250) at 28%, $(372,950 – 171,550) at 33%, and $(400,000 – 372,950) at 35%.

Listing 3.6 gives the solution for computing taxes for single filers. The complete solution is left as an exercise.
Listing 3.6 ComputeTax.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeTax {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter filing status
        System.out.print("(0-single filer, 1-married jointly or qualifying widow(er),
        + "\n2-married separately, 3-head of household)\n" +
        "Enter the filing status: ");
        int status = input.nextInt();

        // Prompt the user to enter taxable income
        System.out.print("Enter the taxable income: ");
        double income = input.nextDouble();

        // Compute tax
        double tax = 0;

        if (status == 0) { // Compute tax for single filers
            if (income <= 8350)
                tax = income * 0.10;
            else if (income <= 33950)
                tax = 8350 * 0.10 + (income - 8350) * 0.15;
            else if (income <= 82250)
                tax = 8350 * 0.10 + (33950 - 8350) * 0.15 +
                    (income - 33950) * 0.25;
            else if (income <= 171550)
                tax = 8350 * 0.10 + (33950 - 8350) * 0.15 +
                    (82250 - 33950) * 0.25 + (income - 82250) * 0.28 +
                    (income - 171550) * 0.33;
            else
                tax = 8350 * 0.10 + (33950 - 8350) * 0.15 +
                    (82250 - 33950) * 0.25 + (171550 - 82250) * 0.28 +
                    (372950 - 171550) * 0.33 + (income - 372950) * 0.35;
        }
        else if (status == 1) { // Left as exercise
            // Compute tax for married file jointly or qualifying widow(er)
        }
        else if (status == 2) { // Compute tax for married separately
            // Left as exercise
        }
        else if (status == 3) { // Compute tax for head of household
            // Left as exercise
        }
        else {
            System.out.println("Error: invalid status");
            System.exit(1);
        }

        // Display the result
        System.out.println("Tax is " + (int)(tax * 100) / 100.0);
    }
}
```
3.11 Logical Operators

Enter the filing status: 0
Enter the taxable income: 400000
Tax is 117683.5

The program receives the filing status and taxable income. The multi-way if-else statements (lines 22, 42, 45, 48, 51) check the filing status and compute the tax based on the filing status.

System.exit(status) (line 53) is defined in the System class. Invoking this method terminates the program. The status 0 indicates that the program is terminated normally. A nonzero status code indicates abnormal termination.

An initial value of 0 is assigned to tax (line 20). A compile error would occur if it had no initial value, because all of the other statements that assign values to tax are within the if statement. The compiler thinks that these statements may not be executed and therefore reports a compile error.

To test a program, you should provide the input that covers all cases. For this program, your input should cover all statuses (0, 1, 2, 3). For each status, test the tax for each of the six brackets. So, there are a total of 24 cases.

Tip
For all programs, you should write a small amount of code and test it before moving on to add more code. This is called incremental development and testing. This approach makes testing easier, because the errors are likely in the new code you just added.

3.17 Are the following two statements equivalent?

```java
if (income <= 10000)
tax = income * 0.1;
else if (income <= 20000)
tax = 10000 +
    (income - 10000) * 0.15;
else if (income > 10000 && income <= 20000)
tax = 10000 +
    (income - 10000) * 0.15;
```

3.11 Logical Operators

The logical operators !, &&, ||, and ^ can be used to create a compound Boolean expression.

Sometimes, whether a statement is executed is determined by a combination of several conditions. You can use logical operators to combine these conditions to form a compound Boolean expression. Logical operators, also known as Boolean operators, operate on Boolean values...
to create a new Boolean value. Table 3.3 lists the Boolean operators. Table 3.4 defines the not (!) operator, which negates true to false and false to true. Table 3.5 defines the and (&&) operator. The and (&&) of two Boolean operands is true if and only if both operands are true. Table 3.6 defines the or (||) operator. The or (||) of two Boolean operands is true if at least one of the operands is true. Table 3.7 defines the exclusive or (^) operator. The exclusive or (^) of two Boolean operands is true if and only if the two operands have different Boolean values. Note that p1 ^ p2 is the same as p1 != p2.

**Table 3.3** Boolean Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>logical negation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>logical conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>exclusive or</td>
<td>logical exclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.4** Truth Table for Operator !

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>p</th>
<th>!p</th>
<th>Example (assume age = 24, gender = 'F')</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>!(age &gt; 18) is false, because (age &gt; 18) is true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>!(gender == 'M') is true, because (gender == 'M') is false.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.5** Truth Table for Operator &&

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>p1</th>
<th>p2</th>
<th>p1 &amp;&amp; p2</th>
<th>Example (assume age = 24, gender = 'F')</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>(age &gt; 18) &amp;&amp; (gender == 'F') is true, because (age &gt; 18) and (gender == 'F') are both true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>false</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>(age &gt; 18) &amp;&amp; (gender != 'F') is false, because (gender != 'F') is false.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>true</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.6** Truth Table for Operator ||

| p1  | p2  | p1 || p2 | Example (assume age = 24, gender = 'F') |
|-----|-----|------|----------------------------------------|
| false | false | false | (age > 34) || (gender == 'F') is true, because (gender == 'F') is true. |
| false | true | true | |
| true | false | true | (age > 34) || (gender == 'M') is false, because (age > 34) and (gender == 'M') are both false. |
| true | true | true | |
### Table 3.7 Truth Table for Operator \(^\lor\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(p_1)</th>
<th>(p_2)</th>
<th>(p_1 \lor p_2)</th>
<th>Example (assume (\text{age} = 24), (\text{gender} = \text{F}'))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>((\text{age} &gt; 34)) (\lor) ((\text{gender} = \text{F}')) is true, because ((\text{age} &gt; 34)) is false but ((\text{gender} = \text{F}')) is true.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>true</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>((\text{age} &gt; 34)) (\lor) ((\text{gender} = \text{M}')) is false, because ((\text{age} &gt; 34)) and ((\text{gender} = \text{M}')) are both false.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>false</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listing 3.7 gives a program that checks whether a number is divisible by 2 and 3, by 2 or 3, and by 2 or 3 but not both:

### Listing 3.7 TestBooleanOperators.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class TestBooleanOperators {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

    // Receive an input
    System.out.print("Enter an integer: ");
    int number = input.nextInt();

    if (number % 2 == 0 \&\& number % 3 == 0) {
      System.out.println(number + " is divisible by 2 and 3.");
    }
    if (number % 2 == 0 || number % 3 == 0) {
      System.out.println(number + " is divisible by 2 or 3.");
    }
    if (number % 2 == 0 ^ number % 3 == 0) {
      System.out.println(number + " is divisible by 2 or 3, but not both.");
    }
  }
}
```

Enter an integer: 4
4 is divisible by 2 or 3.
4 is divisible by 2 or 3, but not both.

Enter an integer: 18
18 is divisible by 2 and 3.
18 is divisible by 2 or 3.

\((\text{number} \% 2 == 0 \&\& \text{number} \% 3 == 0)\) (line 12) checks whether the number is divisible by both 2 and 3. \((\text{number} \% 2 == 0 || \text{number} \% 3 == 0)\) (line 15) checks whether the number is divisible by 2 and/or by 3. \((\text{number} \% 2 == 0 ^ \text{number} \% 3 == 0)\) (line 18) checks whether the number is divisible by 2 or 3, but not both.

**Caution**

In mathematics, the expression

\(1 <= \text{numberOfDaysInAMonth} <= 31\)
is correct. However, it is incorrect in Java, because \( 1 \leq \text{numberOfDaysInAMonth} \) is evaluated to a \text{boolean} value, which cannot be compared with 31. Here, two operands (a \text{boolean} value and a numeric value) are \textit{incompatible}. The correct expression in Java is

\[
(1 \leq \text{numberOfDaysInAMonth}) \&\& (\text{numberOfDaysInAMonth} \leq 31)
\]

**Note**

As shown in the preceding chapter, a \text{char} value can be cast into an \text{int} value, and vice versa. A \text{boolean} value, however, cannot be cast into a value of another type, nor can a value of another type be cast into a \text{boolean} value.

**De Morgan’s law**

De Morgan’s law, named after Indian-born British mathematician and logician Augustus De Morgan (1806–1871), can be used to simplify Boolean expressions. The law states:

\[
\neg(\text{condition1} \&\& \text{condition2}) \text{ is the same as } \neg\text{condition1} \mid\mid \neg\text{condition2}
\]

\[
\neg(\text{condition1} \mid\mid \text{condition2}) \text{ is the same as } \neg\text{condition1} \&\& \neg\text{condition2}
\]

For example,

\[
\neg (\text{number} \% 2 = 0 \&\& \text{number} \% 3 = 0)
\]

can be simplified using an equivalent expression:

\[
(\text{number} \% 2 != 0 \mid\mid \text{number} \% 3 != 0)
\]

As another example,

\[
\neg (\text{number} == 2 \mid\mid \text{number} == 3)
\]

is better written as

\[
\text{number} != 2 \&\& \text{number} != 3
\]

If one of the operands of an \&\& operator is \textit{false}, the expression is \textit{false}; if one of the operands of an \mid\mid operator is \textit{true}, the expression is \textit{true}. Java uses these properties to improve the performance of these operators. When evaluating \texttt{p1 \&\& p2}, Java first evaluates \texttt{p1} and then, if \texttt{p1} is \textit{true}, evaluates \texttt{p2}; if \texttt{p1} is \textit{false}, it does not evaluate \texttt{p2}. When evaluating \texttt{p1 \mid\mid p2}, Java first evaluates \texttt{p1} and then, if \texttt{p1} is \textit{false}, evaluates \texttt{p2}; if \texttt{p1} is \textit{true}, it does not evaluate \texttt{p2}. Therefore, \&\& is referred to as the \textit{conditional} or \textit{short-circuit AND} operator, and \mid\mid is referred to as the \textit{conditional} or \textit{short-circuit OR} operator. Java also provides the conditional \texttt{AND (\&)} and \texttt{OR (\|)} operators, which are covered in Supplement III.C and III.D for advanced readers.

### 3.18

Assuming that \( x \) is 1, show the result of the following Boolean expressions.

\[
(\text{true}) \&\& (3 > 4)
\]

\[
!(x > 0) \&\& (x > 0)
\]

\[
(x > 0) \mid\mid (x < 0)
\]

\[
(x != 0) \mid\mid (x == 0)
\]

\[
(x >= 0) \mid\mid (x < 0)
\]

\[
(x != 1) == !(x == 1)
\]

### 3.19

Write a Boolean expression that evaluates to \textit{true} if a number stored in variable \texttt{num} is between 1 and 100.

### 3.20

Write a Boolean expression that evaluates to \textit{true} if a number stored in variable \texttt{num} is between 1 and 100 or the number is negative.
3.21 Assume that $x$ and $y$ are int type. Which of the following are legal Java expressions?

- $x > y > 0$
- $x = y \&\& y$
- $x /= y$
- $x \text{ and } y$
- $(x != 0) \text{ || } (x = 0)$

3.22 Suppose that $x$ is 1. What is $x$ after the evaluation of the following expression?

a. $(x >= 1) \text{ && } (x++ > 1)$
b. $(x > 1) \text{ && } (x++ > 1)$

3.23 What is the value of the expression $ch >= 'A' \&\& ch <= 'Z'$ if $ch$ is 'A', 'p', 'E', or '5'? 

3.24 Suppose, when you run the program, you enter input 2 3 6 from the console. What is the output?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(System.in);
        double x = input.nextDouble();
        double y = input.nextDouble();
        double z = input.nextDouble();

        System.out.println("(x < y && y < z) is "+ (x < y && y < z));
        System.out.println("(x < y || y < z) is "+ (x < y || y < z));
        System.out.println("!(x < y) is "+ !(x < y));
        System.out.println("(x + y < z) is "+ (x + y < z));
    }
}
```

3.25 Write a Boolean expression that evaluates true if age is greater than 13 and less than 18.

3.26 Write a Boolean expression that evaluates true if weight is greater than 50 pounds or height is greater than 60 inches.

3.27 Write a Boolean expression that evaluates true if weight is greater than 50 pounds and height is greater than 60 inches.

3.28 Write a Boolean expression that evaluates true if either weight is greater than 50 pounds or height is greater than 60 inches, but not both.

3.12 Case Study: Determining Leap Year

A year is a leap year if it is divisible by 4 but not by 100, or if it is divisible by 400.

You can use the following Boolean expressions to check whether a year is a leap year:

```java
// A leap year is divisible by 4
boolean leapYear = (year % 4 == 0);
// A leap year is divisible by 4 but not by 100
leapYear = leapYear && (year % 100 != 0);
// A leap year is divisible by 4 but not by 100 or divisible by 400
leapYear = leapYear || (year % 400 == 0);
```

Or you can combine all these expressions into one like this:

```java
leapYear = (year % 4 == 0 && year % 100 != 0) || (year % 400 == 0);
```
Listing 3.8 gives the program that lets the user enter a year and checks whether it is a leap year.

**LISTING 3.8 LeapYear.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class LeapYear {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a year: ");
        int year = input.nextInt();

        // Check if the year is a leap year
        boolean isLeapYear = (year % 4 == 0 && year % 100 != 0) || (year % 400 == 0);

        // Display the result
        System.out.println(year + " is a leap year? " + isLeapYear);
    }
}
```

Enter a year: 2012
2008 is a leap year? true

Enter a year: 1900
1900 is a leap year? false

Enter a year: 2002
2002 is a leap year? false

### 3.13 Case Study: Lottery

**The lottery program involves generating random numbers, comparing digits, and using Boolean operators.**

Suppose you want to develop a program to play lottery. The program randomly generates a lottery of a two-digit number, prompts the user to enter a two-digit number, and determines whether the user wins according to the following rules:

1. If the user input matches the lottery number in the exact order, the award is $10,000.
2. If all the digits in the user input match all the digits in the lottery number, the award is $3,000.
3. If one digit in the user input matches a digit in the lottery number, the award is $1,000.

The complete program is shown in Listing 3.9.

**LISTING 3.9 Lottery.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Lottery {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Generate a lottery number
```
```java
int lottery = (int)(Math.random() * 100); // generate a lottery number

Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
System.out.print("Enter your lottery pick (two digits): ");
int guess = input.nextInt();

// Get digits from lottery
int lotteryDigit1 = lottery / 10;
int lotteryDigit2 = lottery % 10;

// Get digits from guess
int guessDigit1 = guess / 10;
int guessDigit2 = guess % 10;

System.out.println("The lottery number is " + lottery);

// Check the guess
if (guess == lottery)
    System.out.println("Exact match: you win $10,000");
else if (guessDigit2 == lotteryDigit1 && guessDigit1 == lotteryDigit2)
    System.out.println("Match all digits: you win $3,000");
else if (guessDigit1 == lotteryDigit1 || guessDigit1 == lotteryDigit2
    || guessDigit2 == lotteryDigit1
    || guessDigit2 == lotteryDigit2)
    System.out.println("Match one digit: you win $1,000");
else
    System.out.println("Sorry, no match");
```

```
Enter your lottery pick (two digits): 45
The lottery number is 12
Sorry, no match

Enter your lottery pick: 23
The lottery number is 34
Match one digit: you win $1,000
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>variable</th>
<th>value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>lottery</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>guess</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>lotteryDigit1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>lotteryDigit2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>guessDigit1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>guessDigit2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Output</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Output: Match one digit: you win $1,000
The program generates a lottery using the `random()` method (line 6) and prompts the user to enter a guess (line 11). Note that `guess % 10` obtains the last digit from `guess` and `guess / 10` obtains the first digit from `guess`, since `guess` is a two-digit number (lines 18–19). The program checks the guess against the lottery number in this order:

1. First, check whether the guess matches the lottery exactly (line 24).
2. If not, check whether the reversal of the guess matches the lottery (lines 26–27).
3. If not, check whether one digit is in the lottery (lines 29–32).
4. If not, nothing matches and display "Sorry, no match" (lines 34–35).

### 3.14 switch Statements

**Key Point**

A `switch` statement executes statements based on the value of a variable or an expression.

The `if` statement in Listing 3.6, `ComputeTax.java`, makes selections based on a single `true` or `false` condition. There are four cases for computing taxes, which depend on the value of `status`. To fully account for all the cases, nested `if` statements were used. Overuse of nested `if` statements makes a program difficult to read. Java provides a `switch` statement to simplify coding for multiple conditions. You can write the following `switch` statement to replace the nested `if` statement in Listing 3.6:

```java
switch (status) {
    case 0:  compute tax for single filers;
             break;
    case 1:  compute tax for married jointly or qualifying widow(er);
             break;
    case 2:  compute tax for married filing separately;
             break;
    case 3:  compute tax for head of household;
             break;
    default: System.out.println("Error: invalid status");
             System.exit(1);
}
```

The flowchart of the preceding `switch` statement is shown in Figure 3.6.
This statement checks to see whether the status matches the value 0, 1, 2, or 3, in that order. If matched, the corresponding tax is computed; if not matched, a message is displayed. Here is the full syntax for the `switch` statement:

```java
switch (switch-expression) {
    case value1: statement(s)1;
    break;
    case value2: statement(s)2;
    break;
    ...
    case valueN: statement(s)N;
    break;
    default:     statement(s)-for-default;
}
```

The `switch` statement observes the following rules:

- The `switch-expression` must yield a value of `char`, `byte`, `short`, `int`, or `String` type and must always be enclosed in parentheses. (Using `String` type in the `switch` expression is new in JDK 7.)

- The `value1`,..., and `valueN` must have the same data type as the value of the `switch-expression`. Note that `value1`,..., and `valueN` are constant expressions, meaning that they cannot contain variables, such as `1 + x`.

- When the value in a `case` statement matches the value of the `switch-expression`, the statements `starting from this case` are executed until either a `break` statement or the end of the `switch` statement is reached.

- The `default` case, which is optional, can be used to perform actions when none of the specified cases matches the `switch-expression`.

- The keyword `break` is optional. The `break` statement immediately ends the `switch` statement.

**Caution**

Do not forget to use a `break` statement when one is needed. Once a case is matched, the statements starting from the matched case are executed until a `break` statement or the end of the `switch` statement is reached. This is referred to as *fall-through behavior*. For example, the following code displays the character `a` three times if `ch` is `a`:

```java
switch (ch) {
    case 'a': System.out.println(ch);
    case 'b': System.out.println(ch);
    case 'c': System.out.println(ch);
}
```

**Tip**

To avoid programming errors and improve code maintainability, it is a good idea to put a comment in a case clause if `break` is purposely omitted.
Now let us write a program to find out the Chinese Zodiac sign for a given year. The Chinese Zodiac is based on a twelve-year cycle, with each year represented by an animal—monkey, rooster, dog, pig, rat, ox, tiger, rabbit, dragon, snake, horse, or sheep—in this cycle, as shown in Figure 3.7.

![Chinese Zodiac Cycle](image)

**FIGURE 3.7** The Chinese Zodiac is based on a twelve-year cycle.

Note that `year % 12` determines the Zodiac sign. 1900 is the year of the rat because $1900 \mod 12 = 4$. Listing 3.10 gives a program that prompts the user to enter a year and displays the animal for the year.

**LISTING 3.10  ChineseZodiac.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ChineseZodiac {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a year: ");
        int year = input.nextInt();

        switch (year % 12) {
            case 0: System.out.println("monkey"); break;
            case 1: System.out.println("rooster"); break;
            case 2: System.out.println("dog"); break;
            case 3: System.out.println("pig"); break;
            case 4: System.out.println("rat"); break;
            case 5: System.out.println("ox"); break;
            case 6: System.out.println("tiger"); break;
            case 7: System.out.println("rabbit"); break;
            case 8: System.out.println("dragon"); break;
            case 9: System.out.println("snake"); break;
            case 10: System.out.println("horse"); break;
            case 11: System.out.println("sheep");
        }
    }
}
```

Enter a year: 1963 Enter
rabbit
3.15 Conditional Expressions

A conditional expression evaluates an expression based on a condition.

You might want to assign a value to a variable that is restricted by certain conditions. For example, the following statement assigns 1 to y if x is greater than 0, and -1 to y if x is less than or equal to 0.

```java
if (x > 0)
    y = 1;
else
    y = -1;
```

Alternatively, as in the following example, you can use a conditional expression to achieve the same result.

```java
y = (x > 0) ? 1 : -1;
```

Conditional expressions are in a completely different style, with no explicit if in the statement. The syntax is:

```java
boolean-expression ? expression1 : expression2;
```
The result of this conditional expression is expression1 if boolean-expression is true; otherwise the result is expression2.

Suppose you want to assign the larger number of variable num1 and num2 to max. You can simply write a statement using the conditional expression:

\[
max = (\text{num1} > \text{num2}) \ ? \ \text{num1} : \text{num2};
\]

For another example, the following statement displays the message “num is even” if num is even, and otherwise displays “num is odd.”

\[
\text{System.out.println}((\text{num} \ % \ 2 == 0) \ ? \ \text{"num is even"} : \text{"num is odd"});
\]

As you can see from these examples, conditional expressions enable you to write short and concise code.

**Note**

The symbols ? and : appear together in a conditional expression. They form a conditional operator called a ternary operator because it uses three operands. It is the only ternary operator in Java.

### 3.33

Suppose that, when you run the following program, you enter input 2 3 6 from the console. What is the output?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(System.in);
        double x = input.nextDouble();
        double y = input.nextDouble();
        double z = input.nextDouble();
        System.out.println((x < y && y < z) ? "sorted" : "not sorted");
    }
}
```

### 3.34

Rewrite the following if statements using the conditional operator.

```java
if (ages >= 16)
    ticketPrice = 20;
else
    ticketPrice = 10;

if (count % 10 == 0)
    System.out.print(count + "\n");
else
    System.out.print(count);
```

### 3.35

Rewrite the following conditional expressions using if-else statements.

a. score = (x > 10) ? 3 * scale : 4 * scale;
b. tax = (income > 10000) ? income * 0.2 : income * 0.17 + 1000;
c. System.out.println((number % 3 == 0) ? i : j);

### 3.16 Formatting Console Output

You can use the `System.out.printf` method to display formatted output on the console.

Often it is desirable to display numbers in a certain format. For example, the following code computes interest, given the amount and the annual interest rate.

```java
double amount = 12618.98;
double interestRate = 0.0013;
```
**3.16 Formatting Console Output**

```java
double interest = amount * interestRate;
System.out.println("Interest is " + interest);
```

Interest is 16.404674

Because the interest amount is currency, it is desirable to display only two digits after the decimal point. To do this, you can write the code as follows:

```java
double amount = 12618.98;
double interestRate = 0.0013;
double interest = amount * interestRate;
System.out.println("Interest is "+ (int)(interest * 100) / 100.0);
```

Interest is 16.4

However, the format is still not correct. There should be two digits after the decimal point: 16.40 rather than 16.4. You can fix it by using the `printf` method, like this:

```java
double amount = 12618.98;
double interestRate = 0.0013;
double interest = amount * interestRate;
System.out.printf("Interest is %4.2f", interest);
```

Interest is 16.40

The syntax to invoke this method is

```
System.out.printf(format, item1, item2, ..., itemk)
```

where `format` is a string that may consist of substrings and format specifiers.

A `format specifier` specifies how an item should be displayed. An item may be a numeric value, a character, a Boolean value, or a string. A simple format specifier consists of a percent sign (%) followed by a conversion code. Table 3.8 lists some frequently used simple format specifiers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Format Specifier</th>
<th>Output</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%b</td>
<td>a Boolean value</td>
<td>true or false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%c</td>
<td>a character</td>
<td>'a'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%d</td>
<td>a decimal integer</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%f</td>
<td>a floating-point number</td>
<td>45.460000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%e</td>
<td>a number in standard scientific notation</td>
<td>4.556000e+01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%s</td>
<td>a string</td>
<td>“Java is cool”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here is an example:

```java
int count = 5;
double amount = 45.56;
System.out.printf("count is %d and amount is %f", count, amount);
```

display count is 5 and amount is 45.560000

Items must match the format specifiers in order, in number, and in exact type. For example, the format specifier for `count` is `%d` and for `amount` is `%f`. By default, a floating-point value is displayed with six digits after the decimal point. You can specify the width and precision in a format specifier, as shown in the examples in Table 3.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>%5c</code></td>
<td>Output the character and add four spaces before the character item, because the width is 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%6b</code></td>
<td>Output the Boolean value and add one space before the false value and two spaces before the true value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%5d</code></td>
<td>Output the integer item with width at least 5. If the number of digits in the item is &lt;5, add spaces before the number. If the number of digits in the item is &gt;5, the width is automatically increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%10.2f</code></td>
<td>Output the floating-point item with width at least 10 including a decimal point and two digits after the point. Thus there are 7 digits allocated before the decimal point. If the number of digits before the decimal point in the item is &lt;7, add spaces before the number. If the number of digits before the decimal point in the item is &gt;7, the width is automatically increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%10.2e</code></td>
<td>Output the floating-point item with width at least 10 including a decimal point, two digits after the point and the exponent part. If the displayed number in scientific notation has width less than 10, add spaces before the number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%12s</code></td>
<td>Output the string with width at least 12 characters. If the string item has fewer than 12 characters, add spaces before the string. If the string item has more than 12 characters, the width is automatically increased.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If an item requires more spaces than the specified width, the width is automatically increased. For example, the following code

```java
System.out.printf("%3d%2s%3.2f\n", 1234, "Java", 51.6653);
```

displays

```
1234#Java#51.67
```

The specified width for `int` item `1234` is `3`, which is smaller than its actual size `4`. The width is automatically increased to `4`. The specified width for string item `Java` is `2`, which is smaller than its actual size `4`. The width is automatically increased to `4`. The specified width for `double` item `51.6653` is `3`, but it needs width `5` to display `51.67`, so the width is automatically increased to `5`. 
By default, the output is right justified. You can put the minus sign (−) in the format specifier to specify that the item is left justified in the output within the specified field. For example, the following statements:

```java
System.out.printf("%8d%8s%8.1f\n", 1234, "Java", 5.63);
System.out.printf("%8d%8s%8.1f
", 1234, "Java", 5.63);
```

display

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1234</td>
<td>Java</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1234</td>
<td>Java</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

where the square box (□) denotes a blank space.

**Caution**
The items must match the format specifiers in exact type. The item for the format specifier %f or %e must be a floating-point type value such as 40.0, not 40. Thus, an int variable cannot match %f or %e.

**Tip**
The % sign denotes a format specifier. To output a literal % in the format string, use %%.

### 3.36 What are the format specifiers for outputting a Boolean value, a character, a decimal integer, a floating-point number, and a string?

### 3.37 What is wrong in the following statements?

a. `System.out.printf("%5d %d", 1, 2, 3);`

b. `System.out.printf("%5d %f", 1, 3);`

c. `System.out.printf("%5d %f", 1, 2);`

### 3.38 Show the output of the following statements.

a. `System.out.printf("amount is %f %e\n", 32.32, 32.32);`

b. `System.out.printf("amount is %5.4f %5.4e\n", 32.32, 32.32);`

c. `System.out.printf("%6b\n", (1 > 2));`

d. `System.out.printf("%6s\n", "Java");`

e. `System.out.printf("%-6b%s\n", (1 > 2), "Java");`

f. `System.out.printf("%6b%8s\n", (1 > 2), "Java");`

### 3.17 Operator Precedence and Associativity

*Operator precedence and associativity determine the order in which operators are evaluated.*

Section 2.11 introduced operator precedence involving arithmetic operators. This section discusses operator precedence in more details. Suppose that you have this expression:

\[
3 + 4 \times 4 > 5 \times (4 + 3) - 1 \&\& (4 - 3 > 5)
\]

What is its value? What is the execution order of the operators?

The expression in the parentheses is evaluated first. (Parentheses can be nested, in which case the expression in the inner parentheses is executed first.) When evaluating an expression without
Parentheses, the operators are applied according to the precedence rule and the associativity rule.

The precedence rule defines precedence for operators, as shown in Table 3.10, which contains the operators you have learned so far. Operators are listed in decreasing order of precedence from top to bottom. The logical operators have lower precedence than the relational operators and the relational operators have lower precedence than the arithmetic operators. Operators with the same precedence appear in the same group. (See Appendix C, Operator Precedence Chart, for a complete list of Java operators and their precedence.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Precedence</th>
<th>Operator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>var++ and var-- (Postfix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+, - (Unary plus and minus), ++var and --var (Prefix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(type) (Casting)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>! (Not)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* , / , % (Multiplication, division, and remainder)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+, - (Binary addition and subtraction)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; , &lt;= , &gt; , &gt;= (Comparison)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>== , != (Equality)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^ (Exclusive OR)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp; (AND)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>= , += , -= , *= , /= , %= (Assignment operator)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If operators with the same precedence are next to each other, their associativity determines the order of evaluation. All binary operators except assignment operators are left associative. For example, since + and – are of the same precedence and are left associative, the expression

\[ a - b + c - d \]

is equivalent to

\[ ((a - b) + c) - d \]

Assignment operators are right associative. Therefore, the expression

\[ a = b += c = 5 \]

is equivalent to

\[ a = (b += (c = 5)) \]

Suppose a, b, and c are 1 before the assignment; after the whole expression is evaluated, a becomes 6, b becomes 6, and c becomes 5. Note that left associativity for the assignment operator would not make sense.

**Note**

Java has its own way to evaluate an expression internally. The result of a Java evaluation is the same as that of its corresponding arithmetic evaluation. Advanced readers may refer to Supplement III.B for more discussions on how an expression is evaluated in Java.
3.39 List the precedence order of the Boolean operators. Evaluate the following expressions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{true} & \lor \text{true} \land \text{false} \\
\text{true} & \land \text{true} \lor \text{false}
\end{align*}
\]

3.40 True or false? All the binary operators except \(=\) are left associative.

3.41 Evaluate the following expressions:

\[
\begin{align*}
2 \times 2 - 3 & > 2 \land 4 - 2 > 5 \\
2 \times 2 - 3 & > 2 \lor 4 - 2 > 5
\end{align*}
\]

3.42 Is \((x > 0) \land x < 10\) the same as \((x > 0) \land (x < 10)\)? Is \((x > 0) \lor x < 10\) the same as \((x > 0) \lor (x < 10)\)? Is \((x > 0) \lor (x < 10) \land y < 0\) the same as \((x > 0) \lor (x < 10 \land y < 0)\)?

### 3.18 Confirmation Dialogs

You can use a confirmation dialog to obtain a confirmation from the user.

You have used `showMessageDialog` to display a message dialog box and `showInputDialog` to display an input dialog box. Occasionally it is useful to answer a question with a confirmation dialog box. A confirmation dialog can be created using the following statement:

```java
int option = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Continue");
```

When a button is clicked, the method returns an option value. The value is `JOptionPane.YES_OPTION (0)` for the Yes button, `JOptionPane.NO_OPTION (1)` for the No button, and `JOptionPane.CANCEL_OPTION (2)` for the Cancel button.

You may rewrite the guess-birthday program in Listing 3.3 using confirmation dialog boxes, as shown in Listing 3.11. Figure 3.8 shows a sample run of the program for the day 19.

#### Listing 3.11 GuessBirthdayUsingConfirmationDialog.java

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class GuessBirthdayUsingConfirmationDialog {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String set1 =
            "1 3 5 7\n" +
            "9 11 13 15\n" +
            "17 19 21 23\n" +
            "25 27 29 31";

        String set2 =
            "2 3 6 7\n" +
            "10 11 14 15\n" +
            "18 19 22 23\n" +
            "26 27 30 31";
```
int day = 0;

// Prompt the user to answer questions
text = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Is your birthday in these numbers?" + set1);

if (answer == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION)
day += 1;

answer = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Is your birthday in these numbers?" + set2);

if (answer == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION)
day += 2;

answer = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Is your birthday in these numbers?" + set3);

if (answer == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION)
day += 4;

answer = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Is your birthday in these numbers?" + set4);

if (answer == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION)
day += 8;

answer = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Is your birthday in these numbers?" + set5);

if (answer == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION)
day += 16;

JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Your birthday is " + day + "!");
}
}

The program displays confirmation dialog boxes to prompt the user to answer whether a number is in Set1 (line 38), Set2 (line 44), Set3 (line 50), Set4 (line 56), and Set5 (line 62). If the answer is Yes, the first number in the set is added to day (lines 42, 48, 54, 60, and 66).
3.19 Debugging

Debugging is the process of finding and fixing errors in a program.

As mentioned in Section 1.11,1, syntax errors are easy to find and easy to correct because the compiler gives indications as to where the errors came from and why they are there. Runtime errors are not difficult to find either, because the Java interpreter displays them on the console when the program aborts. Finding logic errors, on the other hand, can be very challenging.

Logic errors are called bugs. The process of finding and correcting errors is called debugging. A common approach to debugging is to use a combination of methods to help pinpoint the part of the program where the bug is located. You can hand-trace the program (i.e., catch errors by reading the program), or you can insert print statements in order to show the values of the variables or the execution flow of the program. These approaches might work for debugging a short, simple program, but for a large, complex program, the most effective approach is to use a debugger utility.

JDK includes a command-line debugger, jdb, which is invoked with a class name. jdb is itself a Java program, running its own copy of Java interpreter. All the Java IDE tools, such as Eclipse and NetBeans, include integrated debuggers. The debugger utilities let you follow the execution of a program. They vary from one system to another, but they all support most of the following helpful features.

- **Executing a single statement at a time:** The debugger allows you to execute one statement at a time so that you can see the effect of each statement.

- **Tracing into or stepping over a method:** If a method is being executed, you can ask the debugger to enter the method and execute one statement at a time in the method, or you can ask it to step over the entire method. You should step over the entire method if you know that the method works. For example, always step over system-supplied methods, such as `System.out.println`.

3.43 How do you display a confirmation dialog? What value is returned when invoking `JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog`?
**Setting breakpoints:** You can also set a breakpoint at a specific statement. Your program pauses when it reaches a breakpoint. You can set as many breakpoints as you want. Breakpoints are particularly useful when you know where your programming error starts. You can set a breakpoint at that statement and have the program execute until it reaches the breakpoint.

**Displaying variables:** The debugger lets you select several variables and display their values. As you trace through a program, the content of a variable is continuously updated.

**Displaying call stacks:** The debugger lets you trace all of the method calls. This feature is helpful when you need to see a large picture of the program-execution flow.

**Modifying variables:** Some debuggers enable you to modify the value of a variable when debugging. This is convenient when you want to test a program with different samples but do not want to leave the debugger.

**Tip**
If you use an IDE such as Eclipse or NetBeans, please refer to *Learning Java Effectively with Eclipse/NetBeans* in Supplements II.C and II.E on the Companion Website. The supplement shows you how to use a debugger to trace programs and how debugging can help in learning Java effectively.

**Key Terms**

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<th>Page</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>boolean data type</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boolean value</td>
<td>82</td>
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<tr>
<td>conditional operator</td>
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<td>flowchart</td>
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<td>selection statement</td>
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</tbody>
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**Chapter Summary**

1. A *boolean* type variable can store a *true* or *false* value.

2. The relational operators (<, <=, ==, !=, >, >=) work with numbers and characters, and yield a Boolean value.

3. The Boolean operators &&, ||, !, and ^ operate with Boolean values and variables.

4. When evaluating `p1 && p2`, Java first evaluates `p1` and then evaluates `p2` if `p1` is *true*; if `p1` is *false*, it does not evaluate `p2`. When evaluating `p1 || p2`, Java first evaluates `p1` and then evaluates `p2` if `p1` is *false*; if `p1` is *true*, it does not evaluate `p2`. Therefore, && is referred to as the *conditional or short-circuit AND operator*, and || is referred to as the *conditional or short-circuit OR operator*.

5. *Selection statements* are used for programming with alternative courses of actions. There are several types of selection statements: *if* statements, two-way *if-else* statements, nested *if* statements, multi-way *if-else* statements, *switch* statements, and conditional expressions.
6. The various \textbf{if} statements all make control decisions based on a \textit{Boolean expression}. Based on the \textit{true} or \textit{false} evaluation of the expression, these statements take one of two possible courses.

7. The \textbf{switch} statement makes control decisions based on a switch expression of type \texttt{char}, \texttt{byte}, \texttt{short}, \texttt{int}, or \texttt{String}.

8. The keyword \textbf{break} is optional in a \textbf{switch} statement, but it is normally used at the end of each case in order to skip the remainder of the \textbf{switch} statement. If the \textbf{break} statement is not present, the next \textbf{case} statement will be executed.

9. The operators in expressions are evaluated in the order determined by the rules of parentheses, \textit{operator precedence}, and \textit{operator associativity}.

10. Parentheses can be used to force the order of evaluation to occur in any sequence.

11. Operators with higher precedence are evaluated earlier. For operators of the same precedence, their associativity determines the order of evaluation.

12. All binary operators except assignment operators are left-associative; assignment operators are right-associative.

\section*{Test Questions}

Do the test questions for this chapter online at \url{www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html}.

\section*{Programming Exercises}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Pedagogical Note} \\
For each exercise, carefully analyze the problem requirements and design strategies for solving the problem before coding.
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Debugging Tip} \\
Before you ask for help, read and explain the program to yourself, and trace it using several representative inputs by hand or using an IDE debugger. You learn how to program by debugging your own mistakes.
\end{itemize}

\subsection*{Section 3.2}

\textbf{*3.1 (Algebra: solve quadratic equations)} The two roots of a quadratic equation \(ax^2 + bx + c = 0\) can be obtained using the following formula:

\[
\begin{align*}
    r_1 &= \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \\
    r_2 &= \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}
\end{align*}
\]

\(b^2 - 4ac\) is called the discriminant of the quadratic equation. If it is positive, the equation has two real roots. If it is zero, the equation has one root. If it is negative, the equation has no real roots.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter values for \(a, b,\) and \(c\) and displays the result based on the discriminant. If the discriminant is positive, display two roots. If the discriminant is \textit{0}, display one root. Otherwise, display “The equation has no real roots”.

Enter a, b, c: 1.0 3 1
The roots are -0.381966 and -2.61803

Enter a, b, c: 1 2.0 1
The root is -1

Enter a, b, c: 1 2 3
The equation has no real roots

3.2 (Game: add three numbers) The program in Listing 3.1 generates two integers and prompts the user to enter the sum of these two integers. Revise the program to generate three single-digit integers and prompt the user to enter the sum of these three integers.

Sections 3.3–3.8

*3.3 (Algebra: solve 2 × 2 linear equations) You can use Cramer’s rule to solve the following 2 × 2 system of linear equation:

\[
\begin{align*}
ax + by & = e \\
(cx + dy) & = f
\end{align*}
\]

Write a program that prompts the user to enter \(a, b, c, d, e,\) and \(f\) and displays the result. If \(ad - bc\) is 0, report that “The equation has no solution”.

Enter a, b, c, d, e, f: 9.0 4.0 3.0 -5.0 -6.0 -21.0
x is -2.0 and y is 3.0

**3.4 (Game: learn addition) Write a program that generates two integers under 100 and prompts the user to enter the sum of these two integers. The program then reports true if the answer is correct, false otherwise. The program is similar to Listing 3.1.

*3.5 (Find future dates) Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer for today’s day of the week (Sunday is 0, Monday is 1, . . ., and Saturday is 6). Also prompt the user to enter the number of days after today for a future day and display the future day of the week. Here is a sample run:

Enter today’s day: 1
Enter the number of days elapsed since today: 3
Today is Monday and the future day is Thursday
Enter today's day: 0  Enter
Enter the number of days elapsed since today: 31  Enter
Today is Sunday and the future day is Wednesday

*3.6 (Health application: BMI) Revise Listing 3.5, ComputeAndInterpretBMI.java, to let the user enter weight, feet, and inches. For example, if a person is 5 feet and 10 inches, you will enter 5 for feet and 10 for inches. Here is a sample run:

Enter weight in pounds: 140  Enter
Enter feet: 5  Enter
Enter inches: 10  Enter
BMI is 20.087702275404553
Normal

3.7 (Financial application: monetary units) Modify Listing 2.10, ComputeChange.java, to display the nonzero denominations only, using singular words for single units such as 1 dollar and 1 penny, and plural words for more than one unit such as 2 dollars and 3 pennies.

*3.8 (Sort three integers) Write a program that sorts three integers. The integers are entered from the input dialogs and stored in variables num1, num2, and num3, respectively. The program sorts the numbers so that num1 ≤ num2 ≤ num3.

**3.9 (Business: check ISBN-10) An ISBN-10 (International Standard Book Number) consists of 10 digits: \( d_1d_2d_3d_4d_5d_6d_7d_8d_9d_{10} \). The last digit, \( d_{10} \), is a checksum, which is calculated from the other nine digits using the following formula:

\[
(d_1 \times 1 + d_2 \times 2 + d_3 \times 3 + d_4 \times 4 + d_5 \times 5 + d_6 \times 6 + d_7 \times 7 + d_8 \times 8 + d_9 \times 9) \mod 11
\]

If the checksum is 10, the last digit is denoted as X according to the ISBN-10 convention. Write a program that prompts the user to enter the first 9 digits and displays the 10-digit ISBN (including leading zeros). Your program should read the input as an integer. Here are sample runs:

Enter the first 9 digits of an ISBN as integer: 013601267
The ISBN-10 number is 0136012671

Enter the first 9 digits of an ISBN as integer: 013031997
The ISBN-10 number is 013031997X

3.10 (Game: addition quiz) Listing 3.4, SubtractionQuiz.java, randomly generates a subtraction question. Revise the program to randomly generate an addition question with two integers less than 100.

Sections 3.9–3.19

*3.11 (Find the number of days in a month) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the month and year and displays the number of days in the month. For
example, if the user entered month 2 and year 2012, the program should display that February 2012 had 29 days. If the user entered month 3 and year 2015, the program should display that March 2015 had 31 days.

3.12 (Check a number) Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer and checks whether the number is divisible by both 5 and 6, or neither of them, or just one of them. Here are some sample runs for inputs 10, 30, and 23.

10 is divisible by 5 or 6, but not both
30 is divisible by both 5 and 6
23 is not divisible by either 5 or 6

*3.13 (Financial application: compute taxes) Listing 3.6, ComputeTax.java, gives the source code to compute taxes for single filers. Complete Listing 3.6 to give the complete source code.

3.14 (Game: heads or tails) Write a program that lets the user guess whether the flip of a coin results in heads or tails. The program randomly generates an integer 0 or 1, which represents head or tail. The program prompts the user to enter a guess and reports whether the guess is correct or incorrect.

**3.15 (Game: lottery) Revise Listing 3.9, Lottery.java, to generate a lottery of a three-digit number. The program prompts the user to enter a three-digit number and determines whether the user wins according to the following rules:
1. If the user input matches the lottery number in the exact order, the award is $10,000.
2. If all the digits in the user input match all the digits in the lottery number, the award is $3,000.
3. If one digit in the user input matches a digit in the lottery number, the award is $1,000.

3.16 (Random character) Write a program that displays a random uppercase letter using the Math.random() method.

*3.17 (Game: scissor, rock, paper) Write a program that plays the popular scissor-rock-paper game. (A scissor can cut a paper, a rock can knock a scissor, and a paper can wrap a rock.) The program randomly generates a number 0, 1, or 2 representing scissor, rock, and paper. The program prompts the user to enter a number 0, 1, or 2 and displays a message indicating whether the user or the computer wins, loses, or draws. Here are sample runs:

```
scissor (0), rock (1), paper (2): 1
The computer is scissor. You are rock. You won
```

```
scissor (0), rock (1), paper (2): 2
The computer is paper. You are paper too. It is a draw
```

*3.18 (Use the input dialog box) Rewrite Listing 3.8, LeapYear.java, using the input dialog box.

**3.19 (Compute the perimeter of a triangle) Write a program that reads three edges for a triangle and computes the perimeter if the input is valid. Otherwise, display that the input is invalid. The input is valid if the sum of every pair of two edges is greater than the remaining edge.
Programming Exercises

**3.20** *(Science: wind-chill temperature)* Programming Exercise 2.17 gives a formula to compute the wind-chill temperature. The formula is valid for temperatures in the range between $-58^\circ F$ and $41^\circ F$ and wind speed greater than or equal to 2. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a temperature and a wind speed. The program displays the wind-chill temperature if the input is valid; otherwise, it displays a message indicating whether the temperature and/or wind speed is invalid.

**Comprehensive**

**3.21** *(Science: day of the week)* Zeller’s congruence is an algorithm developed by Christian Zeller to calculate the day of the week. The formula is

$$h = \left( q + \frac{26(m + 1)}{10} + k + \frac{j}{4} + 5j \right) \mod 7$$

where

- $h$ is the day of the week (0: Saturday, 1: Sunday, 2: Monday, 3: Tuesday, 4: Wednesday, 5: Thursday, 6: Friday).
- $q$ is the day of the month.
- $m$ is the month (3: March, 4: April, . . ., 12: December). January and February are counted as months 13 and 14 of the previous year.
- $j$ is the century (i.e., $\frac{\text{year}}{100}$).
- $k$ is the year of the century (i.e., $\text{year} \mod 100$).

Note that the division in the formula performs an integer division. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a year, month, and day of the month, and displays the name of the day of the week. Here are some sample runs:

Enter year: (e.g., 2012): 2015
Enter month: 1-12: 1
Enter the day of the month: 1-31: 25
Day of the week is Sunday

Enter year: (e.g., 2012): 2012
Enter month: 1-12: 5
Enter the day of the month: 1-31: 12
Day of the week is Saturday

*(Hint: January and February are counted as 13 and 14 in the formula, so you need to convert the user input 1 to 13 and 2 to 14 for the month and change the year to the previous year.)*

**3.22** *(Geometry: point in a circle?)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter a point $(x, y)$ and checks whether the point is within the circle centered at $(0, 0)$ with radius 10. For example, $(4, 5)$ is inside the circle and $(9, 9)$ is outside the circle, as shown in Figure 3.9a.
Enter a point with two coordinates: \( (9.0, 9.0) \) is not in the circle

**(3.23)** (Geometry: point in a rectangle?) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a point \((x, y)\) and checks whether the point is within the rectangle centered at \((0, 0)\) with width 10 and height 5. For example, \((2, 2)\) is inside the rectangle and \((6, 4)\) is outside the rectangle, as shown in Figure 3.9b. (Hint: A point is in the rectangle if its horizontal distance to \((0, 0)\) is less than or equal to 10 / 2 and its vertical distance to \((0, 0)\) is less than or equal to 5.0 / 2. Test your program to cover all cases.) Here are two sample runs.

**3.24** (Game: pick a card) Write a program that simulates picking a card from a deck of 52 cards. Your program should display the rank (Ace, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, Jack, Queen, King) and suit (Clubs, Diamonds, Hearts, Spades) of the card.

**3.25** (Geometry: intersecting point) Two points on line 1 are given as \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) and on line 2 as \((x_3, y_3)\) and \((x_4, y_4)\), as shown in Figure 3.10a–b.
The intersecting point of the two lines can be found by solving the following linear equation:

\[(y_1 - y_2)x - (x_1 - x_2)y = (y_1 - y_2)x_1 - (x_1 - x_2)y_1\]

\[(y_3 - y_4)x - (x_3 - x_4)y = (y_3 - y_4)x_3 - (x_3 - x_4)y_3\]

This linear equation can be solved using Cramer’s rule (see Exercise 3.3). If the equation has no solutions, the two lines are parallel (Figure 3.10c). Write a program that prompts the user to enter four points and displays the intersecting point. Here are sample runs:

```
Enter x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4: 2 2 5 -1.0 4.0 2.0 -1.0 -2.0
The intersecting point is at (2.88889, 1.1111)
```

```
Enter x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4: 2 2 7 6.0 4.0 2.0 -1.0 -2.0
The two lines are parallel
```

**3.26** *(Use the &&, || and ^ operators)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer and determines whether it is divisible by 5 and 6, whether it is divisible by 5 or 6, and whether it is divisible by 5 or 6, but not both. Here is a sample run of this program:

```
Enter an integer: 10
Is 10 divisible by 5 and 6? false
Is 10 divisible by 5 or 6? true
Is 10 divisible by 5 or 6, but not both? true
```

**3.27** *(Geometry: points in triangle?)* Suppose a right triangle is placed in a plane as shown below. The right-angle point is placed at (0, 0), and the other two points are placed at (200, 0), and (0, 100). Write a program that prompts the user to enter a point with x- and y-coordinates and determines whether the point is inside the triangle. Here are the sample runs:
**3.28** *(Geometry: two rectangles)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter the center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height of two rectangles and determines whether the second rectangle is inside the first or overlaps with the first, as shown in Figure 3.11. Test your program to cover all cases.

![Diagram of two rectangles](image)

**Figure 3.11** (a) A rectangle is inside another one. (b) A rectangle overlaps another one.

Here are the sample runs:

```
Enter r1's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 2.5 4 2.5 4.3
Enter r2's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 1.5 5 0.5 3
r2 is inside r1
```

```
Enter r1's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 1.2 3 4.5 5
Enter r2's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 3.4 4.5 5
r2 overlaps r1
```

```
Enter r1's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 1.2 3 3
Enter r2's center x-, y-coordinates, width, and height: 40 45 3 2
r2 does not overlap r1
```

**3.29** *(Geometry: two circles)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter the center coordinates and radii of two circles and determines whether the second circle is inside the first or overlaps with the first, as shown in Figure 3.12. *(Hint: circle2 is inside circle1 if the distance between the two centers <= |r1 - r2| and circle2 overlaps circle1 if the distance between the two centers <= r1 + r2. Test your program to cover all cases.)*
Here are the sample runs:

```
Enter circle1's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 0.5 5.1 13 Enter
Enter circle2's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 1 1.7 4.5 Enter
circle2 is inside circle1
```

```
Enter circle1's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 3.4 5.7 5.5 Enter
Enter circle2's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 6.7 3.5 3 Enter
circle2 overlaps circle1
```

```
Enter circle1's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 3.4 5.5 1 Enter
Enter circle2's center x-, y-coordinates, and radius: 5.5 7.2 1 Enter
circle2 does not overlap circle1
```

**3.30** *(Current time)* Revise Programming Exercise 2.8 to display the hour using a 12-hour clock. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the time zone offset to GMT: -5 Enter
The current time is 4:50:34 AM
```

**3.31** *(Financials: currency exchange)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter the exchange rate from currency in U.S. dollars to Chinese RMB. Prompt the user to enter 0 to convert from U.S. dollars to Chinese RMB and 1 to convert from Chinese RMB and U.S. dollars. Prompt the user to enter the amount in U.S. dollars or Chinese RMB to convert it to Chinese RMB or U.S. dollars, respectively. Here are the sample runs:

```
Enter the exchange rate from dollars to RMB: 6.81 Enter
Enter 0 to convert dollars to RMB and 1 vice versa: 0 Enter
Enter the dollar amount: 100 Enter
$100.0 is 681.0 yuan
```
*3.32  \textit{(Geometry: point position)} Given a directed line from point \( p_0(x_0, y_0) \) to \( p_1(x_1, y_1) \), you can use the following condition to decide whether a point \( p_2(x_2, y_2) \) is on the left of the line, on the right, or on the same line (see Figure 3.13):

\[
(x_1 - x_0)(y_2 - y_0) - (x_2 - x_0)(y_1 - y_0) = \begin{cases} >0 & \text{p2 is on the left side of the line} \\ =0 & \text{p2 is on the same line} \\ <0 & \text{p2 is on the right side of the line} \end{cases}
\]

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure3_13}
\caption{(a) p2 is on the left of the line. (b) p2 is on the right of the line. (c) p2 is on the same line.}
\end{figure}

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the three points for \( p_0, p_1, \) and \( p_2 \) and displays whether \( p_2 \) is on the left of the line from \( p_0 \) to \( p_1 \), to the right, or on the same line. Here are some sample runs:

Enter three points for \( p_0, p_1, \) and \( p_2 \): 4.4 2 6.5 9.5 -5 4
p2 is on the left side of the line

Enter three points for \( p_0, p_1, \) and \( p_2 \): 1 1 5 5 2 2
p2 is on the same line

Enter three points for \( p_0, p_1, \) and \( p_2 \): 3.4 2 6.5 9.5 5 2.5
p2 is on the right side of the line

*3.33  \textit{(Financial: compare costs)} Suppose you shop for rice in two different packages. You would like to write a program to compare the cost. The program prompts the user to enter the weight and price of each package and displays the one with the better price. Here is a sample run:
Enter weight and price for package 1: \[50 \quad 24.59\]
Enter weight and price for package 2: \[25 \quad 11.99\]
Package 1 has a better price.

*3.34*  (*Geometry: point on line segment*) Exercise 3.32 shows how to test whether a point is on an unbounded line. Revise Exercise 3.32 to test whether a point is on a line segment. Write a program that prompts the user to enter the three points for p0, p1, and p2 and displays whether p2 is on the line segment from p0 to p1. Here are some sample runs:

Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: \[1 \quad 2.5 \quad 2.5 \quad 1.5 \quad 1.5\]
(1.5, 1.5) is on the line segment from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.5, 2.5)

Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: \[1 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 2 \quad 3.5 \quad 3.5\]
(3.5, 3.5) is not on the line segment from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.0, 2.0)

*3.35*  (*Decimal to hex*) Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer between 0 and 15 and displays its corresponding hex number. Here are some sample runs:

Enter a decimal value (0 to 15): \[11\]
The hex value is B

Enter a decimal value (0 to 15): \[5\]
The hex value is 5

Enter a decimal value (0 to 15): \[31\]
Invalid input
**Objectives**

- To write programs for executing statements repeatedly using a `while` loop (§4.2).
- To follow the loop design strategy to develop loops (§§4.2.1–4.2.3).
- To control a loop with a sentinel value (§4.2.4).
- To obtain large input from a file using input redirection rather than typing from the keyboard (§4.2.5).
- To write loops using `do-while` statements (§4.3).
- To write loops using `for` statements (§4.4).
- To discover the similarities and differences of three types of loop statements (§4.5).
- To write nested loops (§4.6).
- To learn the techniques for minimizing numerical errors (§4.7).
- To learn loops from a variety of examples (`GCD`, `FutureTuition`, `MonteCarloSimulation`) (§4.8).
- To implement program control with `break` and `continue` (§4.9).
- To write a program that displays prime numbers (§4.10).
- To control a loop with a confirmation dialog (§4.11).
4.1 Introduction

A loop can be used to tell a program to execute statements repeatedly.

Suppose that you need to display a string (e.g., Welcome to Java!) a hundred times. It would be tedious to have to write the following statement a hundred times:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
}
```

So, how do you solve this problem?

Java provides a powerful construct called a loop that controls how many times an operation or a sequence of operations is performed in succession. Using a loop statement, you simply tell the computer to display a string a hundred times without having to code the print statement a hundred times, as follows:

```java
int count = 0;
while (count < 100) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    count++;
}
```

The variable `count` is initially 0. The loop checks whether `count < 100` is true. If so, it executes the loop body to display the message Welcome to Java! and increments `count` by 1. It repeatedly executes the loop body until `count < 100` becomes false. When `count < 100` is false (i.e., when `count` reaches 100), the loop terminates and the next statement after the loop statement is executed.

Loops are constructs that control repeated executions of a block of statements. The concept of looping is fundamental to programming. Java provides three types of loop statements: while loops, do-while loops, and for loops.

4.2 The while Loop

A while loop executes statements repeatedly while the condition is true.

The syntax for the while loop is:

```java
while (loop-continuation-condition) {
    // Loop body
    Statement(s);
}
```

Figure 4.1a shows the while-loop flowchart. The part of the loop that contains the statements to be repeated is called the loop body. A one-time execution of a loop body is referred to as an iteration (or repetition) of the loop. Each loop contains a loop-continuation-condition, a Boolean expression that controls the execution of the body. It is evaluated each time to determine if the loop body is executed. If its evaluation is true, the loop body is executed; if its evaluation is false, the entire loop terminates and the program control turns to the statement that follows the while loop.

The loop for displaying Welcome to Java! a hundred times introduced in the preceding section is an example of a while loop. Its flowchart is shown in Figure 4.1b. The
4.2 The `while` Loop

The `while` loop repeatedly executes the statements in the loop body when the `loop-continuation-condition` evaluates to `true`.

The `loop-continuation-condition` is `count < 100` and the loop body contains the following two statements:

```java
int count = 0;
while (count < 100) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    count++;
}
```

In this example, you know exactly how many times the loop body needs to be executed because the control variable `count` is used to count the number of executions. This type of loop is known as a `counter-controlled loop`.

**Note**

The `loop-continuation-condition` must always appear inside the parentheses. The braces enclosing the loop body can be omitted only if the loop body contains one or no statement.

Here is another example to help understand how a loop works.

```java
int sum = 0, i = 1;
while (i < 10) {
    sum = sum + i;
    i++;
}
System.out.println("sum is " + sum); // sum is 45
```

If `i < 10` is `true`, the program adds `i` to `sum`. Variable `i` is initially set to `1`, then is incremented to `2`, `3`, and up to `10`. When `i` is `10`, `i < 10` is `false`, so the loop exits. Therefore, the sum is \(1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + 9 = 45\).

What happens if the loop is mistakenly written as follows?

```java
int sum = 0, i = 1;
while (i < 10) {
    sum = sum + i;
}
```
This loop is infinite, because $i$ is always 1 and $i < 10$ will always be true.

**Note**
Make sure that the loop-continuation-condition eventually becomes false so that the loop will terminate. A common programming error involves infinite loops (i.e., the loop runs forever). If your program takes an unusually long time to run and does not stop, it may have an infinite loop. If you are running the program from the command window, press CTRL+C to stop it.

**Caution**
Programmers often make the mistake of executing a loop one more or less time. This is commonly known as the off-by-one error. For example, the following loop displays Welcome to Java 101 times rather than 100 times. The error lies in the condition, which should be $\text{count} < 100$ rather than $\text{count} \leq 100$.

```java
int count = 0;
while (count <= 100) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
    count++;
}
```

Recall that Listing 3.1, AdditionQuiz.java, gives a program that prompts the user to enter an answer for a question on addition of two single digits. Using a loop, you can now rewrite the program to let the user repeatedly enter a new answer until it is correct, as shown in Listing 4.1.

**Listing 4.1**  RepeatAdditionQuiz.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class RepeatAdditionQuiz {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int number1 = (int)(Math.random() % 10);
        int number2 = (int)(Math.random() % 10);

        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        System.out.print("What is "+number1+" + "+number2+"? ");
        int answer = input.nextInt();

        while (number1 + number2 != answer) {
            System.out.print("Wrong answer. Try again. What is "+number1+" + "+number2+"? ");
            answer = input.nextInt();
        }

        System.out.println("You got it!");
    }
}
```

What is 5 + 9? 12
Wrong answer. Try again. What is 5 + 9? 34
Wrong answer. Try again. What is 5 + 9? 14
You got it!
The loop in lines 15–19 repeatedly prompts the user to enter an answer when \( \text{number1 + number2} \neq \text{answer} \) is true. Once \( \text{number1 + number2} \neq \text{answer} \) is false, the loop exits.

### 4.2.1 Case Study: Guessing Numbers

The problem is to guess what number a computer has in mind. You will write a program that randomly generates an integer between 0 and 100, inclusive. The program prompts the user to enter a number continuously until the number matches the randomly generated number. For each user input, the program tells the user whether the input is too low or too high, so the user can make the next guess intelligently. Here is a sample run:

```
Guess a magic number between 0 and 100
Enter your guess: 50
Your guess is too high
Enter your guess: 25
Your guess is too low
Enter your guess: 42
Your guess is too high
Enter your guess: 39
Yes, the number is 39
```

The magic number is between 0 and 100. To minimize the number of guesses, enter 50 first. If your guess is too high, the magic number is between 0 and 49. If your guess is too low, the magic number is between 51 and 100. So, you can eliminate half of the numbers from further consideration after one guess.

How do you write this program? Do you immediately begin coding? No. It is important to think before coding. Think how you would solve the problem without writing a program. You need first to generate a random number between 0 and 100, inclusive, then to prompt the user to enter a guess, and then to compare the guess with the random number.

It is a good practice to code incrementally one step at a time. For programs involving loops, if you don’t know how to write a loop right away, you may first write the code for executing the loop one time, and then figure out how to repeatedly execute the code in a loop. For this program, you may create an initial draft, as shown in Listing 4.2.

### Listing 4.2 GuessNumberOneTime.java

```java
1 import java.util.Scanner;
2
3 public class GuessNumberOneTime {
4     public static void main(String[] args) {
5         // Generate a random number to be guessed
6         int number = (int)(Math.random() * 101);
7         Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
8         System.out.println("Guess a magic number between 0 and 100");
9         System.out.println("Enter your guess: ");
10        int guess = input.nextInt();
11        if (guess == number) {
12            System.out.println(\"Yes, the number is " + number);
13        } else if (guess > number) {
14            System.out.println("Your guess is too high");
15        } else {
16            System.out.println("Your guess is too low");
17        }
18    }
19}
```

```
When you run this program, it prompts the user to enter a guess only once. To let the user enter a guess repeatedly, you may put the code in lines 11–20 in a loop as follows:

```java
while (true) {
    // Prompt the user to guess the number
    System.out.print("Enter your guess: ");
    guess = input.nextInt();
    if (guess == number)
        System.out.println("Yes, the number is " + number);
    else if (guess > number)
        System.out.println("Your guess is too high");
    else
        System.out.println("Your guess is too low");
} // End of loop
```

This loop repeatedly prompts the user to enter a guess. However, this loop is not correct, because it never terminates. When `guess` matches `number`, the loop should end. So, the loop can be revised as follows:

```java
while (guess != number) {
    // Prompt the user to guess the number
    System.out.print("Enter your guess: ");
    guess = input.nextInt();
    if (guess == number)
        System.out.println("Yes, the number is " + number);
    else if (guess > number)
        System.out.println("Your guess is too high");
    else
        System.out.println("Your guess is too low");
} // End of loop
```

The complete code is given in Listing 4.3.

**Listing 4.3 GuessNumber.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class GuessNumber {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Generate a random number to be guessed
        int number = (int)(Math.random() * 101);

        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.println("Guess a magic number between 0 and 100");

        int guess = -1;
        while (guess != number) {
            // Prompt the user to guess the number
            System.out.print("Enter your guess: ");
            guess = input.nextInt();
            if (guess == number)
                System.out.println("Yes, the number is " + number);
            else if (guess > number)
                System.out.println("Your guess is too high");
            else
                System.out.println("Your guess is too low");
        } // End of loop
    }
}
```
20 System.out.println("Your guess is too high");
21 else
22 System.out.println("Your guess is too low");
23 // End of loop
24 }
25 }

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>number</th>
<th>guess</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iteration 1</td>
<td>{ 15</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Your guess is too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iteration 2</td>
<td>{ 15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Your guess is too low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iteration 3</td>
<td>{ 15</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Your guess is too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iteration 4</td>
<td>{ 15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Yes, the number is 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The program generates the magic number in line 6 and prompts the user to enter a guess continuously in a loop (lines 12–23). For each guess, the program checks whether the guess is correct, too high, or too low (lines 17–22). When the guess is correct, the program exits the loop (line 12). Note that guess is initialized to -1. Initializing it to a value between 0 and 100 would be wrong, because that could be the number to be guessed.

### 4.2.2 Loop Design Strategies

Writing a correct loop is not an easy task for novice programmers. Consider three steps when writing a loop.

- **Step 1:** Identify the statements that need to be repeated.
- **Step 2:** Wrap these statements in a loop like this:

  ```java
  while (true) {
      Statements;
  }
  ```

- **Step 3:** Code the loop-continuation-condition and add appropriate statements for controlling the loop.

  ```java
  while (loop-continuation-condition) {
      Statements;
      Additional statements for controlling the loop;
  }
  ```

### 4.2.3 Case Study: Multiple Subtraction Quiz

The Math subtraction learning tool program in Listing 3.4, SubtractionQuiz.java, generates just one question for each run. You can use a loop to generate questions repeatedly. How do you write the code to generate five questions? Follow the loop design strategy. First identify the statements that need to be repeated. These are the statements for obtaining two random numbers, prompting...
the user with a subtraction question, and grading the question. Second, wrap the statements in a loop. Third, add a loop control variable and the loop-continuation-condition to execute the loop five times.

Listing 4.4 gives a program that generates five questions and, after a student answers all five, reports the number of correct answers. The program also displays the time spent on the test and lists all the questions.

**LISTING 4.4  SubtractionQuizLoop.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SubtractionQuizLoop {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final int NUMBER_OFQUESTIONS = 5; // Number of questions
        int correctCount = 0; // Count the number of correct answers
        int count = 0; // Count the number of questions
        long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis(); // output string is initially empty
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        while (count < NUMBER_OFQUESTIONS) {
            // 1. Generate two random single-digit integers
            int number1 = (int)(Math.random() * 10);
            int number2 = (int)(Math.random() * 10);

            // 2. If number1 < number2, swap number1 with number2
            if (number1 < number2) {
                int temp = number1;
                number1 = number2;
                number2 = temp;
            }

            // 3. Prompt the student to answer "What is number1 - number2?"
            System.out.print("What is "+ number1 + " - " + number2 + "? ");
            int answer = input.nextInt();

            // 4. Grade the answer and display the result
            if (number1 - number2 == answer) {
                System.out.println("You are correct!");
                correctCount++; // Increase the correct answer count
            } else
                System.out.println("Your answer is wrong.\n" + number1 + " - " + number2 + " should be " + (number1 - number2));

            // Increase the question count
            count++;

            // Prepare output
            output += "\n" + number1 + "-" + number2 + "= " + answer +
            ((number1 - number2 == answer) ? " correct" : " wrong");

            // End loop
        }

        // Get end time
        long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
        long testTime = endTime - startTime;

        // Display result
        System.out.println("Correct count is "+ correctCount +
            "\nTest time is " + testTime / 1000 + " seconds\n" + output);
    }
}
```
4.2 The **while** Loop

The program uses the control variable `count` to control the execution of the loop. `count` is initially 0 (line 7) and is increased by 1 in each iteration (line 39). A subtraction question is displayed and processed in each iteration. The program obtains the time before the test starts in line 8 and the time after the test ends in line 45, and computes the test time in line 46. The test time is in milliseconds and is converted to seconds in line 49.

### 4.2.4 Controlling a Loop with a Sentinel Value

Another common technique for controlling a loop is to designate a special value when reading and processing a set of values. This special input value, known as a **sentinel value**, signifies the end of the input. A loop that uses a sentinel value to control its execution is called a **sentinel-controlled loop**.

Listing 4.5 writes a program that reads and calculates the sum of an unspecified number of integers. The input 0 signifies the end of the input. Do you need to declare a new variable for each input value? No. Just use one variable named `data` (line 12) to store the input value and use a variable named `sum` (line 15) to store the total. Whenever a value is read, assign it to `data` and, if it is not zero, add it to `sum` (line 17).

**LISTING 4.5** SentinelValue.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SentinelValue {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Read an initial data
        System.out.print("Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): ");
        int data = input.nextInt();
```
Chapter 4  Loops

// Keep reading data until the input is 0
int sum = 0;
while (data != 0) {
    sum += data;
    // Read the next data
    System.out.print(
        "Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): ");
    data = input.nextInt();
}
System.out.println("The sum is " + sum);

Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): 2
Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): 3
Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): 4
Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): 0
The sum is 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>data</th>
<th>sum</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If data is not 0, it is added to sum (line 17) and the next item of input data is read (lines 20–22). If data is 0, the loop body is no longer executed and the while loop terminates. The input value 0 is the sentinel value for this loop. Note that if the first input read is 0, the loop body never executes, and the resulting sum is 0.

Caution

Don’t use floating-point values for equality checking in a loop control. Because floating-point values are approximations for some values, using them could result in imprecise counter values and inaccurate results.

Consider the following code for computing 1 + 0.9 + 0.8 + ... + 0.1:

double item = 1; double sum = 0;
while (item != 0) { // No guarantee item will be 0
    sum += item;
    item -= 0.1;
}
System.out.println(sum);
Variable `item` starts with 1 and is reduced by 0.1 every time the loop body is executed. The loop should terminate when `item` becomes 0. However, there is no guarantee that `item` will be exactly 0, because the floating-point arithmetic is approximated. This loop seems okay on the surface, but it is actually an infinite loop.

### 4.2.5 Input and Output Redirections

In the preceding example, if you have a large number of data to enter, it would be cumbersome to type from the keyboard. You can store the data separated by whitespaces in a text file, say `input.txt`, and run the program using the following command:

```
java SentinelValue < input.txt
```

This command is called `input redirection`. The program takes the input from the file `input.txt` rather than having the user type the data from the keyboard at runtime. Suppose the contents of the file are

```
2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 12 23 32
23 45 67 89 92 12 34 35 3 1 2 4 0
```

The program should get `sum` to be 518.

Similarly, there is `output redirection`, which sends the output to a file rather than displaying it on the console. The command for output redirection is:

```
java ClassName > output.txt
```

Input and output redirection can be used in the same command. For example, the following command gets input from `input.txt` and sends output to `output.txt`:

```
java SentinelValue < input.txt > output.txt
```

Try running the program to see what contents are in `output.txt`.

### 4.1 Analyze the following code. Is `count < 100` always `true`, always `false`, or sometimes `true` or sometimes `false` at Point A, Point B, and Point C?

```java
int count = 0;
while (count < 100) {
    // Point A
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!\n");
    count++;
    // Point B
}
// Point C
```

### 4.2 What is wrong if `guess` is initialized to 0 in line 11 in Listing 4.3?

### 4.3 How many times are the following loop bodies repeated? What is the printout of each loop?

(a) `int i = 1;
   while (i < 10)
       if (i % 2 == 0)
           System.out.println(i);`

(b) `int i = 1;
   while (i < 10)
       if (i % 2 == 0)
           System.out.println(i++);`

(c) `int i = 1;
   while (i < 10)
       if ((i++) % 2 == 0)
           System.out.println(i);`
Suppose the input is 2 3 4 5 0. What is the output of the following code?

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        int number, max;
        number = input.nextInt();
        max = number;

        while (number != 0) {
            number = input.nextInt();
            if (number > max)
                max = number;
        }

        System.out.println("max is " + max);
        System.out.println("number " + number);
    }
}
```

What is the output of the following code? Explain the reason.

```java
int x = 80000000;
while (x > 0)
    x++;
System.out.println("x is " + x);
```

### 4.3 The do-while Loop

A do-while loop is the same as a while loop except that it executes the loop body first and then checks the loop continuation condition.

The do-while loop is a variation of the while loop. Its syntax is:

```java
do {
    // Loop body;
    Statement(s);
} while (loop-continuation-condition);
```

Its execution flowchart is shown in Figure 4.2.

The loop body is executed first, and then the loop-continuation-condition is evaluated. If the evaluation is true, the loop body is executed again; if it is false, the do-while loop terminates. The difference between a while loop and a do-while loop is the order in which the loop-continuation-condition is evaluated and the loop body executed. You can write a loop using either the while loop or the do-while loop. Sometimes one is a more convenient choice than the other. For example, you can rewrite the while loop in Listing 4.5 using a do-while loop, as shown in Listing 4.6.

### Listing 4.6 TestDoWhile.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class TestDoWhile {
    import java.util.Scanner;
    public class Test {
        public static void main(String[] args) {
            Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

            int number, max;
            number = input.nextInt();
            max = number;

            do {
                number = input.nextInt();
                if (number > max)
                    max = number;
            } while (number != 0);

            System.out.println("max is " + max);
            System.out.println("number " + number);
        }
    }
}
```
4.3 The do-while Loop

**Main method**

```java
/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    int data;
    int sum = 0;

    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

    // Keep reading data until the input is 0
    do {
        // Read the next data
        System.out.print(
            "Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0): ");
        data = input.nextInt();

        sum += data;
    } while (data != 0);

    System.out.println("The sum is " + sum);
}
```

**Enter an integer (the input ends if it is 0):**
- 3
- 5
- 6
- 0

The sum is 14

**Tip**

Use the do-while loop if you have statements inside the loop that must be executed at least once, as in the case of the do-while loop in the preceding TestDoWhile program. These statements must appear before the loop as well as inside it if you use a while loop.
4.6 Suppose the input is 2 3 4 5 0. What is the output of the following code?

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        int number, max;
        number = input.nextInt();
        max = number;

        do {
            number = input.nextInt();
            if (number > max)
                max = number;
        } while (number != 0);

        System.out.println("max is " + max);
        System.out.println("number " + number);
    }
}
```

4.7 What are the differences between a while loop and a do-while loop? Convert the following while loop into a do-while loop.

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
int sum = 0;
System.out.println("Enter an integer " + "(the input ends if it is 0)");
int number = input.nextInt();
while (number != 0) {
    sum += number;
    System.out.println("Enter an integer " + "(the input ends if it is 0)");
    number = input.nextInt();
}
```

4.4 The for Loop

A for loop has a concise syntax for writing loops.

Often you write a loop in the following common form:

```java
i = initialValue; // Initialize loop control variable
while (i < endValue) {
    // Loop body
    ...
    i++; // Adjust loop control variable
}
```

A for loop can be used to simplify the preceding loop as:

```java
for (i = initialValue; i < endValue; i++) {
    // Loop body
    ...
}
```
In general, the syntax of a for loop is:

```java
for (initial-action; loop-continuation-condition; action-after-each-iteration) {
    // Loop body;
    Statement(s);
}
```

The flowchart of the for loop is shown in Figure 4.3a.

![Flowchart of the for loop](image)

**FIGURE 4.3** A for loop performs an initial action once, then repeatedly executes the statements in the loop body, and performs an action after an iteration when the loop-continuation-condition evaluates to true.

The for loop statement starts with the keyword for, followed by a pair of parentheses enclosing the control structure of the loop. This structure consists of initial-action, loop-continuation-condition, and action-after-each-iteration. The control structure is followed by the loop body enclosed inside braces. The initial-action, loop-continuation-condition, and action-after-each-iteration are separated by semicolons.

A for loop generally uses a variable to control how many times the loop body is executed and when the loop terminates. This variable is referred to as a control variable. The initial-action often initializes a control variable, the action-after-each-iteration usually increments or decrements the control variable, and the loop-continuation-condition tests whether the control variable has reached a termination value. For example, the following for loop prints Welcome to Java! a hundred times:

```java
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
}
```
Chapter 4  Loops

The flowchart of the statement is shown in Figure 4.3b. The for loop initializes \( i \) to 0, then repeatedly executes the println statement and evaluates \( i++ \) while \( i \) is less than 100.

The initial-action, \( i = 0 \), initializes the control variable, \( i \). The loop-continuation-condition, \( i < 100 \), is a Boolean expression. The expression is evaluated right after the initialization and at the beginning of each iteration. If this condition is true, the loop body is executed. If it is false, the loop terminates and the program control turns to the line following the loop.

The action-after-each-iteration, \( i++ \), is a statement that adjusts the control variable. This statement is executed after each iteration and increments the control variable. Eventually, the value of the control variable should force the loop-continuation-condition to become false; otherwise, the loop is infinite.

The loop control variable can be declared and initialized in the for loop. Here is an example:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
}
```

If there is only one statement in the loop body, as in this example, the braces can be omitted.

Note
If the loop-continuation-condition in a for loop is omitted, it is implicitly true. Thus the statement given below in (a), which is an infinite loop, is the same as in (b). To avoid confusion, though, it is better to use the equivalent loop in (c).

Tip
The control variable must be declared inside the control structure of the loop or before the loop. If the loop control variable is used only in the loop, and not elsewhere, it is good programming practice to declare it in the initial-action of the for loop. If the variable is declared inside the loop control structure, it cannot be referenced outside the loop. In the preceding code, for example, you cannot reference \( i \) outside the for loop, because it is declared inside the for loop.

for loop variations

Note
The initial-action in a for loop can be a list of zero or more comma-separated variable declaration statements or assignment expressions. For example:

```java
for (int i = 0, j = 0; (i + j < 10); i++, j++) {
    // Do something
}
```

The action-after-each-iteration in a for loop can be a list of zero or more comma-separated statements. For example:

```java
for (int i = 1; i < 100; System.out.println(i), i++);
```

This example is correct, but it is a bad example, because it makes the code difficult to read. Normally, you declare and initialize a control variable as an initial action and increment or decrement the control variable as an action after each iteration.

Note
If the loop-continuation-condition in a for loop is omitted, it is implicitly true. Thus the statement given below in (a), which is an infinite loop, is the same as in (b). To avoid confusion, though, it is better to use the equivalent loop in (c).

```java
for (; ; ) {
    // Do something
}
```

Equivalent
```java
for (; true; ) {
    // Do something
}
```

Equivalent
```java
while (true) {
    // Do something
}
```

This is better
4.8 Do the following two loops result in the same value in `sum`?

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    sum += i;
}
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    sum += i;
}
```

4.9 What are the three parts of a `for` loop control? Write a `for` loop that prints the numbers from 1 to 100.

4.10 Suppose the input is `2 3 4 5 0`. What is the output of the following code?

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        int number, sum = 0, count;
        for (count = 0; count < 5; count++) {
            number = input.nextInt();
            sum += number;
        }

        System.out.println("sum is " + sum);
        System.out.println("count is " + count);
    }
}
```

4.11 What does the following statement do?

```
for ( ; ; ) {
    // Do something
}
```

4.12 If a variable is declared in the `for` loop control, can it be used after the loop exits?

4.13 Convert the following `for` loop statement to a `while` loop and to a `do-while` loop:

```java
long sum = 0;
for (int i = 0; i <= 1000; i++)
    sum = sum + i;
```

4.14 Count the number of iterations in the following loops.

```
int count = 0;
while (count < n) {
    count++;
}
```

```
for (int count = 0;
    count <= n; count++) {
    
}
```

```
int count = 5;
while (count < n) {
    count++;
}
```

```
int count = 5;
while (count < n) {
    count = count + 3;
}
```
4.5 Which Loop to Use?

You can use a **for** loop, a **while** loop, or a **do-while** loop, whichever is convenient.

The **while** loop and **for** loop are called **pretest loops** because the continuation condition is checked before the loop body is executed. The **do-while** loop is called a **posttest loop** because the condition is checked after the loop body is executed. The three forms of loop statements—**while**, **do-while**, and **for**—are expressively equivalent; that is, you can write a loop in any of these three forms. For example, a **while** loop in (a) in the following figure can always be converted into the **for** loop in (b).

```
while (loop-continuation-condition) {
    // Loop body
}
```

(a) Equivalent

```
for (; loop-continuation-condition; ) {
    // Loop body
}
```

(b)

A **for** loop in (a) in the next figure can generally be converted into the **while** loop in (b) except in certain special cases (see Checkpoint Question 4.23 for such a case).

```
for (initial-action; loop-continuation-condition; action-after-each-iteration) {
    // Loop body;
}
```

(a) Equivalent

```
initial-action;
while (loop-continuation-condition) {
    // Loop body;
    action-after-each-iteration;
}
```

(b)

Use the loop statement that is most intuitive and comfortable for you. In general, a **for** loop may be used if the number of repetitions is known in advance, as, for example, when you need to display a message a hundred times. A **while** loop may be used if the number of repetitions is not fixed, as in the case of reading the numbers until the input is 0. A **do-while** loop can be used to replace a **while** loop if the loop body has to be executed before the continuation condition is tested.

**Caution**

Adding a semicolon at the end of the **for** clause before the loop body is a common mistake, as shown below in (a). In (a), the semicolon signifies the end of the loop prematurely. The loop body is actually empty, as shown in (b). (a) and (b) are equivalent. Both are incorrect.

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

(a)

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

(b)

Similarly, the loop in (c) is also wrong. (c) is equivalent to (d). Both are incorrect.

```
int i = 0;
while (i < 10);
{
    System.out.println("i is "+i);
    i++;;
}
```

(c)

```
int i = 0;
while (i < 10) {};
    System.out.println("i is "+i);
    i++;;
```

(d)
These errors often occur when you use the next-line block style. Using the end-of-line block style can avoid errors of this type.

In the case of the do-while loop, the semicolon is needed to end the loop.

```
int i = 0;
do {
    System.out.println("i is "+i);
i++;
} while (i < 10);_correct
```

4.15 Can you convert a for loop to a while loop? List the advantages of using for loops.

4.16 Can you always convert a while loop into a for loop? Convert the following while loop into a for loop.

```
int i = 1;
int sum = 0;
while (sum < 10000) {
    sum = sum + i;
i++;
}
```

4.17 Identify and fix the errors in the following code:

```
public class Test {
    public void main(String[] args) {
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++);
        sum += i;
        if (i < j);
        System.out.println(i)
        else
        System.out.println(j);
        while (j < 10);
        {
            j++;
        }
        do {
            j++;
        } while (j < 10)
    }
}
```

4.18 What is wrong with the following programs?

(a)
```
public class ShowErrors {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i;
        int j = 5;
        if (j > 3)
            System.out.println(i + 4);
    }
}
```

(b)
```
public class ShowErrors {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++);
        System.out.println(i + 4);
    }
}
```
4.6 Nested Loops

A loop can be nested inside another loop.

Nested loops consist of an outer loop and one or more inner loops. Each time the outer loop is repeated, the inner loops are reentered, and started anew.

Listing 4.7 presents a program that uses nested for loops to display a multiplication table.

**Listing 4.7 MultiplicationTable.java**

```java
1 public class MultiplicationTable {
2    /* Main method */
3    public static void main(String[] args) {
4        // Display the table heading
5        System.out.println("Multiplication Table");
6
7        // Display the number title
8        System.out.print("  ");
9        for (int j = 1; j <= 9; j++)
10            System.out.print("   "+j);
11
12        System.out.println("\n--------------------------------");
13
14        // Display table body
15        for (int i = 1; i <= 9; i++) {
16            System.out.print(i + " | ");
17            for (int j = 1; j <= 9; j++) {
18                // Display the product and align properly
19                System.out.printf("%4d", i * j);
20            }
21            System.out.println();
22        }
23    }
24}
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiplication Table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The program displays a title (line 5) on the first line in the output. The first for loop (lines 9–10) displays the numbers 1 through 9 on the second line. A dashed (–) line is displayed on the third line (line 12).

The next loop (lines 15–22) is a nested for loop with the control variable i in the outer loop and j in the inner loop. For each i, the product i * j is displayed on a line in the inner loop, with j being 1, 2, 3, ..., 9.
Note
Be aware that a nested loop may take a long time to run. Consider the following loop nested in three levels:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < 10000; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < 10000; j++)
        for (int k = 0; k < 10000; k++)
            Perform an action
```

The action is performed one trillion times. If it takes 1 microsecond to perform the action, the total time to run the loop would be more than 277 hours. Note that 1 microsecond is one millionth ($10^{-6}$) of a second.

4.19 How many times is the `println` statement executed?

```java
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < i; j++)
        System.out.println(i * j)
```

4.20 Show the output of the following programs. (Hint: Draw a table and list the variables in the columns to trace these programs.)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 5;
        while (i >= 1) {
            int num = 1;
            for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
                System.out.print(num + "xxx");
                num *= 2;
            }
            System.out.println();
            i--;
        }
    }
}
```

(a)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 0;
        while (i < 5) {
            for (int j = i; j > 1; j--)
                System.out.print(j + " ");
            System.out.println("****");
            i++;
        }
    }
}
```

(b)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 1;
        do {
            int num = 1;
            for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
                System.out.print(num + "xxx");
                num *= 2;
            }
            System.out.println();
            i--;
        }
    }
}
```

(c)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 1;
        while (i <= 5) {
            int num = 1;
            for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
                System.out.print(num + "G");
                num += 2;
            }
            System.out.println();
            i++;
        }
    }
}
```

(d)
4.7 Minimizing Numeric Errors

Using floating-point numbers in the loop continuation condition may cause numeric errors.

Numeric errors involving floating-point numbers are inevitable. This section discusses how to minimize such errors through an example.

Listing 4.8 presents an example summing a series that starts with 0.01 and ends with 1.0. The numbers in the series will increment by 0.01, as follows: 0.01 + 0.02 + 0.03, and so on.

LISTING 4.8 TestSum.java

```java
public class TestSum {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Initialize sum
        float sum = 0;
        // Add 0.01, 0.02, ..., 0.99, 1 to sum
        for (float i = 0.01f; i <= 1.0f; i = i + 0.01f)
            sum += i;
        // Display result
        System.out.println("The sum is " + sum);
    }
}
```

The for loop (lines 7–8) repeatedly adds the control variable i to sum. This variable, which begins with 0.01, is incremented by 0.01 after each iteration. The loop terminates when i exceeds 1.0.

The for loop initial action can be any statement, but it is often used to initialize a control variable. From this example, you can see that a control variable can be a float type. In fact, it can be any data type.

The exact sum should be 50.50, but the answer is 50.499985. The result is imprecise because computers use a fixed number of bits to represent floating-point numbers, and thus they cannot represent some floating-point numbers exactly. If you change float in the program to double, as follows, you should see a slight improvement in precision, because a double variable holds 64 bits, whereas a float variable holds 32 bits.

```java
    double currentValue = 0.01;
    for (int count = 0; count < 100; count++) {
```

However, you will be stunned to see that the result is actually 49.50000000000003. What went wrong? If you display i for each iteration in the loop, you will see that the last i is slightly larger than 1 (not exactly 1). This causes the last i not to be added into sum. The fundamental problem is that the floating-point numbers are represented by approximation. To fix the problem, use an integer count to ensure that all the numbers are added to sum. Here is the new loop:

```java
    double currentValue = 0.01;
    for (int count = 0; count < 100; count++) {
```

The fundamental problem is that the floating-point numbers are represented by approximation. To fix the problem, use an integer count to ensure that all the numbers are added to sum. Here is the new loop:
After this loop, `sum` is **50.50000000000003**. This loop adds the numbers from smallest to biggest. What happens if you add numbers from biggest to smallest (i.e., **1.0, 0.99, 0.98, ..., 0.02, 0.01** in this order) as follows:

```java
double currentValue = 1.0;
for (int count = 0; count < 100; count++) {
    sum += currentValue;
    currentValue -= 0.01;
}
```

After this loop, `sum` is **50.49999999999995**. Adding from biggest to smallest is less accurate than adding from smallest to biggest. This phenomenon is an artifact of the finite-precision arithmetic. Adding a very small number to a very big number can have no effect if the result requires more precision than the variable can store. For example, the inaccurate result of **100000000.0 + 0.000000001** is **100000000.0**. To obtain more accurate results, carefully select the order of computation. Adding smaller numbers before bigger numbers is one way to minimize errors.

### 4.8 Case Studies

*Loops are fundamental in programming. The ability to write loops is essential in learning Java programming.*

*If you can write programs using loops, you know how to program!* For this reason, this section presents three additional examples of solving problems using loops.

#### 4.8.1 Case Study: Finding the Greatest Common Divisor

The greatest common divisor (gcd) of the two integers **4** and **2** is **2**. The greatest common divisor of the two integers **16** and **24** is **8**. How do you find the greatest common divisor? Let the two input integers be `n1` and `n2`. You know that number **1** is a common divisor, but it may not be the greatest common divisor. So, you can check whether `k` (for `k = 2, 3, 4,` and so on) is a common divisor for `n1` and `n2`, until `k` is greater than `n1` or `n2`. Store the common divisor in a variable named `gcd`. Initially, `gcd` is **1**. Whenever a new common divisor is found, it becomes the new `gcd`. When you have checked all the possible common divisors from **2** up to `n1` or `n2`, the value in variable `gcd` is the greatest common divisor. The idea can be translated into the following loop:

```java
int gcd = 1; // Initial gcd is 1
int k = 2; // Possible gcd

while (k <= n1 && k <= n2) {
    if (n1 % k == 0 && n2 % k == 0)
        gcd = k; // Update gcd
    k++; // Next possible gcd
}
// After the loop, gcd is the greatest common divisor for n1 and n2
```

Listing 4.9 presents the program that prompts the user to enter two positive integers and finds their greatest common divisor.
How would you write this program? Would you immediately begin to write the code? No. It is important to think before you type. Thinking enables you to generate a logical solution for the problem without concern about how to write the code. Once you have a logical solution, type the code to translate the solution into a Java program. The translation is not unique. For example, you could use a for loop to rewrite the code as follows:

```java
for (int k = 2; k <= n1 && k <= n2; k++) {
    if (n1 % k == 0 && n2 % k == 0)
        gcd = k; // Update gcd
    k++;
}
```

A problem often has multiple solutions, and the gcd problem can be solved in many ways. Programming Exercise 4.14 suggests another solution. A more efficient solution is to use the classic Euclidean algorithm (see www.cut-the-knot.org/blue/Euclid.shtml for more information).

```java
for (int k = 2; k <= n1 / 2 && k <= n2 / 2; k++) {
    if (n1 % k == 0 && n2 % k == 0)
        gcd = k;
}
```
This revision is wrong. Can you find the reason? See Checkpoint Question 4.21 for the answer.

### 4.8.2 Case Study: Predicting the Future Tuition

Suppose that the tuition for a university is **$10,000** this year and tuition increases **7%** every year. In how many years will the tuition be doubled?

Before you can write a program to solve this problem, first consider how to solve it by hand. The tuition for the second year is the tuition for the first year * 1.07. The tuition for a future year is the tuition of its preceding year * 1.07. Thus, the tuition for each year can be computed as follows:

```java
double tuition = 10000;  // Year 0
int year = 0;            // Year 0

tuition = tuition * 1.07; // Year 1
year++;                   // Year 1

tuition = tuition * 1.07; // Year 2
year++;                   // Year 2

tuition = tuition * 1.07; // Year 3
year++;                   // Year 3
...
```

Keep computing the tuition for a new year until it is at least **20000**. By then you will know how many years it will take for the tuition to be doubled. You can now translate the logic into the following loop:

```java
double tuition = 10000;  // Year 0
int year = 0;

while (tuition < 20000) {
    tuition = tuition * 1.07;
    year++;
}
```

The complete program is shown in Listing 4.10.

#### Listing 4.10 FutureTuition.java

```java
public class FutureTuition {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double tuition = 10000;  // Year 0
        int year = 0;

        while (tuition < 20000) {
            tuition = tuition * 1.07;
            year++;
        }

        System.out.println("Tuition will be doubled in " + year + " years");
        System.out.printf("Tuition will be $%.2f in %1d years", tuition, year);
    }
}
```

Tuition will be doubled in 11 years
Tuition will be $21048.52 in 11 years

The **while** loop (lines 5–8) is used to repeatedly compute the tuition for a new year. The loop terminates when the tuition is greater than or equal to **20000**.
4.8.3 Case Study: Monte Carlo Simulation

Monte Carlo simulation uses random numbers and probability to solve problems. This method has a wide range of applications in computational mathematics, physics, chemistry, and finance. This section gives an example of using Monte Carlo simulation for estimating $\pi$.

To estimate $\pi$ using the Monte Carlo method, draw a circle with its bounding square as shown below.

Assume the radius of the circle is 1. Therefore, the circle area is $\pi$ and the square area is 4. Randomly generate a point in the square. The probability for the point to fall in the circle is $\text{circleArea} \div \text{squareArea} = \pi \div 4$.

Write a program that randomly generates 1,000,000 points in the square and let $\text{numberOfHits}$ denote the number of points that fall in the circle. Thus, $\text{numberOfHits}$ is approximately $1000000 \times (\pi \div 4)$. $\pi$ can be approximated as $4 \times \text{numberOfHits} \div 1000000$. The complete program is shown in Listing 4.11.

**Listing 4.11 MonteCarloSimulation.java**

```java
public class MonteCarloSimulation {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final int NUMBER_OF_TRIALS = 1000000;
        int numberOfHits = 0;

        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_TRIALS; i++) {
            double x = Math.random() * 2.0 - 1;
            double y = Math.random() * 2.0 - 1;
            if (x * x + y * y <= 1) {  // check inside circle
                numberOfHits++;
            }
        }

        double pi = 4.0 * numberOfHits / NUMBER_OF_TRIALS;
        System.out.println("PI is "+ pi);
    }
}
```

The program repeatedly generates a random point $(x, y)$ in the square in lines 7–8:

```java
double x = Math.random() * 2.0 - 1;
double y = Math.random() * 2.0 - 1;
```

If $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$, the point is inside the circle and $\text{numberOfHits}$ is incremented by 1. $\pi$ is approximately $4 \times \text{numberOfHits} \div \text{NUMBER_OF_TRIALS}$ (line 13).
4.21 Will the program work if \( n_1 \) and \( n_2 \) are replaced by \( n_1 / 2 \) and \( n_2 / 2 \) in line 17 in Listing 4.9?

4.9 Keywords \texttt{break} and \texttt{continue}

\textit{The \texttt{break} and \texttt{continue} keywords provide additional controls in a loop.}

\textbf{Pedagogical Note}

Two keywords, \texttt{break} and \texttt{continue}, can be used in loop statements to provide additional controls. Using \texttt{break} and \texttt{continue} can simplify programming in some cases. Overusing or improperly using them, however, can make programs difficult to read and debug. (Note to instructors: You may skip this section without affecting students' understanding of the rest of the book.)

You have used the keyword \texttt{break} in a \texttt{switch} statement. You can also use \texttt{break} in a loop to immediately terminate the loop. Listing 4.12 presents a program to demonstrate the effect of using \texttt{break} in a loop.

**LISTING 4.12** TestBreak.java

```java
public class TestBreak {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int sum = 0;
        int number = 0;

        while (number < 20) {
            number++;
            sum += number;
            if (sum >= 100)
                break;
        }

        System.out.println("The number is " + number);
        System.out.println("The sum is " + sum);
    }
}
```

The number is 14
The sum is 105

The program in Listing 4.12 adds integers from 1 to 20 in this order to \texttt{sum} until \texttt{sum} is greater than or equal to 100. Without the \texttt{if} statement (line 9), the program calculates the sum of the numbers from 1 to 20. But with the \texttt{if} statement, the loop terminates when \texttt{sum} becomes greater than or equal to 100. Without the \texttt{if} statement, the output would be:

The number is 20
The sum is 210

You can also use the \texttt{continue} keyword in a loop. When it is encountered, it ends the current iteration and program control goes to the end of the loop body. In other words, \texttt{continue} breaks out of an iteration while the \texttt{break} keyword breaks out of a loop. Listing 4.13 presents a program to demonstrate the effect of using \texttt{continue} in a loop.
LISTING 4.13 TestContinue.java

```java
public class TestContinue {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int sum = 0;
        int number = 0;
        while (number < 20) {
            number++;
            if (number == 10 || number == 11)
                continue;
            sum += number;
        }
        System.out.println("The sum is "+ sum);
    }
}
```

The sum is 189

The program in Listing 4.13 adds integers from 1 to 20 except 10 and 11 to sum. With the if statement in the program (line 8), the continue statement is executed when number becomes 10 or 11. The continue statement ends the current iteration so that the rest of the statement in the loop body is not executed; therefore, number is not added to sum when it is 10 or 11. Without the if statement in the program, the output would be as follows:

The sum is 210

In this case, all of the numbers are added to sum, even when number is 10 or 11. Therefore, the result is 210, which is 21 more than it was with the if statement.

**Note**
The continue statement is always inside a loop. In the while and do-while loops, the loop-continuation-condition is evaluated immediately after the continue statement. In the for loop, the action-after-each-iteration is performed, then the loop-continuation-condition is evaluated, immediately after the continue statement.

You can always write a program without using break or continue in a loop (see Checkpoint Question 4.24). In general, though, using break and continue is appropriate if it simplifies coding and makes programs easier to read.

Suppose you need to write a program to find the smallest factor other than 1 for an integer n (assume n >= 2). You can write a simple and intuitive code using the break statement as follows:

```java
int factor = 2;
while (factor <= n) {
    if (n % factor == 0)
        break;
    factor++;
}
```
4.9 Keywords `break` and `continue`

You may rewrite the code without using `break` as follows:

```java
boolean found = false;
int factor = 2;
while (factor <= n && !found) {
    if (n % factor == 0)
        found = true;
    else
        factor++;
}
System.out.println("The smallest factor other than 1 for "+ n + " is " + factor);
```

Obviously, the `break` statement makes this program simpler and easier to read in this case. However, you should use `break` and `continue` with caution. Too many `break` and `continue` statements will produce a loop with many exit points and make the program difficult to read.

**Note**

Some programming languages have a `goto` statement. The `goto` statement indiscriminately transfers control to any statement in the program and executes it. This makes your program vulnerable to errors. The `break` and `continue` statements in Java are different from `goto` statements. They operate only in a loop or a `switch` statement. The `break` statement breaks out of the loop, and the `continue` statement breaks out of the current iteration in the loop.

4.22 What is the keyword `break` for? What is the keyword `continue` for? Will the following programs terminate? If so, give the output.

(a) ```java
int balance = 10;
while (true) {
    if (balance < 9)
        break;
    balance = balance - 9;
}
System.out.println("Balance is "+ balance);
```

(b) ```java
int balance = 10;
while (true) {
    if (balance < 9)
        continue;
    balance = balance - 9;
}
System.out.println("Balance is "+ balance);
```

4.23 The `for` loop on the left is converted into the `while` loop on the right. What is wrong? Correct it.

```java
for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
    if (i % 3 == 0) continue;
    sum += i;
}
```

```java
int i = 0;
while (i < 4) {
    if (i % 3 == 0) continue;
    sum += i;
    i++;
}
```
4.24 Rewrite the programs TestBreak and TestContinue in Listings 4.12 and 4.13 without using break and continue.

4.25 After the break statement in (a) is executed in the following loop, which statement is executed? Show the output. After the continue statement in (b) is executed in the following loop, which statement is executed? Show the output.

```java
for (int i = 1; i < 4; i++) {
    for (int j = 1; j < 4; j++) {
        if (i * j > 2)
            break;

        System.out.println(i * j);
    }
    System.out.println(i);
}
```

(a)

```java
for (int i = 1; i < 4; i++) {
    for (int j = 1; j < 4; j++) {
        if (i * j > 2)
            continue;

        System.out.println(i * j);
    }
    System.out.println(i);
}
```

(b)

4.10 Case Study: Displaying Prime Numbers

This section presents a program that displays the first fifty prime numbers in five lines, each containing ten numbers.

An integer greater than 1 is prime if its only positive divisor is 1 or itself. For example, 2, 3, 5, and 7 are prime numbers, but 4, 6, 8, and 9 are not.

The problem is to display the first 50 prime numbers in five lines, each of which contains ten numbers. The problem can be broken into the following tasks:

- Determine whether a given number is prime.
- For number = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ..., test whether it is prime.
- Count the prime numbers.
- Display each prime number, and display ten numbers per line.

Obviously, you need to write a loop and repeatedly test whether a new number is prime. If the number is prime, increase the count by 1. The count is 0 initially. When it reaches 50, the loop terminates.

Here is the algorithm for the problem:

Set the number of prime numbers to be printed as a constant NUMBER_OF_PRIMES;
Use count to track the number of prime numbers and set an initial count to 0;
Set an initial number to 2;

```java
while (count < NUMBER_OF_PRIMES) {
    Test whether number is prime;
    if number is prime {
        Display the prime number and increase the count;
    }
    Increment number by 1;
}
```
To test whether a number is prime, check whether it is divisible by 2, 3, 4, and so on up to \( \text{number}/2 \). If a divisor is found, the number is not a prime. The algorithm can be described as follows:

Use a boolean variable isPrime to denote whether the number is prime; Set isPrime to true initially;

```java
for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= number / 2; divisor++) {
    if (number % divisor == 0) {
        Set isPrime to false
        Exit the loop;
    }
}
```

The complete program is given in Listing 4.14.

**LISTING 4.14  PrimeNumber.java**

```java
public class PrimeNumber {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    final int NUMBER_OF_PRIMES = 50; // Number of primes to display
    final int NUMBER_OF_PRIMES_PER_LINE = 10; // Display 10 per line
    int count = 0; // Count the number of prime numbers
    int number = 2; // A number to be tested for primeness

    System.out.println("The first 50 prime numbers are \n");

    // Repeatedly find prime numbers
    while (count < NUMBER_OF_PRIMES) {
      // Assume the number is prime
      boolean isPrime = true; // Is the current number prime?

      // Test whether number is prime
      for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= number / 2; divisor++) {
        if (number % divisor == 0) { // If true, number is not prime
          isPrime = false; // Set isPrime to false
          break; // Exit the for loop
        }
      }

      // Display the prime number and increase the count
      if (isPrime) {
        count++; // Increase the count
        if (count % NUMBER_OF_PRIMES_PER_LINE == 0) {
          // Display the number and advance to the new line
          System.out.println(number);
        } else
          System.out.print(number + " ");
      }

      // Check if the next number is prime
      number++;
    }
  }
}
```
This is a complex program for novice programmers. The key to developing a programmatic solution for this problem, and for many other problems, is to break it into subproblems and develop solutions for each of them in turn. Do not attempt to develop a complete solution in the first trial. Instead, begin by writing the code to determine whether a given number is prime, then expand the program to test whether other numbers are prime in a loop.

To determine whether a number is prime, check whether it is divisible by a number between 2 and \( \text{number}/2 \) inclusive (lines 16–21). If so, it is not a prime number (line 18); otherwise, it is a prime number. For a prime number, display it. If the count is divisible by 10 (lines 27–30), advance to a new line. The program ends when the count reaches 50.

The program uses the `break` statement in line 19 to exit the `for` loop as soon as the number is found to be a nonprime. You can rewrite the loop (lines 16–21) without using the `break` statement, as follows:

```java
for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= number / 2 && isPrime; divisor++) {
    // If true, the number is not prime
    if (number % divisor == 0) {
        // Set isPrime to false, if the number is not prime
        isPrime = false;
    }
}
```

However, using the `break` statement makes the program simpler and easier to read in this case.

### 4.11 Controlling a Loop with a Confirmation Dialog

You can use a confirmation dialog to prompt the user to confirm whether to continue or exit a loop.

A sentinel-controlled loop can be implemented using a confirmation dialog. The answers Yes or No continue or terminate the loop. The template of the loop may look as follows:

```java
int option = JOptionPane.YES_OPTION;
while (option == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION) {
    System.out.println("continue loop");
    option = JOptionPane.showConfirmDialog(null, "Continue?");
}
```

Listing 4.15 rewrites Listing 4.5, SentinelValue.java, using a confirmation dialog box. A sample run is shown in Figure 4.4.

### Listing 4.15 SentinelValueUsingConfirmationDialog.java

```java
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class SentinelValueUsingConfirmationDialog {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int sum = 0;
```
// Keep reading data until the user answers No
int option = JOptionPane.YES_OPTION;
while (option == JOptionPane.YES_OPTION) {
    // Read the next data
    String dataString = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(
        "Enter an integer: ");
    int data = Integer.parseInt(dataString);

    sum += data;
}

The program displays an input dialog to prompt the user to enter an integer (line 11) and adds it to `sum` (line 15). Line 17 displays a confirmation dialog to let the user decide whether to continue the input. If the user clicks `Yes`, the loop continues; otherwise, the loop exits. Finally, the program displays the result in a message dialog box (line 20).

The `showConfirmDialog` method (line 17) returns an integer `JOptionPane.YES_OPTION, JOptionPane.NO_OPTION, or JOptionPane.CANCEL_OPTION`, if the user clicks `Yes, No, or Cancel`. The return value is assigned to the variable `option` (line 17). If this value is `JOptionPane.YES_OPTION`, the loop continues (line 9).

---

**Key Terms**

- break statement 159
- continue statement 159
- do-while loop 144
- for loop 147
- infinite loop 136
- input redirection 143
- iteration 134
- loop 134
- loop body 134
- nested loop 152
- off-by-one error 136
- output redirection 143
- posttest loop 150
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- sentinel value 141
- while loop 134
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. There are three types of repetition statements: the while loop, the do-while loop, and the for loop.

2. The part of the loop that contains the statements to be repeated is called the loop body.

3. A one-time execution of a loop body is referred to as an iteration of the loop.

4. An infinite loop is a loop statement that executes infinitely.

5. In designing loops, you need to consider both the loop control structure and the loop body.

6. The while loop checks the loop-continuation-condition first. If the condition is true, the loop body is executed; if it is false, the loop terminates.

7. The do-while loop is similar to the while loop, except that the do-while loop executes the loop body first and then checks the loop-continuation-condition to decide whether to continue or to terminate.

8. The while loop and the do-while loop often are used when the number of repetitions is not predetermined.

9. A sentinel value is a special value that signifies the end of the loop.

10. The for loop generally is used to execute a loop body a predictable number of times; this number is not determined by the loop body.

11. The for loop control has three parts. The first part is an initial action that often initializes a control variable. The second part, the loop-continuation-condition, determines whether the loop body is to be executed. The third part is executed after each iteration and is often used to adjust the control variable. Usually, the loop control variables are initialized and changed in the control structure.

12. The while loop and for loop are called pretest loops because the continuation condition is checked before the loop body is executed.

13. The do-while loop is called a posttest loop because the condition is checked after the loop body is executed.

14. Two keywords, break and continue, can be used in a loop.

15. The break keyword immediately ends the innermost loop, which contains the break.

16. The continue keyword only ends the current iteration.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Pedagogical Note
Read each problem several times until you understand it. Think how to solve the problem before starting to write code. Translate your logic into a program.

A problem often can be solved in many different ways. Students are encouraged to explore various solutions.
Sections 4.2–4.7

*4.1 (Count positive and negative numbers and compute the average of numbers) Write a program that reads an unspecified number of integers, determines how many positive and negative values have been read, and computes the total and average of the input values (not counting zeros). Your program ends with the input 0. Display the average as a floating-point number. Here is a sample run:

Enter an integer, the input ends if it is 0: 1 2 -1 3 0
The number of positives is 3
The number of negatives is 1
The total is 5
The average is 1.25

Enter an integer, the input ends if it is 0: 0
No numbers are entered except 0

4.2 (Repeat additions) Listing 4.4, SubtractionQuizLoop.java, generates five random subtraction questions. Revise the program to generate ten random addition questions for two integers between 1 and 15. Display the correct count and test time.

4.3 (Conversion from kilograms to pounds) Write a program that displays the following table (note that 1 kilogram is 2.2 pounds):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kilograms</th>
<th>Pounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>197</td>
<td>433.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>199</td>
<td>437.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 (Conversion from miles to kilometers) Write a program that displays the following table (note that 1 mile is 1.609 kilometers):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Kilometers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.090</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 (Conversion from kilograms to pounds and pounds to kilograms) Write a program that displays the following two tables side by side (note that 1 kilogram is 2.2 pounds and that 1 pound is .453 kilograms):

| Kilograms | Pounds | | Pounds | Kilograms |
|-----------|--------| |--------|----------|
| 1         | 2.2    | | 20     | 9.09     |
| 3         | 6.6    | | 25     | 11.36    |
| ...       |        | |        |          |
| 197       | 433.4  | | 510    | 231.82   |
| 199       | 437.8  | | 515    | 234.09   |
4.6 (Conversion from miles to kilometers) Write a program that displays the following two tables side by side (note that 1 mile is 1.609 kilometers and that 1 kilometer is .621 miles):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Kilometers</th>
<th>Kilometers</th>
<th>Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.609</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.218</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.481</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37.290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.090</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>40.398</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.7** (Financial application: compute future tuition) Suppose that the tuition for a university is $10,000 this year and increases 5% every year. Write a program that computes the tuition in ten years and the total cost of four years’ worth of tuition starting ten years from now.

4.8 (Find the highest score) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the number of students and each student’s name and score, and finally displays the name of the student with the highest score.

*4.9* (Find the two highest scores) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the number of students and each student’s name and score, and finally displays the student with the highest score and the student with the second-highest score.

4.10 (Find numbers divisible by 5 and 6) Write a program that displays all the numbers from 100 to 1,000, ten per line, that are divisible by 5 and 6. Numbers are separated by exactly one space.

4.11 (Find numbers divisible by 5 or 6, but not both) Write a program that displays all the numbers from 100 to 200, ten per line, that are divisible by 5 or 6, but not both. Numbers are separated by exactly one space.

4.12 (Find the smallest n such that \( n^2 > 12,000 \)) Use a while loop to find the smallest integer \( n \) such that \( n^2 \) is greater than 12,000.

4.13 (Find the largest n such that \( n^3 < 12,000 \)) Use a while loop to find the largest integer \( n \) such that \( n^3 \) is less than 12,000.

Sections 4.8–4.10

*4.14* (Compute the greatest common divisor) Another solution for Listing 4.9 to find the greatest common divisor of two integers \( n1 \) and \( n2 \) is as follows: First find \( d \) to be the minimum of \( n1 \) and \( n2 \), then check whether \( d, d-1, d-2, \ldots, 2, \) or \( 1 \) is a divisor for both \( n1 \) and \( n2 \) in this order. The first such common divisor is the greatest common divisor for \( n1 \) and \( n2 \). Write a program that prompts the user to enter two positive integers and displays the gcd.

*4.15* (Display the ASCII character table) Write a program that prints the characters in the ASCII character table from ! to ~. Display ten characters per line. The ASCII table is shown in Appendix B. Characters are separated by exactly one space.

*4.16* (Find the factors of an integer) Write a program that reads an integer and displays all its smallest factors in increasing order. For example, if the input integer is 120, the output should be as follows: 2, 2, 2, 3, 5.

**4.17** (Display pyramid) Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer from 1 to 15 and displays a pyramid, as shown in the following sample run:
**4.18** *(Display four patterns using loops)* Use nested loops that display the following patterns in four separate programs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern A</th>
<th>Pattern B</th>
<th>Pattern C</th>
<th>Pattern D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>2 1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>3 2 1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>4 3 2 1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6 5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.19** *(Display numbers in a pyramid pattern)* Write a nested *for* loop that prints the following output:

```
1
1 2 1
1 2 4 2 1
1 2 4 8 4 2 1
1 2 4 8 16 8 4 2 1
1 2 4 8 16 32 16 8 4 2 1
1 2 4 8 16 32 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
```

**4.20** *(Display prime numbers between 2 and 1,000)* Modify Listing 4.14 to display all the prime numbers between 2 and 1,000, inclusive. Display eight prime numbers per line. Numbers are separated by exactly one space.

**Comprehensive**

**4.21** *(Financial application: compare loans with various interest rates)* Write a program that lets the user enter the loan amount and loan period in number of years and displays the monthly and total payments for each interest rate starting from 5% to 8%, with an increment of 1/8. Here is a sample run:

```
Loan Amount: 10000  Enter
Number of Years: 5  Enter
Interest Rate    Monthly Payment    Total Payment
5.000%           188.71             11322.74
5.125%           189.28             11357.13
5.250%           189.85             11391.59
...              7.875%           202.17             12129.97
8.000%           202.76             12165.83
```

For the formula to compute monthly payment, see Listing 2.8, ComputeLoan.java.
**4.22** (Financial application: loan amortization schedule) The monthly payment for a given loan pays the principal and the interest. The monthly interest is computed by multiplying the monthly interest rate and the balance (the remaining principal). The principal paid for the month is therefore the monthly payment minus the monthly interest. Write a program that lets the user enter the loan amount, number of years, and interest rate and displays the amortization schedule for the loan. Here is a sample run:

```
Loan Amount: 10000
Number of Years: 1
Annual Interest Rate: 7

Monthly Payment: 865.26
Total Payment: 10383.21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Payment#</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Principal</th>
<th>Balance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>58.33</td>
<td>806.93</td>
<td>9193.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>53.62</td>
<td>811.64</td>
<td>8381.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>855.26</td>
<td>860.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>860.25</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

**Note**
The balance after the last payment may not be zero. If so, the last payment should be the normal monthly payment plus the final balance.

**Hint:** Write a loop to display the table. Since the monthly payment is the same for each month, it should be computed before the loop. The balance is initially the loan amount. For each iteration in the loop, compute the interest and principal, and update the balance. The loop may look like this:

```java
for (i = 1; i <= numberOfYears * 12; i++) {
    interest = monthlyInterestRate * balance;
    principal = monthlyPayment - interest;
    balance = balance - principal;
    System.out.println(i + "\t" + interest + "\t" + principal + "\t" + balance);
}
```

*4.23* (Obtain more accurate results) In computing the following series, you will obtain more accurate results by computing from right to left rather than from left to right:

\[
1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \ldots + \frac{1}{n}
\]

Write a program that computes the results of the summation of the preceding series from left to right and from right to left with \( n = 50000 \).

*4.24* (Sum a series) Write a program to sum the following series:

\[
\frac{1}{3} + \frac{3}{5} + \frac{5}{7} + \frac{7}{9} + \frac{9}{11} + \frac{11}{13} + \ldots + \frac{95}{97} + \frac{97}{99}
\]
**4.25** (Compute $\pi$) You can approximate $\pi$ by using the following series:

$$
\pi = 4 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \ldots + \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2i - 1} \right)
$$

Write a program that displays the $\pi$ value for $i = 10000$, 20000, ..., and 100000.

**4.26** (Compute $e$) You can approximate $e$ using the following series:

$$
e = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \ldots + \frac{1}{i!}
$$

Write a program that displays the $e$ value for $i = 10000$, 20000, ..., and 100000. (Hint: Because $i! = i \times (i - 1) \times \ldots \times 2 \times 1$, then

$$\frac{1}{i!} \text{ is } \frac{1}{i(i - 1)!}$$

Initialize $e$ and item to be 1 and keep adding a new item to $e$. The new item is the previous item divided by $i$ for $i = 2, 3, 4, \ldots$)

**4.27** (Display leap years) Write a program that displays all the leap years, ten per line, in the twenty-first century (from 2001 to 2100), separated by exactly one space.

**4.28** (Display the first days of each month) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the year and first day of the year, and displays the first day of each month in the year on the console. For example, if the user entered the year 2013, and 2 for Tuesday, January 1, 2013, your program should display the following output:

January 1, 2013 is Tuesday  
...  
December 1, 2013 is Sunday

**4.29** (Display calendars) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the year and first day of the year and displays the calendar table for the year on the console. For example, if the user entered the year 2013, and 2 for Tuesday, January 1, 2013, your program should display the calendar for each month in the year, as follows:

**January 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sun</th>
<th>Mon</th>
<th>Tue</th>
<th>Wed</th>
<th>Thu</th>
<th>Fri</th>
<th>Sat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...  

**December 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sun</th>
<th>Mon</th>
<th>Tue</th>
<th>Wed</th>
<th>Thu</th>
<th>Fri</th>
<th>Sat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Financial application: compound value) Suppose you save $100 each month into a savings account with the annual interest rate 5%. So, the monthly interest rate is \(0.05 / 12 = 0.00417\). After the first month, the value in the account becomes

\[
100 \times (1 + 0.00417) = 100.417
\]

After the second month, the value in the account becomes

\[
(100 + 100.417) \times (1 + 0.00417) = 201.252
\]

After the third month, the value in the account becomes

\[
(100 + 201.252) \times (1 + 0.00417) = 302.507
\]

and so on.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter an amount (e.g., 100), the annual interest rate (e.g., 5), and the number of months (e.g., 6) and displays the amount in the savings account after the given month.

(Financial application: compute CD value) Suppose you put $10,000 into a CD with an annual percentage yield of 5.75%. After one month, the CD is worth

\[
10000 + 10000 \times 5.75 / 1200 = 10047.91
\]

After two months, the CD is worth

\[
10047.91 + 10047.91 \times 5.75 / 1200 = 10096.06
\]

After three months, the CD is worth

\[
10096.06 + 10096.06 \times 5.75 / 1200 = 10144.43
\]

and so on.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter an amount (e.g., 10000), the annual percentage yield (e.g., 5.75), and the number of months (e.g., 18) and displays a table as shown in the sample run.

**4.32** (Game: lottery) Revise Listing 3.9, Lottery.java, to generate a lottery of a two-digit number. The two digits in the number are distinct. (Hint: Generate the first digit. Use a loop to continuously generate the second digit until it is different from the first digit.)
**4.33** (*Perfect number*) A positive integer is called a *perfect number* if it is equal to the sum of all of its positive divisors, excluding itself. For example, 6 is the first perfect number because $6 = 3 + 2 + 1$. The next is $28 = 14 + 7 + 4 + 2 + 1$. There are four perfect numbers less than 10,000. Write a program to find all these four numbers.

***4.34*** (*Game: scissor, rock, paper*) Exercise 3.17 gives a program that plays the scissor-rock-paper game. Revise the program to let the user continuously play until either the user or the computer wins more than two times.

*4.35* (*Summation*) Write a program to compute the following summation.

$$\frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{4}} + \ldots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{624} + \sqrt{625}}$$


**4.37** (*Decimal to binary*) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a decimal integer and displays its corresponding binary value. Don’t use Java’s `Integer.toBinaryString(int)` in this program.

**4.38** (*Decimal to hex*) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a decimal integer and displays its corresponding hexadecimal value. Don’t use Java’s `Integer.toHexString(int)` in this program.

*4.39* (*Financial application: find the sales amount*) You have just started a sales job in a department store. Your pay consists of a base salary and a commission. The base salary is $5,000. The scheme shown below is used to determine the commission rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sales Amount</th>
<th>Commission Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$0.01–$5,000</td>
<td>8 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5,000.01–$10,000</td>
<td>10 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10,000.01 and above</td>
<td>12 percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your goal is to earn $30,000 a year. Write a program that finds out the minimum number of sales you have to generate in order to make $30,000.

4.40 (*Simulation: heads or tails*) Write a program that simulates flipping a coin one million times and displays the number of heads and tails.

**4.41** (*Occurrence of max numbers*) Write a program that reads integers, finds the largest of them, and counts its occurrences. Assume that the input ends with number 0. Suppose that you entered 3 5 2 5 5 5 0; the program finds that the largest is 5 and the occurrence count for 5 is 4.

(*Hint: Maintain two variables, max and count. max stores the current max number, and count stores its occurrences. Initially, assign the first number to max and 1 to count. Compare each subsequent number with max. If the number is greater than max, assign it to max and reset count to 1. If the number is equal to max, increment count by 1.*)

```
Enter numbers: 3 5 2 5 5 5 0
The largest number is 5
The occurrence count of the largest number is 4
```
*4.42  (Financial application: find the sales amount) Rewrite Exercise 4.39 as follows:
   ■ Use a for loop instead of a do-while loop.
   ■ Let the user enter COMMISSION_Sought instead of fixing it as a constant.

*4.43  (Simulation: clock countdown) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the number of seconds, displays a message at every second, and terminates when the time expires. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of seconds: 3
2 seconds remaining
1 second remaining
Stopped
```

**4.44  (Monte Carlo simulation) A square is divided into four smaller regions as shown below in (a). If you throw a dart into the square 1,000,000 times, what is the probability for a dart to fall into an odd-numbered region? Write a program to simulate the process and display the result.

(Hint: Place the center of the square in the center of a coordinate system, as shown in (b). Randomly generate a point in the square and count the number of times for a point to fall into an odd-numbered region.)

![Square diagram](image)

```
(a)  
(b)  
```

*4.45  (Math: combinations) Write a program that displays all possible combinations for picking two numbers from integers 1 to 7. Also display the total number of all combinations.

```
1 2
1 3
...
...
The total number of all combinations is 21
```

*4.46  (Computer architecture: bit-level operations) A short value is stored in 16 bits. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a short integer and displays the 16 bits for the integer. Here are sample runs:

```
Enter an integer: 5
The bits are 0000000000000101
```
Enter an integer: -5
The bits are 1111111111111011

(Hint: You need to use the bitwise right shift operator (>>) and the bitwise AND operator (&), which are covered in Appendix G, Bitwise Operations.)

**4.47** (Statistics: compute mean and standard deviation) In business applications, you are often asked to compute the mean and standard deviation of data. The mean is simply the average of the numbers. The standard deviation is a statistic that tells you how tightly all the various data are clustered around the mean in a set of data. For example, what is the average age of the students in a class? How close are the ages? If all the students are the same age, the deviation is 0.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter ten numbers, and displays the mean and standard deviations of these numbers using the following formula:

$$
\text{mean} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n}{n}
$$

$$
\text{deviation} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} \right)^2 \right)}
$$

Here is a sample run:

Enter ten numbers: 1 2 3 4.5 5.6 6 7 8 9 10
The mean is 5.61
The standard deviation is 2.99794
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METHODS

Objectives

- To define methods with formal parameters (§5.2).
- To invoke methods with actual parameters (i.e., arguments) (§5.2).
- To define methods with a return value (§5.3).
- To define methods without a return value (§5.4).
- To pass arguments by value (§5.5).
- To develop reusable code that is modular, easy to read, easy to debug, and easy to maintain (§5.6).
- To write a method that converts decimals to hexadecimals (§5.7).
- To use method overloading and understand ambiguous overloading (§5.8).
- To determine the scope of variables (§5.9).
- To solve mathematics problems using the methods in the Math class (§§5.10–5.11).
- To apply the concept of method abstraction in software development (§5.12).
- To design and implement methods using stepwise refinement (§5.12).
5.1 Introduction

Methods can be used to define reusable code and organize and simplify code.

Suppose that you need to find the sum of integers from 1 to 10, from 20 to 37, and from 35 to 49, respectively. You may write the code as follows:

```java
int sum = 0;
for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
    sum += i;
System.out.println("Sum from 1 to 10 is " + sum);

sum = 0;
for (int i = 20; i <= 37; i++)
    sum += i;
System.out.println("Sum from 20 to 37 is " + sum);

sum = 0;
for (int i = 35; i <= 49; i++)
    sum += i;
System.out.println("Sum from 35 to 49 is " + sum);
```

You may have observed that computing these sums from 1 to 10, from 20 to 37, and from 35 to 49 are very similar except that the starting and ending integers are different. Wouldn’t it be nice if we could write the common code once and reuse it? We can do so by defining a method and invoking it.

```
public static int sum(int i1, int i2) {
    int result = 0;
    for (int i = i1; i <= i2; i++)
        result += i;
    return result;
}
```

Lines 1–7 define the method named `sum` with two parameters `i1` and `i2`. The statements in the `main` method invoke `sum(1, 10)` to compute the sum from 1 to 10, `sum(20, 37)` to compute the sum from 20 to 37, and `sum(35, 49)` to compute the sum from 35 to 49.

A method is a collection of statements grouped together to perform an operation. In earlier chapters you have used predefined methods such as `System.out.println`, `JOptionPane.showMessageDialog`, `System.exit`, `Math.pow`, and `Math.random`. These methods are defined in the Java library. In this chapter, you will learn how to define your own methods and apply method abstraction to solve complex problems.

5.2 Defining a Method

A method definition consists of its method name, parameters, return value type, and body.

The syntax for defining a method is:

```java
modifier returnType methodName(list of parameters) {
    // Method body;
}
```
Let’s look at a method defined to find the larger between two integers. This method, named `max`, has two `int` parameters, `num1` and `num2`, the larger of which is returned by the method. Figure 5.1 illustrates the components of this method.

![Diagram of method definition and invocation](image)

**Figure 5.1** A method definition consists of a method header and a method body.

The *method header* specifies the *modifiers*, *return value type*, *method name*, and *parameters* of the method. The *static* modifier is used for all the methods in this chapter. The reason for using it will be discussed in Chapter 8, Objects and Classes.

A method may return a value. The *returnValueType* is the data type of the value the method returns. Some methods perform desired operations without returning a value. In this case, the *returnValueType* is the keyword *void*. For example, the *returnValueType* is *void* in the *main* method, as well as in `System.exit`, `System.out.println`, and `JOptionPane.showMessageDialog`. If a method returns a value, it is called a *value-returning method*, otherwise it is called a *void method*.

The variables defined in the method header are known as *formal parameters* or simply *parameters*. A parameter is like a placeholder: When a method is invoked, you pass a value to the parameter. This value is referred to as an *actual parameter* or *argument*. The *parameter list* refers to the method’s type, order, and number of the parameters. The method name and the parameter list together constitute the *method signature*. Parameters are optional; that is, a method doesn’t have to contain any parameters. For example, the `Math.random()` method has no parameters.

The method body contains a collection of statements that implement the method. The method body of the `max` method uses an *if* statement to determine which number is larger and return the value of that number. In order for a value-returning method to return a result, a return statement using the keyword *return* is *required*. The method terminates when a return statement is executed.

**Note**

Some programming languages refer to methods as *procedures* and *functions*. In those languages, a value-returning method is called a *function* and a void method is called a *procedure*.

**Caution**

In the method header, you need to declare each parameter separately. For instance, `max(int num1, int num2)` is correct, but `max(int num1, num2)` is wrong.
Chapter 5 Methods

Note
We say “define a method” and “declare a variable.” We are making a subtle distinction here. A definition defines what the defined item is, but a declaration usually involves allocating memory to store data for the declared item.

5.3 Calling a Method

Calling a method executes the code in the method.

In a method definition, you define what the method is to do. To execute the method, you have to call or invoke it. There are two ways to call a method, depending on whether the method returns a value or not.

If a method returns a value, a call to the method is usually treated as a value. For example,

```java
int larger = max(3, 4);
```
calls `max(3, 4)` and assigns the result of the method to the variable `larger`. Another example of a call that is treated as a value is

```java
System.out.println(max(3, 4));
```
which prints the return value of the method call `max(3, 4)`.

If a method returns `void`, a call to the method must be a statement. For example, the method `println` returns `void`. The following call is a statement:

```java
System.out.println("Welcome to Java!");
```

Note
A value-returning method can also be invoked as a statement in Java. In this case, the caller simply ignores the return value. This is not often done, but it is permissible if the caller is not interested in the return value.

When a program calls a method, program control is transferred to the called method. A called method returns control to the caller when its return statement is executed or when its method-ending closing brace is reached.

Listing 5.1 shows a complete program that is used to test the `max` method.

**LISTING 5.1 TestMax.java**

```
public class TestMax {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 5;
        int j = 2;
        int k = max(i, j);
        System.out.println("The maximum of " + i + " and " + j + " is " + k);
    }

    /** Return the max of two numbers */
    public static int max(int num1, int num2) {
        int result;
        if (num1 > num2)
            result = num1;
        else
            result = num2;
        return result;
    }
}
```
5.3 Calling a Method

The maximum of 5 and 2 is 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>j</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>num1</th>
<th>num2</th>
<th>result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>undefined</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Invoking max

This program contains the main method and the max method. The main method is just like any other method except that it is invoked by the JVM to start the program.

The main method’s header is always the same. Like the one in this example, it includes the modifiers public and static, return value type void, method name main, and a parameter of the String[] type. String[] indicates that the parameter is an array of String, a subject addressed in Chapter 6.

The statements in main may invoke other methods that are defined in the class that contains the main method or in other classes. In this example, the main method invokes max(i, j), which is defined in the same class with the main method.

When the max method is invoked (line 6), variable i’s value 5 is passed to num1, and variable j’s value 2 is passed to num2 in the max method. The flow of control transfers to the max method, and the max method is executed. When the return statement in the max method is executed, the max method returns the control to its caller (in this case the caller is the main method). This process is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Caution

A return statement is required for a value-returning method. The method shown below in (a) is logically correct, but it has a compile error because the Java compiler thinks that this method might not return a value.
public static int sign(int n) {
    if (n > 0)
        return 1;
    else if (n == 0)
        return 0;
    else if (n < 0)
        return -1;
}

(public static int sign(int n) {
    if (n > 0)
        return 1;
    else if (n == 0)
        return 0;
    else
        return -1;
})

To fix this problem, delete `if (n < 0)` in (a), so the compiler will see a `return` statement to be reached regardless of how the `if` statement is evaluated.

**Note**
Methods enable code sharing and reuse. The `max` method can be invoked from any class, not just `TestMax`. If you create a new class, you can invoke the `max` method using `ClassName.methodName` (i.e., `TestMax.max`).

Each time a method is invoked, the system creates an activation record (also called an activation frame) that stores parameters and variables for the method and places the activation record in an area of memory known as a call stack. A call stack is also known as an execution stack, runtime stack, or machine stack, and it is often shortened to just “the stack.” When a method calls another method, the caller’s activation record is kept intact, and a new activation record is created for the new method called. When a method finishes its work and returns to its caller, its activation record is removed from the call stack.

A call stack stores the activation records in a last-in, first-out fashion: The activation record for the method that is invoked last is removed first from the stack. For example, suppose method `m1` calls method `m2`, and then `m3`. The runtime system pushes `m1`’s activation record into the stack, then `m2`’s, and then `m3`’s. After `m3` is finished, its activation record is removed from the stack. After `m2` is finished, its activation record is removed from the stack. After `m1` is finished, its activation record is removed from the stack.

Understanding call stacks helps you to comprehend how methods are invoked. The variables defined in the `main` method in Listing 5.1 are `i`, `j`, and `k`. The variables defined in the `max` method are `num1`, `num2`, and `result`. The variables `num1` and `num2` are defined in the method signature and are parameters of the `max` method. Their values are passed through method invocation. Figure 5.3 illustrates the activation records for method calls in the stack.

**FIGURE 5.3** When the `max` method is invoked, the flow of control transfers to the `max` method. Once the `max` method is finished, it returns control back to the caller.
5.4 **void** Method Example

*A void method does not return a value.*

The preceding section gives an example of a value-returning method. This section shows how to define and invoke a **void** method. Listing 5.2 gives a program that defines a method named `printGrade` and invokes it to print the grade for a given score.

**Listing 5.2** TestVoidMethod.java

```java
public class TestVoidMethod {

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.print("The grade is ");
        printGrade(78.5);
        System.out.print("The grade is ");
        printGrade(59.5);
    }

    public static void printGrade(double score) {
        if (score >= 90.0) {
            System.out.println('A');
        } else if (score >= 80.0) {
            System.out.println('B');
        } else if (score >= 70.0) {
            System.out.println('C');
        } else if (score >= 60.0) {
            System.out.println('D');
        } else {
            System.out.println('F');
        }
    }

    System.out.println("The grade is C");
    System.out.println("The grade is F");
}
```

The `printGrade` method is a **void** method because it does not return any value. A call to a **void** method must be a statement. Therefore, it is invoked as a statement in line 4 in the `main` method. Like any Java statement, it is terminated with a semicolon.

To see the differences between a **void** and value-returning method, let's redesign the `printGrade` method to return a value. The new method, which we call `getGrade`, returns the grade as shown in Listing 5.3.

**Listing 5.3** TestReturnGradeMethod.java

```java
public class TestReturnGradeMethod {

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.print("The grade is " + getGrade(78.5));
        System.out.print("\nThe grade is " + getGrade(59.5));
    }

    public static double getGrade(double score) {
        if (score >= 90.0) {
            return 'A';
        } else if (score >= 80.0) {
            return 'B';
        } else if (score >= 70.0) {
            return 'C';
        } else if (score >= 60.0) {
            return 'D';
        } else {
            return 'F';
        }
    }
}
```

The `getGrade` method is a value-returning method because it returns a value. Each call to a value-returning method must be made in a context in which the method result is needed.
The getGrade method defined in lines 7–18 returns a character grade based on the numeric score value. The caller invokes this method in lines 3–4.

The getGrade method can be invoked by a caller wherever a character may appear. The printGrade method does not return any value, so it must be invoked as a statement.

**Note**

A `return` statement is not needed for a `void` method, but it can be used for terminating the method and returning to the method’s caller. The syntax is simply

```
return;
```

This is not often done, but sometimes it is useful for circumventing the normal flow of control in a `void` method. For example, the following code has a return statement to terminate the method when the score is invalid.

```java
public static void printGrade(double score) {
    if (score < 0 || score > 100) {
        System.out.println("Invalid score");
        return;
    }
    if (score >= 90.0) {
        System.out.println('A');
    } else if (score >= 80.0) {
        System.out.println('B');
    } else if (score >= 70.0) {
        System.out.println('C');
    } else if (score >= 60.0) {
        System.out.println('D');
    } else {
        System.out.println('F');
    }
}
```
5.1 What are the benefits of using a method?
5.2 How do you define a method? How do you invoke a method?
5.3 How do you simplify the \texttt{max} method in Listing 5.1 using the conditional operator?
5.4 True or false? A call to a method with a \texttt{void} return type is always a statement itself, but a call to a value-returning method cannot be a statement by itself.
5.5 What is the \texttt{return} type of a \texttt{main} method?
5.6 What would be wrong with not writing a \texttt{return} statement in a value-returning method? Can you have a \texttt{return} statement in a \texttt{void} method? Does the \texttt{return} statement in the following method cause syntax errors?

\begin{verbatim}
public static void xMethod(double x, double y) {
    System.out.println(x + y);
    return x + y;
}
\end{verbatim}

5.7 Define the terms parameter, argument, and method signature.
5.8 Write method headers (not the bodies) for the following methods:
   a. Compute a sales commission, given the sales amount and the commission rate.
   b. Display the calendar for a month, given the month and year.
   c. Compute a square root of a number.
   d. Test whether a number is even, and returning \texttt{true} if it is.
   e. Display a message a specified number of times.
   f. Compute the monthly payment, given the loan amount, number of years, and annual interest rate.
   g. Find the corresponding uppercase letter, given a lowercase letter.

5.9 Identify and correct the errors in the following program:

\begin{verbatim}
public class Test {
    public static double method1(int n, m) {
        n += m;
        method2(3.4);
    }
    public static int method2(int n) {
        if (n > 0) return 1;
        else if (n == 0) return 0;
        else if (n < 0) return -1;
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

5.10 Reform the following program according to the programming style and documentation guidelines proposed in Section 1.10, Programming Style and Documentation. Use the next-line brace style.

\begin{verbatim}
public class Test {
    public static double method1(double i, double j) {
        while (i < j) {
            j--;
        }
        return j;
    }
}
\end{verbatim}
5.5 Passing Parameters by Values

*The arguments are passed by value to parameters when invoking a method.*

The power of a method is its ability to work with parameters. You can use `println` to print any string and `max` to find the maximum of any two `int` values. When calling a method, you need to provide arguments, which must be given in the same order as their respective parameters in the method signature. This is known as *parameter order association*. For example, the following method prints a message `n` times:

```java
public static void nPrintln(String message, int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        System.out.println(message);
}
```

You can use `nPrintln("Hello", 3)` to print `Hello` three times. The `nPrintln("Hello", 3)` statement passes the actual string parameter `Hello` to the parameter `message`, passes `3` to `n`, and prints `Hello` three times. However, the statement `nPrintln(3, "Hello")` would be wrong. The data type of `3` does not match the data type for the first parameter, `message`, nor does the second argument, `Hello`, match the second parameter, `n`.

**Caution**

The arguments must match the parameters in *order, number, and compatible type*, as defined in the method signature. Compatible type means that you can pass an argument to a parameter without explicit casting, such as passing an `int` value argument to a `double` value parameter.

When you invoke a method with an argument, the value of the argument is passed to the parameter. This is referred to as *pass-by-value*. If the argument is a variable rather than a literal value, the value of the variable is passed to the parameter. The variable is not affected, regardless of the changes made to the parameter inside the method. As shown in Listing 5.4, the value of `x` (1) is passed to the parameter `n` to invoke the `increment` method (line 5). The parameter `n` is incremented by 1 in the method (line 10), but `x` is not changed no matter what the method does.

**Listing 5.4 Increment.java**

```java
1  public class Increment {
2    public static void main(String[] args) {
3        int x = 1;
4        System.out.println("Before the call, x is "+x);
5        increment(x);
6        System.out.println("After the call, x is "+x);
7    }
8
9    public static void increment(int n) {
10        n++;
11        System.out.println("n inside the method is " + n);
12    }
13  }
```

*Before the call, x is 1*

*n inside the method is 2?*

*After the call, x is 1*
Listing 5.5 gives another program that demonstrates the effect of passing by value. The program creates a method for swapping two variables. The `swap` method is invoked by passing two arguments. Interestingly, the values of the arguments are not changed after the method is invoked.

**LISTING 5.5 TestPassByValue.java**

1. `public class TestPassByValue {`
2. `    /** Main method */`
3. `    public static void main(String[] args) {`
4. `        // Declare and initialize variables`
5. `        int num1 = 1;
6. `        int num2 = 2;
7. `        System.out.println("Before invoking the swap method, num1 is "+
8. `            num1 + " and num2 is "+ num2);
9. `        // Invoke the swap method to attempt to swap two variables`
10. `        swap(num1, num2);
11. `        System.out.println("After invoking the swap method, num1 is "+
12. `            num1 + " and num2 is "+ num2);`
13. `    }
14. `    }
15. `    public static void swap(int n1, int n2) {`
16. `        System.out.println("Inside the swap method");
17. `        System.out.println("Before swapping, n1 is "+ n1
18. `            + " and n2 is "+ n2);
19. `        // Swap n1 with n2`
20. `        int temp = n1;
21. `        n1 = n2;
22. `        n2 = temp;
23. `        System.out.println("After swapping, n1 is "+ n1
24. `            + " and n2 is "+ n2);`
25. `    }
26. `}

Before the `swap` method is invoked (line 12), `num1` is 1 and `num2` is 2. After the `swap` method is invoked, `num1` is still 1 and `num2` is still 2. Their values have not been swapped. As shown in Figure 5.4, the values of the arguments `num1` and `num2` are passed to `n1` and `n2`, but `n1` and `n2` have their own memory locations independent of `num1` and `num2`. Therefore, changes in `n1` and `n2` do not affect the contents of `num1` and `num2`.

Another twist is to change the parameter name `n1` in `swap` to `num1`. What effect does this have? No change occurs, because it makes no difference whether the parameter and the argument have the same name. The parameter is a variable in the method with its own memory space. The variable is allocated when the method is invoked, and it disappears when the method is returned to its caller.
Chapter 5 Methods

Note
For simplicity, Java programmers often say passing \( x \) to \( y \), which actually means passing the value of argument \( x \) to parameter \( y \).

5.11 How is an argument passed to a method? Can the argument have the same name as its parameter?

5.12 Identify and correct the errors in the following program:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        nPrintln($, "Welcome to Java!");
    }

    public static void nPrintln(String message, int n) {
        int n = 1;
        for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
            System.out.println(message);
    }
}
```

5.13 What is pass-by-value? Show the result of the following programs.

(a) 
```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int max = 0;
        max(1, 2, max);
        System.out.println(max);
    }

    public static void max(int value1, int value2, int max) {
        if (value1 > value2)
            max = value1;
        else
            max = value2;
    }
}
```

(b) 
```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 1;
        while (i <= 6) {
            method1(i, 2);
            i++;
        }
    }

    public static void method1(int i, int num) {
        for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
            System.out.print(num + " ");
            num *= 2;
        }
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```
5.6 Modularizing Code

Modularizing makes the code easy to maintain and debug and enables the code to be reused.

Methods can be used to reduce redundant code and enable code reuse. Methods can also be used to modularize code and improve the quality of the program.

Listing 4.9 gives a program that prompts the user to enter two integers and displays their greatest common divisor. You can rewrite the program using a method, as shown in Listing 5.6.

**LISTING 5.6 GreatestCommonDivisorMethod.java**

```java
public class GreatestCommonDivisorMethod {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Initialize times
        int times = 3;
        System.out.println("Before the call," + " variable times is "+ times);

        // Invoke nPrintln and display times
        nPrintln("Welcome to Java!", times);
        System.out.println("After the call," + " variable times is "+ times);
    }

    // Print the message n times
    public static void nPrintln(String message, int n) {
        while (n > 0) {
            System.out.println("n = "+ n);
            System.out.println(message);
            n--;
        }
    }
}
```

5.14 For (a) in the preceding question, show the contents of the activation records in the call stack just before the method `max` is invoked, just as `max` is entered, just before `max` is returned, and right after `max` is returned.
By encapsulating the code for obtaining the gcd in a method, this program has several advantages:

1. It isolates the problem for computing the gcd from the rest of the code in the main method. Thus, the logic becomes clear and the program is easier to read.

2. The errors on computing the gcd are confined in the gcd method, which narrows the scope of debugging.

3. The gcd method now can be reused by other programs.

Listing 5.7 applies the concept of code modularization to improve Listing 4.14, PrimeNumber.java.

**Listing 5.7 PrimeNumberMethod.java**

```java
public class PrimeNumberMethod {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("The first 50 prime numbers are \n");
        printPrimeNumbers(50);
    }

    public static void printPrimeNumbers(int numberOfPrimes) {
        final int NUMBER_OF_PRIMES_PER_LINE = 10; // Display 10 per line
        int count = 0; // Count the number of prime numbers
        int number = 2; // A number to be tested for primeness
        // Repeatedly find prime numbers
        while (count < numberOfPrimes) {
            // Print the prime number and increase the count
            if (isPrime(number)) {
                count++;
                // Increase the count
```
5.7 Case Study: Converting Decimals to Hexadecimals

This section presents a program that converts a decimal number to a hexadecimal number.

Hexadecimals are often used in computer systems programming (see Appendix F for an introduction to number systems). To convert a decimal number \( d \) to a hexadecimal number is to find the hexadecimal digits \( h_n, h_{n-1}, h_{n-2}, \ldots, h_2, h_1, \) and \( h_0 \) such that

\[
d = h_n \times 16^n + h_{n-1} \times 16^{n-1} + h_{n-2} \times 16^{n-2} + \ldots
+ h_2 \times 16^2 + h_1 \times 16^1 + h_0 \times 16^0
\]

These hexadecimal digits can be found by successively dividing \( d \) by 16 until the quotient is 0. The remainders are \( h_0, h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_{n-2}, h_{n-1}, \) and \( h_n \). The hexadecimal digits include the decimal digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, plus A, which is the decimal value 10; B, which is the decimal value 11; C, which is 12; D, which is 13; E, which is 14; and F, which is 15.

The first 50 prime numbers are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prime Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2  3  5  7  11 13 17 19 23 29 31 37 41 43 47 53 59 61 67 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73 79 83 89 97 101 103 107 109 113 127 131 137 139 149 151 157 163 167 173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>179 181 191 193 197 199 211 223 227 229</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We divided a large problem into two subproblems: determining whether a number is a prime and printing the prime numbers. As a result, the new program is easier to read and easier to debug. Moreover, the methods `printPrimeNumbers` and `isPrime` can be reused by other programs.
Chapter 5 Methods

For example, the decimal number 123 is 7B in hexadecimal. The conversion is done as follows. Divide 123 by 16. The remainder is 11 (B in hexadecimal) and the quotient is 7. Continue to divide 7 by 16. The remainder is 7 and the quotient is 0. Therefore 7B is the hexadecimal number for 123.

Listing 5.8 gives a program that prompts the user to enter a decimal number and converts it into a hex number as a string.

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Decimal2HexConversion {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a decimal number: ");
        int decimal = input.nextInt();
        System.out.println("The hex number for decimal " + decimal + " is " + decimalToHex(decimal));
    }

    public static String decimalToHex(int decimal) {
        String hex = "";
        while (decimal != 0) {
            int hexValue = decimal % 16;
            hex = toHexChar(hexValue) + hex;
            decimal = decimal / 16;
        }
        return hex;
    }

    public static char toHexChar(int hexValue) {
        if (hexValue <= 9 && hexValue >= 0)
            return (char)(hexValue + '0');
        else // hexValue <= 15 && hexValue >= 10
            return (char)(hexValue - 10 + 'A');
    }
}
```

Listing 5.8  Decimal2HexConversion.java
Enter a decimal number: 1234
The hex number for decimal 1234 is 4D2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line#</th>
<th>decimal</th>
<th>hex</th>
<th>hexValue</th>
<th>toHexChar(hexValue)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>1234</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;D2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;4D2&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The program uses the `decimalToHex` method (lines 18–28) to convert a decimal integer to a hex number as a string. The method gets the remainder of the division of the decimal integer by 16 (line 22). The remainder is converted into a character by invoking the `toHexChar` method (line 23). The character is then appended to the hex string (line 23). The hex string is initially empty (line 19). Divide the decimal number by 16 to remove a hex digit from the number (line 24). The `decimalToHex` method repeatedly performs these operations in a loop until quotient becomes 0 (lines 21–25).

The `toHexChar` method (lines 31–36) converts a `hexValue` between 0 and 15 into a hex character. If `hexValue` is between 0 and 9, it is converted to `(char)(hexValue + '0')` (line 33). Recall that when adding a character with an integer, the character’s Unicode is used in the evaluation. For example, if `hexValue` is 5, `(char)(hexValue + '0')` returns 5. Similarly, if `hexValue` is between 10 and 15, it is converted to `(char)(hexValue - 10 + 'A')` (line 35). For instance, if `hexValue` is 11, `(char)(hexValue - 10 + 'A')` returns B.

5.15 What is the return value from invoking `toHexChar(5)`? What is the return value from invoking `toHexChar(15)`?

5.16 What is the return value from invoking `decimalToHex(245)`? What is the return value from invoking `decimalToHex(3245)`?

5.8 Overloading Methods

Overloading methods enables you to define the methods with the same name as long as their signatures are different.

The `max` method that was used earlier works only with the `int` data type. But what if you need to determine which of two floating-point numbers has the maximum value? The solution is to create another method with the same name but different parameters, as shown in the following code:

```java
public static double max(double num1, double num2) {
    if (num1 > num2)
        return num1;
    else
        return num2;
}
```
If you call `max` with `int` parameters, the `max` method that expects `int` parameters will be invoked; if you call `max` with `double` parameters, the `max` method that expects `double` parameters will be invoked. This is referred to as method overloading; that is, two methods have the same name but different parameter lists within one class. The Java compiler determines which method to use based on the method signature.

Listing 5.9 is a program that creates three methods. The first finds the maximum integer, the second finds the maximum double, and the third finds the maximum among three double values. All three methods are named `max`.

**Listing 5.9  TestMethodOverloading.java**

```java
public class TestMethodOverloading {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Invoke the max method with int parameters
        System.out.println("The maximum of 3 and 4 is " + max(3, 4));

        // Invoke the max method with the double parameters
        System.out.println("The maximum of 3.0 and 5.4 is " + max(3.0, 5.4));

        // Invoke the max method with three double parameters
        System.out.println("The maximum of 3.0, 5.4, and 10.14 is " + max(3.0, 5.4, 10.14));
    }

    /** Return the max of two int values */
    public static int max(int num1, int num2) {
        if (num1 > num2)
            return num1;
        else
            return num2;
    }

    /** Find the max of two double values */
    public static double max(double num1, double num2) {
        if (num1 > num2)
            return num1;
        else
            return num2;
    }

    /** Return the max of three double values */
    public static double max(double num1, double num2, double num3) {
        return max(max(num1, num2), num3);
    }
}
```

The maximum of 3 and 4 is 4
The maximum of 3.0 and 5.4 is 5.4
The maximum of 3.0, 5.4, and 10.14 is 10.14

When calling `max(3, 4)` (line 6), the `max` method for finding the maximum of two integers is invoked. When calling `max(3.0, 5.4)` (line 10), the `max` method for finding the maximum of two doubles is invoked. When calling `max(3.0, 5.4, 10.14)` (line 14), the `max` method for finding the maximum of three double values is invoked.
Can you invoke the `max` method with an `int` value and a `double` value, such as `max(2, 2.5)`? If so, which of the `max` methods is invoked? The answer to the first question is yes. The answer to the second question is that the `max` method for finding the maximum of two `double` values is invoked. The argument value 2 is automatically converted into a `double` value and passed to this method.

You may be wondering why the method `max(double, double)` is not invoked for the call `max(3, 4)`. Both `max(double, double)` and `max(int, int)` are possible matches for `max(3, 4)`. The Java compiler finds the most specific method for a method invocation. Since the method `max(int, int)` is more specific than `max(double, double)`, `max(int, int)` is used to invoke `max(3, 4)`.

**Tip**
Overloading methods can make programs clearer and more readable. Methods that perform the same function with different types of parameters should be given the same name.

**Note**
Overloaded methods must have different parameter lists. You cannot overload methods based on different modifiers or return types.

**Note**
Sometimes there are two or more possible matches for an invocation of a method, but the compiler cannot determine the most specific match. This is referred to as ambiguous invocation. Ambiguous invocation causes a compile error. Consider the following code:

```java
public class AmbiguousOverloading {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(max(1, 2));
    }

    public static double max(int num1, double num2) {
        if (num1 > num2)
            return num1;
        else
            return num2;
    }

    public static double max(double num1, int num2) {
        if (num1 > num2)
            return num1;
        else
            return num2;
    }
}
```

Both `max(int, double)` and `max(double, int)` are possible candidates to match `max(1, 2)`. Because neither is more specific than the other, the invocation is ambiguous, resulting in a compile error.

5.17 What is method overloading? Is it permissible to define two methods that have the same name but different parameter types? Is it permissible to define two methods in a class that have identical method names and parameter lists but different return value types or different modifiers?

5.18 What is wrong in the following program?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void method(int x) {
    }
```
public static int method(int y) {
    return y;
}
}

5.19 Given two method definitions,

public static double m(double x, double y)

public static double m(int x, double y)
tell which of the two methods is invoked for:

a. double z = m(4, 5);
b. double z = m(4, 5.4);
c. double z = m(4.5, 5.4);

5.9 The Scope of Variables

The scope of a variable is the part of the program where the variable can be referenced.

Section 2.5 introduced the scope of a variable. This section discusses the scope of variables in more details. A variable defined inside a method is referred to as a local variable. The scope of a local variable starts from its declaration and continues to the end of the block that contains the variable. A local variable must be declared and assigned a value before it can be used.

A parameter is actually a local variable. The scope of a method parameter covers the entire method. A variable declared in the initial-action part of a for-loop header has its scope in the entire loop. However, a variable declared inside a for-loop body has its scope limited in the loop body from its declaration to the end of the block that contains the variable, as shown in Figure 5.5.

You can declare a local variable with the same name in different blocks in a method, but you cannot declare a local variable twice in the same block or in nested blocks, as shown in Figure 5.6.
5.10 The Math Class

The Math class contains the methods needed to perform basic mathematical functions.

You have already used the pow(a, b) method to compute \(a^b\) in Section 2.9.3, Exponent Operations, and the Math.random() method in Section 3.8, Generating Random Numbers. This section introduces other useful methods in the Math class. They can be categorized as trigonometric methods, exponent methods, and service methods. Service methods include the rounding, min, max, absolute, and random methods. In addition to methods, the Math class provides two useful double constants, PI and E (the base of natural logarithms). You can use these constants as Math.PI and Math.E in any program.

5.10.1 Trigonometric Methods

The Math class contains the following trigonometric methods:

```java
/** Return the trigonometric sine of an angle in radians */
public static double sin(double radians)

/** Return the trigonometric cosine of an angle in radians */
public static double cos(double radians)

/** Return the trigonometric tangent of an angle in radians */
public static double tan(double radians)
```

---

**Caution**

Do not declare a variable inside a block and then attempt to use it outside the block. Here is an example of a common mistake:

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

The last statement would cause a syntax error, because variable i is not defined outside of the for loop.

5.20 What is a local variable?

5.21 What is the scope of a local variable?
/** Convert the angle in degrees to an angle in radians */
public static double toRadians(double degree)

/** Convert the angle in radians to an angle in degrees */
public static double toDegrees(double radians)

/** Return the angle in radians for the inverse of sin */
public static double asin(double a)

/** Return the angle in radians for the inverse of cos */
public static double acos(double a)

/** Return the angle in radians for the inverse of tan */
public static double atan(double a)

The parameter for sin, cos, and tan is an angle in radians. The return value for asin, acos, and atan is a degree in radians in the range between $-\pi/2$ and $\pi/2$. One degree is equal to $\pi/180$ in radians, 90 degrees is equal to $\pi/2$ in radians, and 30 degrees is equal to $\pi/6$ in radians.

For example,

Math.toDegrees(Math.PI / 2) returns 90.0
Math.toRadians(30) returns 0.5236 (same as $\pi/6$)
Math.sin(0) returns 0.0
Math.sin(Math.toRadians(270)) returns -1.0
Math.sin(Math.PI / 6) returns 0.5
Math.sin(Math.PI / 2) returns 1.0
Math.cos(0) returns 1.0
Math.cos(Math.PI / 6) returns 0.866
Math.cos(Math.PI / 2) returns 0
Math.asin(0.5) returns 0.523598333 (same as $\pi/6$)

5.10.2 Exponent Methods
There are five methods related to exponents in the Math class:

/** Return e raised to the power of x (e^x) */
public static double exp(double x)

/** Return the natural logarithm of x (ln(x) = log_e(x)) */
public static double log(double x)

/** Return the base 10 logarithm of x (log_{10}(x)) */
public static double log10(double x)

/** Return a raised to the power of b (a^b) */
public static double pow(double a, double b)

/** Return the square root of x $\sqrt{x}$ for x \geq 0 */
public static double sqrt(double x)

For example,

Math.exp(1) returns 2.71828
Math.log(Math.E) returns 1.0
Math.log10(10) returns 1.0
Math.pow(2, 3) returns 8.0
Math.pow(3, 2) returns 9.0
Math.pow(3.5, 2.5) returns 22.91765
Math.sqrt(4) returns 2.0
Math.sqrt(10.5) returns 3.24

5.10.3 The Rounding Methods

The Math class contains five rounding methods:

```java
/** x is rounded up to its nearest integer. This integer is
 * returned as a double value. */
public static double ceil(double x)

/** x is rounded down to its nearest integer. This integer is
 * returned as a double value. */
public static double floor(double x)

/** x is rounded to its nearest integer. If x is equally close
 * to two integers, the even one is returned as a double. */
public static double rint(double x)

/** Return (int)Math.floor(x + 0.5). */
public static int round(float x)

/** Return (long)Math.floor(x + 0.5). */
public static long round(double x)
```

For example,

- Math.ceil(2.1) returns 3.0
- Math.ceil(2.0) returns 2.0
- Math.ceil(-2.0) returns -2.0
- Math.ceil(-2.1) returns -2.0
- Math.floor(2.1) returns 2.0
- Math.floor(2.0) returns 2.0
- Math.floor(-2.0) returns -2.0
- Math.floor(-2.1) returns -2.0
- Math.rint(2.1) returns 2.0
- Math.rint(-2.0) returns -2.0
- Math.rint(-2.1) returns -2.0
- Math.rint(2.5) returns 2.0
- Math.rint(3.5) returns 4.0
- Math.rint(-2.5) returns -2.0
- Math.round(2.6f) returns 3 // Returns int
- Math.round(2.0) returns 2 // Returns long
- Math.round(-2.0f) returns -2 // Returns int
- Math.round(-2.6) returns -3 // Returns long
- Math.round(-2.4) returns -2 // Returns long

5.10.4 The min, max, and abs Methods

The min and max methods are overloaded to return the minimum and maximum numbers of two numbers (int, long, float, or double). For example, max(3.4, 5.0) returns 5.0, and min(3, 2) returns 2.

The abs method is overloaded to return the absolute value of the number (int, long, float, or double). For example,

- Math.max(2, 3) returns 3
- Math.max(2.5, 3) returns 3.0
- Math.min(2.5, 3.6) returns 2.5
Math.abs(-2) returns 2
Math.abs(-2.1) returns 2.1

5.10.5 The random Method
You have used the random() method to generate a random double value greater than or equal to 0.0 and less than 1.0 (0 <= Math.random() < 1.0). This method is very useful. You can use it to write a simple expression to generate random numbers in any range. For example,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(int)}(\text{Math.random()} * 10) & \quad \text{Returns a random integer between 0 and 9} \\
50 + \text{(int)}(\text{Math.random()} * 50) & \quad \text{Returns a random integer between 50 and 99}
\end{align*}
\]

In general,

\[
a + \text{Math.random()} * b \quad \text{Returns a random number between a and a + b, excluding a + b}
\]

**Tip**
You can view the complete documentation for the Math class online at download.oracle.com/javase/7/docs/api, as shown in Figure 5.7.

**Note**
Not all classes need a main method. The Math class and the JOptionPane class do not have main methods. These classes contain methods for other classes to use.

**Figure 5.7** You can view the documentation for the Java API online.
5.11 Case Study: Generating Random Characters

A character is coded using an integer. Generating a random character is to generate an integer.

Computer programs process numerical data and characters. You have seen many examples that involve numerical data. It is also important to understand characters and how to process them. This section presents an example of generating random characters.

As introduced in Section 2.17, every character has a unique Unicode between 0 and FFFF in hexadecimal (65535 in decimal). To generate a random character is to generate a random integer between 0 and 65535 using the following expression (note that since 0 <= Math.random() < 1.0, you have to add 1 to 65535):

\[(\text{int})(\text{Math.random()} * (65535 + 1))\]

Now let’s consider how to generate a random lowercase letter. The Unicodes for lowercase letters are consecutive integers starting from the Unicode for a, then that for b, c, ..., and z. The Unicode for a is

\[(\text{int})'a'\]

Thus, a random integer between (int)'a' and (int)'z' is

\[(\text{int})(\text{(int)'a'} + \text{Math.random()} * ((\text{int}')z' - (\text{int})'a' + 1))\]

As discussed in Section 2.17.3, all numeric operators can be applied to the char operands. The char operand is cast into a number if the other operand is a number or a character. Therefore, the preceding expression can be simplified as follows:

\[\text{'a'} + \text{Math.random()} * ('z' - 'a' + 1)\]

and a random lowercase letter is

\[(\text{char})('a' + \text{Math.random()} * ('z' - 'a' + 1))\]
Hence, a random character between any two characters \(ch_1\) and \(ch_2\) with \(ch_1 < ch_2\) can be generated as follows:

\[
(char)(ch_1 + Math.random() \times (ch_2 - ch_1 + 1))
\]

This is a simple but useful discovery. Listing 5.10 creates a class named `RandomCharacter` with five overloaded methods to get a certain type of character randomly. You can use these methods in your future projects.

**Listing 5.10 RandomCharacter.java**

```java
public class RandomCharacter {

    /* Generate a random character between ch1 and ch2 */
    public static char getRandomCharacter(char ch1, char ch2) {
        return (char)(ch1 + Math.random() \times (ch2 - ch1 + 1));
    }

    /* Generate a random lowercase letter */
    public static char getRandomLowerCaseLetter() {
        return getRandomCharacter('a', 'z');
    }

    /* Generate a random uppercase letter */
    public static char getRandomUpperCaseLetter() {
        return getRandomCharacter('A', 'Z');
    }

    /* Generate a random digit character */
    public static char getRandomDigitCharacter() {
        return getRandomCharacter('0', '9');
    }

    /* Generate a random character */
    public static char getRandomCharacter() {
        return getRandomCharacter(' ', '￿');
    }
}
```

Listing 5.11 gives a test program that displays 175 random lowercase letters.

**Listing 5.11 TestRandomCharacter.java**

```java
public class TestRandomCharacter {

    /* Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {

        final int NUMBER_OF_CHARS = 175;
        final int CHARS_PER_LINE = 25;

        // Print random characters between 'a' and 'z', 25 chars per line
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_CHARS; i++) {
            char ch = RandomCharacter.getRandomLowerCaseLetter();
            if (((i + 1) % CHARS_PER_LINE == 0)
                System.out.println(ch);
            else
                System.out.print(ch);
        }
    }
}
```
5.12 Method Abstraction and Stepwise Refinement

The key to developing software is to apply the concept of abstraction.

You will learn many levels of abstraction from this book. Method abstraction is achieved by separating the use of a method from its implementation. The client can use a method without knowing how it is implemented. The details of the implementation are encapsulated in the method and hidden from the client who invokes the method. This is also known as information hiding or encapsulation. If you decide to change the implementation, the client program will not be affected, provided that you do not change the method signature. The implementation of the method is hidden from the client in a “black box,” as shown in Figure 5.8.

![Method Body Diagram](image)

**Figure 5.8** The method body can be thought of as a black box that contains the detailed implementation for the method.

You have already used the `System.out.print` method to display a string and the `max` method to find the maximum number. You know how to write the code to invoke these methods in your program, but as a user of these methods, you are not required to know how they are implemented.

The concept of method abstraction can be applied to the process of developing programs. When writing a large program, you can use the divide-and-conquer strategy, also known as stepwise refinement, to decompose it into subproblems. The subproblems can be further decomposed into smaller, more manageable problems.

Suppose you write a program that displays the calendar for a given month of the year. The program prompts the user to enter the year and the month, then displays the entire calendar for the month, as shown in the following sample run.
Let us use this example to demonstrate the divide-and-conquer approach.

### 5.12.1 Top-Down Design

How would you get started on such a program? Would you immediately start coding? Beginning programmers often start by trying to work out the solution to every detail. Although details are important in the final program, concern for detail in the early stages may block the problem-solving process. To make problem solving flow as smoothly as possible, this example begins by using method abstraction to isolate details from design and only later implements the details.

For this example, the problem is first broken into two subproblems: get input from the user, and print the calendar for the month. At this stage, you should be concerned with what the subproblems will achieve, not with how to get input and print the calendar for the month. You can draw a structure chart to help visualize the decomposition of the problem (see Figure 5.9a).

![Figure 5.9](image)

The structure chart shows that the `printCalendar` problem is divided into two subproblems, `readInput` and `printMonth` in (a), and that `printMonth` is divided into two smaller subproblems, `printMonthTitle` and `printMonthBody` in (b).

You can use `Scanner` to read input for the year and the month. The problem of printing the calendar for a given month can be broken into two subproblems: print the month title, and print the month body, as shown in Figure 5.9b. The month title consists of three lines: month and year, a dashed line, and the names of the seven days of the week. You need to get the month name (e.g., January) from the numeric month (e.g., 1). This is accomplished in `getMonthName` (see Figure 5.10a).

In order to print the month body, you need to know which day of the week is the first day of the month (`getStartDay`) and how many days the month has (`getNumberOfDaysInMonth`),...
as shown in Figure 5.10b. For example, December 2013 has 31 days, and December 1, 2013, is a Sunday.

How would you get the start day for the first date in a month? There are several ways to do so. For now, we’ll use an alternative approach. Assume you know that the start day for January 1, 1800, was a Wednesday ($\text{START\_DAY\_FOR\_JAN\_1\_1800} = 3$). You could compute the total number of days ($\text{totalNumberOfDays}$) between January 1, 1800, and the first date of the calendar month. The start day for the calendar month is $(\text{totalNumberOfDays} + \text{startDay1800}) \mod 7$, since every week has seven days. Thus, the $\text{getStartDay}$ problem can be further refined as $\text{getTotalNumberOfDays}$, as shown in Figure 5.11a.

To get the total number of days, you need to know whether the year is a leap year and the number of days in each month. Thus, $\text{getTotalNumberOfDays}$ can be further refined into two subproblems: $\text{isLeapYear}$ and $\text{getNumberOfDaysInMonth}$, as shown in Figure 5.11b. The complete structure chart is shown in Figure 5.12.

### 5.12.2 Top-Down and/or Bottom-Up Implementation

Now we turn our attention to implementation. In general, a subproblem corresponds to a method in the implementation, although some are so simple that this is unnecessary. You would need to decide which modules to implement as methods and which to combine in other methods. Decisions of this kind should be based on whether the overall program will be easier to read as a result of your choice. In this example, the subproblem $\text{readInput}$ can be simply implemented in the $\text{main}$ method.

You can use either a “top-down” or a “bottom-up” approach. The top-down approach implements one method in the structure chart at a time from the top to the bottom. Stubs—a simple but incomplete version of a method—can be used for the methods waiting to be implemented. The use of stubs enables you to quickly build the framework of the program. Implement the $\text{main}$ method first, then use a stub for the $\text{printMonth}$ method. For example,
FIGURE 5.12 The structure chart shows the hierarchical relationship of the subproblems in the program.

let printMonth display the year and the month in the stub. Thus, your program may begin like this:

```java
public class PrintCalendar {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter year
        System.out.print("Enter full year (e.g., 2012): ");
        int year = input.nextInt();

        // Prompt the user to enter month
        System.out.print("Enter month as a number between 1 and 12: ");
        int month = input.nextInt();

        // Print calendar for the month of the year
        printMonth(year, month);
    }

    /** A stub for printMonth may look like this */
    public static void printMonth(int year, int month) {
        System.out.print(month + " " + year);
    }

    /** A stub for printMonthTitle may look like this */
    public static void printMonthTitle(int year, int month) {
    }

    /** A stub for getMonthBody may look like this */
    public static void printMonthBody(int year, int month) {
    }
```

/** A stub for getMonthName may look like this */
public static String getMonthName(int month) {
    return "January"; // A dummy value
}

/** A stub for getStartDay may look like this */
public static int getStartDay(int year, int month) {
    return 1; // A dummy value
}

/** A stub for getTotalNumberOfDays may look like this */
public static int getTotalNumberOfDays(int year, int month) {
    return 10000; // A dummy value
}

/** A stub for getNumberOfDaysInMonth may look like this */
public static int getNumberOfDaysInMonth(int year, int month) {
    return 31; // A dummy value
}

/** A stub for isLeapYear may look like this */
public static Boolean isLeapYear(int year) {
    return true; // A dummy value
}
}

Compile and test the program, and fix any errors. You can now implement the `printMonth`
method. For methods invoked from the `printMonth` method, you can again use stubs.

The bottom-up approach implements one method in the structure chart at a time from the
bottom to the top. For each method implemented, write a test program, known as the `driver`,
to test it. The top-down and bottom-up approaches are equally good: Both approaches imple-
ment methods incrementally, help to isolate programming errors, and make debugging easy.
They can be used together.

### 5.12.3 Implementation Details

The `isLeapYear(int year)` method can be implemented using the following code from
Section 3.12:

```
return (year % 400 == 0 || (year % 4 == 0 && year % 100 != 0));
```

Use the following facts to implement `getTotalNumberOfDaysInMonth(int year, int
month)`:

- January, March, May, July, August, October, and December have 31 days.
- April, June, September, and November have 30 days.
- February has 28 days during a regular year and 29 days during a leap year. A regular
  year, therefore, has 365 days, a leap year 366 days.

To implement `getTotalNumberOfDays(int year, int month)`, you need to compute
the total number of days (`totalNumberOfDays`) between January 1, 1800, and the first
day of the calendar month. You could find the total number of days between the year 1800 and the
calendar year and then figure out the total number of days prior to the calendar month in the
calendar year. The sum of these two totals is `totalNumberOfDays`.

To print a body, first pad some space before the start day and then print the lines for every
week.

The complete program is given in Listing 5.12.
Listing 5.12  PrintCalendar.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class PrintCalendar {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter year
        System.out.print("Enter full year (e.g., 2012): ");
        int year = input.nextInt();

        // Prompt the user to enter month
        System.out.print("Enter month as a number between 1 and 12: ");
        int month = input.nextInt();

        // Print calendar for the month of the year
        printMonth(year, month);
    }

    /** Print the calendar for a month in a year */
    public static void printMonth(int year, int month) {
        // Print the headings of the calendar
        printMonthTitle(year, month);

        // Print the body of the calendar
        printMonthBody(year, month);
    }

    /** Print the month title, e.g., March 2012 */
    public static void printMonthTitle(int year, int month) {
        System.out.println("" + getMonthName(month) + "" + year);
        System.out.println("-----------------------------");
        System.out.println(" Sun Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri Sat");
    }

    /** Get the English name for the month */
    public static String getMonthName(int month) {
        String monthName = "";
        switch (month) {
            case 1: monthName = "January"; break;
            case 2: monthName = "February"; break;
            case 3: monthName = "March"; break;
            case 4: monthName = "April"; break;
            case 5: monthName = "May"; break;
            case 6: monthName = "June"; break;
            case 7: monthName = "July"; break;
            case 8: monthName = "August"; break;
            case 9: monthName = "September"; break;
            case 10: monthName = "October"; break;
            case 11: monthName = "November"; break;
            case 12: monthName = "December";
        }

        return monthName;
    }

    /** Print month body */
```
public static void printMonthBody(int year, int month) {
    // Get start day of the week for the first date in the month
    int startDay = getStartDay(year, month);

    // Get number of days in the month
    int numberOfDaysInMonth = getNumberOfDaysInMonth(year, month);

    // Pad space before the first day of the month
    int i = 0;
    for (i = 0; i < startDay; i++)
        System.out.print("    ");

    for (i = 1; i <= numberOfDaysInMonth; i++) {
        System.out.printf("%4d", i);
        if (((i + startDay) % 7 == 0))
            System.out.println();
    }
    System.out.println();
}

/** Get the start day of month/1/year */
public static int getStartDay(int year, int month) {
    final int START_DAY_FOR_JAN_1_1800 = 3;
    // Get total number of days from 1/1/1800 to month/1/year
    int totalNumberOfDays = getTotalNumberOfDays(year, month);

    // Return the start day for month/1/year
    return (totalNumberOfDays + START_DAY_FOR_JAN_1_1800) % 7;
}

/** Get the total number of days since January 1, 1800 */
public static int getTotalNumberOfDays(int year, int month) {
    int total = 0;

    // Get the total days from 1800 to 1/1/year
    for (int i = 1800; i < year; i++)
        if (isLeapYear(i))
            total = total + 366;
        else
            total = total + 365;

    // Add days from Jan to the month prior to the calendar month
    for (int i = 1; i < month; i++)
        total = total + getNumberOfDaysInMonth(year, i);

    return total;
}

/** Get the number of days in a month */
public static int getNumberOfDaysInMonth(int year, int month) {
    if (month == 1 || month == 3 || month == 5 || month == 7 ||
        month == 8 || month == 10 || month == 12)
        return 31;

    if (month == 4 || month == 6 || month == 9 || month == 11)
        return 30;

    if (month == 2) return isLeapYear(year) ? 29 : 28;
return 0; // If month is incorrect
}

/** Determine if it is a leap year */
public static boolean isLeapYear(int year) {
 return year % 400 == 0 || (year % 4 == 0 && year % 100 != 0);
}

The program does not validate user input. For instance, if the user enters either a month not in the range between 1 and 12 or a year before 1800, the program displays an erroneous calendar. To avoid this error, add an if statement to check the input before printing the calendar.

This program prints calendars for a month but could easily be modified to print calendars for a whole year. Although it can print months only after January 1800, it could be modified to print months before 1800.

5.12.4 Benefits of Stepwise Refinement
Stepwise refinement breaks a large problem into smaller manageable subproblems. Each subproblem can be implemented using a method. This approach makes the program easier to write, reuse, debug, test, modify, and maintain.

Simpler Program
The print calendar program is long. Rather than writing a long sequence of statements in one method, stepwise refinement breaks it into smaller methods. This simplifies the program and makes the whole program easier to read and understand.

Reusing Methods
Stepwise refinement promotes code reuse within a program. The isLeapYear method is defined once and invoked from the getTotalNumberOfDays and getNumberOfDayInMonth methods. This reduces redundant code.

Easier Developing, Debugging, and Testing
Since each subproblem is solved in a method, a method can be developed, debugged, and tested individually. This isolates the errors and makes developing, debugging, and testing easier.

When implementing a large program, use the top-down and/or bottom-up approach. Do not write the entire program at once. Using these approaches seems to take more development time (because you repeatedly compile and run the program), but it actually saves time and makes debugging easier.

Better Facilitating Teamwork
When a large problem is divided into subprograms, subproblems can be assigned to different programmers. This makes it easier for programmers to work in teams.

**Key Terms**
actual parameter 179
ambiguous invocation 195
argument 179
divide and conquer 203
formal parameter (i.e., parameter) 179
information hiding 203
method 178
method abstraction 203
method overloading 194
method signature 179
modifier 179
parameter 179
pass-by-value 186
scope of a variable 196
stepwise refinement 203
stub 205
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. Making programs modular and reusable is one of the central goals in software engineering. Java provides many powerful constructs that help to achieve this goal. Methods are one such construct.

2. The method header specifies the modifiers, return value type, method name, and parameters of the method. The static modifier is used for all the methods in this chapter.

3. A method may return a value. The returnType is the data type of the value the method returns. If the method does not return a value, the returnType is the keyword void.

4. The parameter list refers to the type, order, and number of a method’s parameters. The method name and the parameter list together constitute the method signature. Parameters are optional; that is, a method doesn’t need to contain any parameters.

5. A return statement can also be used in a void method for terminating the method and returning to the method’s caller. This is useful occasionally for circumventing the normal flow of control in a method.

6. The arguments that are passed to a method should have the same number, type, and order as the parameters in the method signature.

7. When a program calls a method, program control is transferred to the called method. A called method returns control to the caller when its return statement is executed or when its method-ending closing brace is reached.

8. A value-returning method can also be invoked as a statement in Java. In this case, the caller simply ignores the return value.

9. A method can be overloaded. This means that two methods can have the same name, as long as their method parameter lists differ.

10. A variable declared in a method is called a local variable. The scope of a local variable starts from its declaration and continues to the end of the block that contains the variable. A local variable must be declared and initialized before it is used.

11. Method abstraction is achieved by separating the use of a method from its implementation. The client can use a method without knowing how it is implemented. The details of the implementation are encapsulated in the method and hidden from the client who invokes the method. This is known as information hiding or encapsulation.

12. Method abstraction modularizes programs in a neat, hierarchical manner. Programs written as collections of concise methods are easier to write, debug, maintain, and modify than would otherwise be the case. This writing style also promotes method reusability.

13. When implementing a large program, use the top-down and/or bottom-up coding approach. Do not write the entire program at once. This approach may seem to take more time for coding (because you are repeatedly compiling and running the program), but it actually saves time and makes debugging easier.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.
5.1 (Math: pentagonal numbers) A pentagonal number is defined as \( n(3n-1)/2 \) for \( n = 1, 2, \ldots \), and so on. Therefore, the first few numbers are 1, 5, 12, 22, \ldots. Write a method with the following header that returns a pentagonal number:

```java
public static int getPentagonalNumber(int n)
```

Write a test program that uses this method to display the first 100 pentagonal numbers with 10 numbers on each line.

5.2 (Sum the digits in an integer) Write a method that computes the sum of the digits in an integer. Use the following method header:

```java
public static int sumDigits(long n)
```

For example, `sumDigits(234)` returns 9 (\(2 + 3 + 4\)). (Hint: Use the `%` operator to extract digits, and the `/` operator to remove the extracted digit. For instance, to extract 4 from 234, use \(234 \% 10\) (= 4). To remove 4 from 234, use \(234 / 10\) (= 23). Use a loop to repeatedly extract and remove the digit until all the digits are extracted. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an integer and displays the sum of all its digits.

5.3 (Palindrome integer) Write the methods with the following headers

```java
// Return the reversal of an integer, i.e., reverse(456) returns 654
public static int reverse(int number)

// Return true if number is a palindrome
public static boolean isPalindrome(int number)
```

Use the `reverse` method to implement `isPalindrome`. A number is a palindrome if its reversal is the same as itself. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an integer and reports whether the integer is a palindrome.

5.4 (Display an integer reversed) Write a method with the following header to display an integer in reverse order:

```java
public static void reverse(int number)
```

For example, `reverse(3456)` displays 6543. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an integer and displays its reversal.

5.5 (Sort three numbers) Write a method with the following header to display three numbers in increasing order:

```java
public static void displaySortedNumbers(double num1, double num2, double num3)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter three numbers and invokes the method to display them in increasing order.

5.6 (Display patterns) Write a method to display a pattern as follows:

```
  1
  2 1
  3 2 1
  ...
  n  n-1 ... 3 2 1
```
The method header is

```java
public static void displayPattern(int n)
```

**5.7** *(Financial application: compute the future investment value)* Write a method that computes future investment value at a given interest rate for a specified number of years. The future investment is determined using the formula in Programming Exercise 2.21.

Use the following method header:

```java
public static double futureInvestmentValue(
    double investmentAmount, double monthlyInterestRate, int years)
```

For example, `futureInvestmentValue(10000, 0.05/12, 5)` returns `12833.59`.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter the investment amount (e.g., 1000) and the interest rate (e.g., 9%) and prints a table that displays future value for the years from 1 to 30, as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Future Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1093.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1196.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>13467.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>14730.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.8** *(Conversions between Celsius and Fahrenheit)* Write a class that contains the following two methods:

```java
/** Convert from Celsius to Fahrenheit */
public static double celsiusToFahrenheit(double celsius)

/** Convert from Fahrenheit to Celsius */
public static double fahrenheitToCelsius(double fahrenheit)
```

The formula for the conversion is:

- `fahrenheit = (9.0 / 5) * celsius + 32`
- `celsius = (5.0 / 9) * (fahrenheit - 32)`

Write a test program that invokes these methods to display the following tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Celsius</th>
<th>Fahrenheit</th>
<th>Fahrenheit</th>
<th>Celsius</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>104.0</td>
<td>120.0</td>
<td>48.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>102.2</td>
<td>110.0</td>
<td>43.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.9** *(Conversions between feet and meters)* Write a class that contains the following two methods:

```java
/** Convert from feet to meters */
public static double footToMeter(double foot)
```
/** Convert from meters to feet */
public static double meterToFoot(double meter)

The formula for the conversion is:

meter = 0.305 * foot
foot = 3.279 * meter

Write a test program that invokes these methods to display the following tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Meters</th>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Meters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>65.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.610</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>81.967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>2.745</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>196.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>3.050</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>213.115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.10 (Use the isPrime Method) Listing 5.7, PrimeNumberMethod.java, provides the isPrime(int number) method for testing whether a number is prime. Use this method to find the number of prime numbers less than 10000.

5.11 (Financial application: compute commissions) Write a method that computes the commission, using the scheme in Programming Exercise 4.39. The header of the method is as follows:

public static double computeCommission(double salesAmount)

Write a test program that displays the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sales Amount</th>
<th>Commission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>900.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15000</td>
<td>1500.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95000</td>
<td>11100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100000</td>
<td>11700.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.12 (Display characters) Write a method that prints characters using the following header:

public static void printChars(char ch1, char ch2, int numberPerLine)

This method prints the characters between ch1 and ch2 with the specified numbers per line. Write a test program that prints ten characters per line from 1 to Z. Characters are separated by exactly one space.

*5.13 (Sum series) Write a method to compute the following series:

\[ m(i) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \ldots + \frac{i}{i+1} \]

Write a test program that displays the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i</th>
<th>m(i)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.4023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.3546</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**5.14** *(Estimate π)* π can be computed using the following series:

\[ m(i) = 4 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \ldots + \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2i-1} \right) \]

Write a method that returns \( m(i) \) for a given \( i \) and write a test program that displays the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( i )</th>
<th>( m(i) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>3.1515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201</td>
<td>3.1466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301</td>
<td>3.1449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401</td>
<td>3.1441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501</td>
<td>3.1436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>601</td>
<td>3.1433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>701</td>
<td>3.1430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>801</td>
<td>3.1428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>901</td>
<td>3.1427</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.15** *(Financial application: print a tax table)* Listing 3.6 gives a program to compute tax. Write a method for computing tax using the following header:

```java
public static double computetax(int status, double taxableIncome)
```

Use this method to write a program that prints a tax table for taxable income from $50,000 to $60,000 with intervals of $50 for all the following statuses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxable Income</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Married Joint or Qualifying Widow(er)</th>
<th>Married Separate</th>
<th>Head of a House</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50000</td>
<td>8688</td>
<td>6665</td>
<td>8688</td>
<td>7352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50050</td>
<td>8700</td>
<td>6673</td>
<td>8700</td>
<td>7365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59950</td>
<td>11175</td>
<td>8158</td>
<td>11175</td>
<td>9840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60000</td>
<td>11188</td>
<td>8165</td>
<td>11188</td>
<td>9852</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.16** *(Number of days in a year)* Write a method that returns the number of days in a year using the following header:

```java
public static int numberOfDaysInAYear(int year)
```

Write a test program that displays the number of days in year from 2000 to 2020.

**Sections 5.10–5.11**

**5.17** *(Display matrix of 0s and 1s)* Write a method that displays an \( n \)-by-\( n \) matrix using the following header:

```java
public static void printMatrix(int n)
```

Each element is 0 or 1, which is generated randomly. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter \( n \) and displays an \( n \)-by-\( n \) matrix. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter n: 3
0 1 0
0 0 0
1 1 1
```
5.18 *(Use the Math.sqrt method)* Write a program that prints the following table using the `sqrt` method in the `Math` class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>SquareRoot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.2426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.4721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*5.19 *(The MyTriangle class)* Create a class named `MyTriangle` that contains the following two methods:

```java
public static boolean isValid(double side1, double side2, double side3)
/** Return true if the sum of any two sides is greater than the third side. */

public static double area(double side1, double side2, double side3)
/** Return the area of the triangle. */
```

Write a test program that reads three sides for a triangle and computes the area if the input is valid. Otherwise, it displays that the input is invalid. The formula for computing the area of a triangle is given in Programming Exercise 2.15.

5.20 *(Use trigonometric methods)* Print the following table to display the `sin` value and `cos` value of degrees from 0 to 360 with increments of 10 degrees. Round the value to keep four digits after the decimal point.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Sin</th>
<th>Cos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.1736</td>
<td>0.9848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>-0.1736</td>
<td>0.9848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>360</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*5.21 *(Geometry: great circle distance)* The great circle distance is the distance between two points on the surface of a sphere. Let \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) be the geographical latitude and longitude of two points. The great circle distance between the two points can be computed using the following formula:

\[
d = radius \times \arccos(\sin(x_1) \times \sin(x_2) + \cos(x_1) \times \cos(x_2) \times \cos(y_1 - y_2))
\]

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the latitude and longitude of two points on the earth in degrees and displays its great circle distance. The average earth radius is 6,371.01 km. Note that you need to convert the degrees into radians using the `Math.toRadians` method since the Java trigonometric methods use radians. The latitude and longitude degrees in the formula are for North and West. Use negative to indicate South and East degrees. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter point 1 (latitude and longitude) in degrees:
39.55 -116.25
Enter point 2 (latitude and longitude) in degrees:
41.5 87.37
The distance between the two points is 10691.79183231593 km
```
**5.22 (Math: approximate the square root) There are several techniques for implementing the `sqrt` method in the `Math` class. One such technique is known as the Babylonian method. It approximates the square root of a number, \( n \), by repeatedly performing a calculation using the following formula:

\[
\text{nextGuess} = \frac{(\text{lastGuess} + n / \text{lastGuess})}{2}
\]

When `nextGuess` and `lastGuess` are almost identical, `nextGuess` is the approximated square root. The initial guess can be any positive value (e.g., 1). This value will be the starting value for `lastGuess`. If the difference between `nextGuess` and `lastGuess` is less than a very small number, such as 0.0001, you can claim that `nextGuess` is the approximated square root of \( n \). If not, `nextGuess` becomes `lastGuess` and the approximation process continues. Implement the following method that returns the square root of \( n \).

```java
public static double sqrt(long n)
```

**5.23 (Geometry: display angles) Write a program that prompts the user to enter three points of a triangle and displays the angles in degrees. Round the value to keep two digits after the decimal point. The formula to compute angles \( A, B, \) and \( C \) are as follows:

\[
A = \arccos\left(\frac{a^2 - b^2 - c^2}{-2bc}\right)
\]
\[
B = \arccos\left(\frac{b^2 - a^2 - c^2}{-2ac}\right)
\]
\[
C = \arccos\left(\frac{c^2 - b^2 - a^2}{-2ab}\right)
\]

Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter three points: 1 1 6.5 1 6.5 2.5
The three angles are 15.26 90.0 74.74
```

Sections 5.10–5.12

**5.24 (Display current date and time) Listing 2.6, ShowCurrentTime.java, displays the current time. Improve this example to display the current date and time. The calendar example in Listing 5.12, PrintCalendar.java, should give you some ideas on how to find the year, month, and day.

**5.25 (Convert milliseconds to hours, minutes, and seconds) Write a method that converts milliseconds to hours, minutes, and seconds using the following header:

```java
public static String convertMillis(long millis)
```

The method returns a string as `hours:minutes:seconds`. For example, `convertMillis(5500)` returns a string 0:0:5, `convertMillis(100000)` returns a string 0:1:40, and `convertMillis(555550000)` returns a string 154:19:10.
**5.26 (Palindromic prime) A palindromic prime is a prime number and also palindromic. For example, 131 is a prime and also a palindromic prime, as are 313 and 757. Write a program that displays the first 100 palindromic prime numbers. Display 10 numbers per line, separated by exactly one space, as follows:

2 3 5 7 11 101 131 151 181 191 313 353 373 383 727 757 787 797 919 929 ...  

**5.27 (Emirp) An emirp (prime spelled backward) is a nonpalindromic prime number whose reversal is also a prime. For example, 17 is a prime and 71 is a prime, so 17 and 71 are emirps. Write a program that displays the first 100 emirps. Display 10 numbers per line, separated by exactly one space, as follows:

13 17 31 37 71 73 79 97 107 113 149 157 167 179 199 311 337 347 359 389 ...  

**5.28 (Mersenne prime) A prime number is called a Mersenne prime if it can be written in the form $2^p - 1$ for some positive integer $p$. Write a program that finds all Mersenne primes with $p \leq 31$ and displays the output as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$2^p - 1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.29 (Twin primes) Twin primes are a pair of prime numbers that differ by 2. For example, 3 and 5 are twin primes, 5 and 7 are twin primes, and 11 and 13 are twin primes. Write a program to find all twin primes less than 1,000. Display the output as follows:

(3, 5)  
(5, 7)  
...  

**5.30 (Game: craps) Craps is a popular dice game played in casinos. Write a program to play a variation of the game, as follows:

Roll two dice. Each die has six faces representing values 1, 2, ..., and 6, respectively. Check the sum of the two dice. If the sum is 2, 3, or 12 (called *craps*), you lose; if the sum is 7 or 11 (called *natural*), you win; if the sum is another value (i.e., 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, or 10), a point is established. Continue to roll the dice until either a 7 or the same point value is rolled. If 7 is rolled, you lose. Otherwise, you win. Your program acts as a single player. Here are some sample runs.

You rolled 5 + 6 = 11  
You win
**5.31 (Financial: credit card number validation)** Credit card numbers follow certain patterns. A credit card number must have between 13 and 16 digits. It must start with:

- 4 for Visa cards
- 5 for Master cards
- 37 for American Express cards
- 6 for Discover cards

In 1954, Hans Luhn of IBM proposed an algorithm for validating credit card numbers. The algorithm is useful to determine whether a card number is entered correctly or whether a credit card is scanned correctly by a scanner. Credit card numbers are generated following this validity check, commonly known as the *Luhn check* or the *Mod 10 check*, which can be described as follows (for illustration, consider the card number 4388576018402626):

1. Double every second digit from right to left. If doubling of a digit results in a two-digit number, add up the two digits to get a single-digit number.

\[
\begin{align*}
4 & \rightarrow 2 \\
3 & \rightarrow 6 \\
8 & \rightarrow 16 (1 + 6 = 7) \\
8 & \rightarrow 16 (1 + 6 = 7) \\
5 & \rightarrow 10 (1 + 0 = 1) \\
2 & \rightarrow 2 \\
6 & \rightarrow 12 (1 + 2 = 3) \\
2 & \rightarrow 4 \\
1 & \rightarrow 2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

2. Now add all single-digit numbers from Step 1.

\[
4 + 4 + 8 + 2 + 3 + 1 + 7 + 8 = 37
\]

3. Add all digits in the odd places from right to left in the card number.

\[
6 + 6 + 0 + 8 + 0 + 7 + 8 + 3 = 38
\]

4. Sum the results from Step 2 and Step 3.

\[
37 + 38 = 75
\]
5. If the result from Step 4 is divisible by 10, the card number is valid; otherwise, it is invalid. For example, the number 4388576018402626 is invalid, but the number 4388576018410707 is valid.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a credit card number as a `long` integer. Display whether the number is valid or invalid. Design your program to use the following methods:

```java
/** Return true if the card number is valid */
public static boolean isValid(long number)

/** Get the result from Step 2 */
public static int sumOfDoubleEvenPlace(long number)

/** Return this number if it is a single digit, otherwise, return the sum of the two digits */
public static int getDigit(int number)

/** Return sum of odd-place digits in number */
public static int sumOfOddPlace(long number)

/** Return true if the digit d is a prefix for number */
public static boolean prefixMatched(long number, int d)

/** Return the number of digits in d */
public static int getSize(long d)

/** Return the first k number of digits from number. If the number of digits in number is less than k, return number. */
public static long getPrefix(long number, int k)
```

Here are sample runs of the program:

```
Enter a credit card number as a long integer: 4388576018410707
4388576018410707 is valid

Enter a credit card number as a long integer: 4388576018402626
4388576018402626 is invalid
```

**5.32** *(Game: chance of winning at craps)* Revise Exercise 5.30 to run it 10,000 times and display the number of winning games.

**5.33** *(Current date and time)* Invoking `System.currentTimeMillis()` returns the elapsed time in milliseconds since midnight of January 1, 1970. Write a program that displays the date and time. Here is a sample run:

```
Current date and time is May 16, 2012 10:34:23
```
**5.34** *(Print calendar)* Programming Exercise 3.21 uses Zeller’s congruence to calculate the day of the week. Simplify Listing 5.12, PrintCalendar.java, using Zeller’s algorithm to get the start day of the month.

5.35 *(Geometry: area of a pentagon)* The area of a pentagon can be computed using the following formula:

\[
Area = \frac{5 \times s^2}{4 \times \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{5}\right)}
\]

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the side of a pentagon and displays the area. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the side: 5.5
The area of the pentagon is 52.0444136781625
```

*5.36* *(Geometry: area of a regular polygon)* A regular polygon is an \(n\)-sided polygon in which all sides are of the same length and all angles have the same degree (i.e., the polygon is both equilateral and equiangular). The formula for computing the area of a regular polygon is

\[
Area = \frac{n \times s^2}{4 \times \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)}
\]

Write a method that returns the area of a regular polygon using the following header:

```
public static double area(int n, double side)
```

Write a main method that prompts the user to enter the number of sides and the side of a regular polygon and displays its area. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of sides: 5
Enter the side: 6.5
The area of the polygon is 72.69017017488385
```

5.37 *(Format an integer)* Write a method with the following header to format the integer with the specified width.

```
public static String format(int number, int width)
```

The method returns a string for the number with one or more prefix 0s. The size of the string is the width. For example, `format(34, 4)` returns `0034` and `format(34, 5)` returns `00034`. If the number is longer than the width, the method returns the string representation for the number. For example, `format(34, 1)` returns `34`. 
Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a number and its width and displays a string returned by invoking `format(number, width)`.

*5.38* (Generate random characters) Use the methods in `RandomCharacter` in Listing 5.10 to print 100 uppercase letters and then 100 single digits, printing ten per line.

5.39 (Geometry: point position) Programming Exercise 3.32 shows how to test whether a point is on the left side of a directed line, on the right, or on the same line. Write the methods with the following headers:

```java
/** Return true if point (x2, y2) is on the left side of the *   directed line from (x0, y0) to (x1, y1) */
public static boolean leftOfTheLine(double x0, double y0, double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2)

/** Return true if point (x2, y2) is on the same *   line from (x0, y0) to (x1, y1) */
public static boolean onTheSameLine(double x0, double y0, double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2)

/** Return true if point (x2, y2) is on the *   line segment from (x0, y0) to (x1, y1) */
public static boolean onTheLineSegment(double x0, double y0, double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2)
```

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the three points for `p0`, `p1`, and `p2` and displays whether `p2` is on the left of the line from `p0` to `p1`, right, the same line, or on the line segment. Here are some sample runs:

```
Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: 1 1 2 2 1.5 1.5
(1.5, 1.5) is on the line segment from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.0, 2.0)
```

```
Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: 1 1 2 2 3 3
(3.0, 3.0) is on the same line from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.0, 2.0)
```

```
Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: 1 1 2 2 1 1.5
(1.0, 1.5) is on the left side of the line
   from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.0, 2.0)
```

```
Enter three points for p0, p1, and p2: 1 1 2 2 1 -1
(1.0, -1.0) is on the right side of the line
   from (1.0, 1.0) to (2.0, 2.0)
```
Objectives

- To describe why arrays are necessary in programming (§6.1).
- To declare array reference variables and create arrays (§§6.2.1–6.2.2).
- To obtain array size using `arrayRefVar.length` and know default values in an array (§6.2.3).
- To access array elements using indexed variables (§6.2.4).
- To declare, create, and initialize an array using an array initializer (§6.2.5).
- To program common array operations (displaying arrays, summing all elements, finding the minimum and maximum elements, random shuffling, and shifting elements) (§6.2.6).
- To simplify programming using the for-each loops (§6.2.7).
- To apply arrays in application development (`LottoNumbers`, `DeckOfCards`) (§§6.3–6.4).
- To copy contents from one array to another (§6.5).
- To develop and invoke methods with array arguments and return values (§§6.6–6.8).
- To define a method with a variable-length argument list (§6.9).
- To search elements using the linear (§6.10.1) or binary (§6.10.2) search algorithm.
- To sort an array using the selection sort approach (§6.11.1).
- To sort an array using the insertion sort approach (§6.11.2).
- To use the methods in the `java.util.Arrays` class (§6.12).
6.1 Introduction

A single array variable can reference a large collection of data.

Often you will have to store a large number of values during the execution of a program. Suppose, for instance, that you need to read 100 numbers, compute their average, and find out how many numbers are above the average. Your program first reads the numbers and computes their average, then compares each number with the average to determine whether it is above the average. In order to accomplish this task, the numbers must all be stored in variables. You have to declare 100 variables and repeatedly write almost identical code 100 times. Writing a program this way would be impractical. So, how do you solve this problem?

An efficient, organized approach is needed. Java and most other high-level languages provide a data structure, the array, which stores a fixed-size sequential collection of elements of the same type. In the present case, you can store all 100 numbers into an array and access them through a single array variable. The solution may look like this:

```java
public class AnalyzeNumbers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final int NUMBER_OF_ELEMENTS = 100;
        double[] numbers = new double[NUMBER_OF_ELEMENTS];
        double sum = 0;
        java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(System.in);
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_ELEMENTS; i++) {
            System.out.print("Enter a new number: ");
            numbers[i] = input.nextDouble();
            sum += numbers[i];
        }
        double average = sum / NUMBER_OF_ELEMENTS;
        int count = 0; // The number of elements above average
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_ELEMENTS; i++)
            if (numbers[i] > average)
                count++;
        System.out.println("Average is "+average);
        System.out.println("Number of elements above the average "+count);
    }
}
```

The program creates an array of 100 elements in line 4, stores numbers into the array in line 10, adds each number to `sum` in line 11, and obtains the average in line 14. It then compares each number in the array with the average to count the number of values above the average (lines 16–19).

This chapter introduces single-dimensional arrays. The next chapter will introduce two-dimensional and multidimensional arrays.

6.2 Array Basics

Once an array is created, its size is fixed. An array reference variable is used to access the elements in an array using an index.

An array is used to store a collection of data, but often we find it more useful to think of an array as a collection of variables of the same type. Instead of declaring individual variables, such as `number0`, `number1`, ..., and `number99`, you declare one array variable such as `numbers` and use `numbers[0]`, `numbers[1]`, ..., and `numbers[99]` to represent individual variables.
This section introduces how to declare array variables, create arrays, and process arrays using indexed variables.

### 6.2.1 Declaring Array Variables

To use an array in a program, you must declare a variable to reference the array and specify the array’s element type. Here is the syntax for declaring an array variable:

```
elementType[] arrayRefVar;
```

The `elementType` can be any data type, and all elements in the array will have the same data type. For example, the following code declares a variable `myList` that references an array of double elements.

```
double[] myList;
```

**Note**

You can also use `elementType arrayRefVar[]` to declare an array variable. This style comes from the C language and was adopted in Java to accommodate C programmers. The style `elementType[] arrayRefVar` is preferred.

### 6.2.2 Creating Arrays

Unlike declarations for primitive data type variables, the declaration of an array variable does not allocate any space in memory for the array. It creates only a storage location for the reference to an array. If a variable does not contain a reference to an array, the value of the variable is `null`. You cannot assign elements to an array unless it has already been created. After an array variable is declared, you can create an array by using the `new` operator with the following syntax:

```
arrayRefVar = new elementType[arraySize];
```

This statement does two things: (1) it creates an array using `new elementType[arraySize]`; (2) it assigns the reference of the newly created array to the variable `arrayRefVar`. Declaring an array variable, creating an array, and assigning the reference of the array to the variable can be combined in one statement as:

```
elementType[] arrayRefVar = new elementType[arraySize];
```

or

```
elementType arrayRefVar[] = new elementType[arraySize];
```

Here is an example of such a statement:

```
double[] myList = new double[10];
```

This statement declares an array variable, `myList`, creates an array of ten elements of `double` type, and assigns its reference to `myList`. To assign values to the elements, use the syntax:

```
arrayRefVar[index] = value;
```

For example, the following code initializes the array.

```
myList[0] = 5.6;
myList[1] = 4.5;
myList[2] = 3.3;
myList[3] = 13.2;
```
myList[4] = 4.0;
myList[5] = 34.33;
myList[6] = 34.0;
myList[7] = 45.45;
myList[8] = 99.993;
myList[9] = 11123;

This array is illustrated in Figure 6.1.

double[] myList = new double[10];

Figure 6.1  The array myList has ten elements of double type and int indices from 0 to 9.

Note
An array variable that appears to hold an array actually contains a reference to that array. Strictly speaking, an array variable and an array are different, but most of the time the distinction can be ignored. Thus it is all right to say, for simplicity, that myList is an array, instead of stating, at greater length, that myList is a variable that contains a reference to an array of ten double elements.

6.2.3 Array Size and Default Values

When space for an array is allocated, the array size must be given, specifying the number of elements that can be stored in it. The size of an array cannot be changed after the array is created. Size can be obtained using arrayRefVar.length. For example, myList.length is 10.

When an array is created, its elements are assigned the default value of 0 for the numeric primitive data types, \u0000 for char types, and false for boolean types.

6.2.4 Array Indexed Variables

The array elements are accessed through the index. Array indices are 0 based; that is, they range from 0 to arrayRefVar.length-1. In the example in Figure 6.1, myList holds ten double values, and the indices are from 0 to 9.

Each element in the array is represented using the following syntax, known as an indexed variable:

arrayRefVar[index];

For example, myList[9] represents the last element in the array myList.

Caution
Some programming languages use parentheses to reference an array element, as in myList(9), but Java uses brackets, as in myList[9].
After an array is created, an indexed variable can be used in the same way as a regular variable. For example, the following code adds the values in myList[0] and myList[1] to myList[2].

```java
myList[2] = myList[0] + myList[1];
```

The following loop assigns 0 to myList[0], 1 to myList[1], ..., and 9 to myList[9]:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < myList.length; i++) {
    myList[i] = i;
}
```

### 6.2.5 Array Initializers

Java has a shorthand notation, known as the *array initializer*, which combines the declaration, creation, and initialization of an array in one statement using the following syntax:

```
elementType[] arrayRefVar = {value0, value1, ..., valuek};
```

For example, the statement

```java
double[] myList = {1.9, 2.9, 3.4, 3.5};
```

declares, creates, and initializes the array `myList` with four elements, which is equivalent to the following statements:

```java
double[] myList = new double[4];
myList[0] = 1.9;
myList[1] = 2.9;
myList[2] = 3.4;
myList[3] = 3.5;
```

**Caution**

The `new` operator is not used in the array-initializer syntax. Using an array initializer, you have to declare, create, and initialize the array all in one statement. Splitting it would cause a syntax error. Thus, the next statement is wrong:

```java
double[] myList;
myList = {1.9, 2.9, 3.4, 3.5};
```

### 6.2.6 Processing Arrays

When processing array elements, you will often use a `for` loop—for two reasons:

- All of the elements in an array are of the same type. They are evenly processed in the same fashion repeatedly using a loop.
- Since the size of the array is known, it is natural to use a `for` loop.

Assume the array is created as follows:

```java
double[] myList = new double[10];
```

The following are some examples of processing arrays.

1. **Initializing arrays with input values**: The following loop initializes the array `myList` with user input values.

```java
java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(System.in);
System.out.print("Enter "+myList.length+" values: ");
for (int i = 0; i < myList.length; i++)
    myList[i] = input.nextDouble();
```
2. Initializing arrays with random values: The following loop initializes the array `myList` with random values between 0.0 and 100.0, but less than 100.0.

```java
for (int i = 0; i < myList.length; i++) {
    myList[i] = Math.random() * 100;
}
```

3. Displaying arrays: To print an array, you have to print each element in the array using a loop like the following:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < myList.length; i++) {
    System.out.print(myList[i] + " ");
}
```

**Tip**

For an array of the `char[]` type, it can be printed using one print statement. For example, the following code displays `Dallas`:

```java
char[] city = {'D', 'a', 'l', 'l', 'a', 's'};
System.out.println(city);
```

4. Summing all elements: Use a variable named `total` to store the sum. Initially `total` is 0. Add each element in the array to `total` using a loop like this:

```java
double total = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < myList.length; i++) {
    total += myList[i];
}
```

5. Finding the largest element: Use a variable named `max` to store the largest element. Initially `max` is `myList[0]`. To find the largest element in the array `myList`, compare each element with `max`, and update `max` if the element is greater than `max`.

```java
double max = myList[0];
for (int i = 1; i < myList.length; i++) {
    if (myList[i] > max) max = myList[i];
}
```

6. Finding the smallest index of the largest element: Often you need to locate the largest element in an array. If an array has more than one largest element, find the smallest index of such an element. Suppose the array `myList` is `{1, 5, 3, 4, 5, 5}`. The largest element is 5 and the smallest index for 5 is 1. Use a variable named `max` to store the largest element and a variable named `indexOfMax` to denote the index of the largest element. Initially `max` is `myList[0]`, and `indexOfMax` is 0. Compare each element in `myList` with `max`, and update `max` and `indexOfMax` if the element is greater than `max`.

```java
double max = myList[0];
int indexOfMax = 0;
for (int i = 1; i < myList.length; i++) {
    if (myList[i] > max) {
        max = myList[i];
        indexOfMax = i;
    }
}
```

7. Random shuffling: In many applications, you need to randomly reorder the elements in an array. This is called *shuffling*. To accomplish this, for each element
8. **Shifting elements**: Sometimes you need to shift the elements left or right. Here is an example of shifting the elements one position to the left and filling the last element with the first element:

```java
double temp = myList[0]; // Retain the first element

// Shift elements left
for (int i = 1; i < myList.length; i++) {
    myList[i - 1] = myList[i];
}

// Move the first element to fill in the last position
myList[myList.length - 1] = temp;
```

9. **Simplifying coding**: Arrays can be used to greatly simplify coding for certain tasks. For example, suppose you wish to obtain the English name of a given month by its number. If the month names are stored in an array, the month name for a given month can be accessed simply via the index. The following code prompts the user to enter a month number and displays its month name:

```java
String[] months = {
    "January", "February", ..., "December"};
System.out.print("Enter a month number (1 to 12): ");
int monthNumber = input.nextInt();
System.out.println("The month is " + months[monthNumber - 1]);
```

If you didn’t use the `months` array, you would have to determine the month name using a lengthy multi-way `if-else` statement as follows:

```java
if (monthNumber == 1)
    System.out.println("The month is January");
else if (monthNumber == 2)
    System.out.println("The month is February");
...
else
    System.out.println("The month is December");
```

### 6.2.7 for-each Loops

Java supports a convenient `for` loop, known as a for-each loop or enhanced for loop, which enables you to traverse the array sequentially without using an index variable. For example, the following code displays all the elements in the array `myList`:

```java
for (double u : myList) {
    System.out.println(u);
}
```
You can read the code as “for each element u in myList, do the following.” Note that the variable, u, must be declared as the same type as the elements in myList.

In general, the syntax for a for-each loop is

```java
for (elementType element: arrayRefVar) {
    // Process the element
}
```

You still have to use an index variable if you wish to traverse the array in a different order or change the elements in the array.

**Caution**

Accessing an array out of bounds is a common programming error that throws a runtime `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`. To avoid it, make sure that you do not use an index beyond `arrayRefVar.length - 1`.

Programmers often mistakenly reference the first element in an array with index 1, but it should be 0. This is called the **off-by-one error**. Another common error in a loop is using `<=` where `<` should be used. For example, the following loop is wrong.

```java
for (int i = 0; i <= list.length; i++)
    System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
```

The `<=` should be replaced by `<`.

---

**Check Point**

6.1 How do you declare an array reference variable and how do you create an array?

6.2 When is the memory allocated for an array?

6.3 What is the printout of the following code?

```java
int x = 30;
int[] numbers = new int[x];
x = 60;
System.out.println("x is " + x);
System.out.println("The size of numbers is " + numbers.length);
```

6.4 Indicate true or false for the following statements:

- Every element in an array has the same type.
- The array size is fixed after an array reference variable is declared.
- The array size is fixed after it is created.
- The elements in an array must be a primitive data type.

6.5 Which of the following statements are valid?

```java
int i = new int(30);
double d[] = new double[30];
char[] r = new char(1..30);
int i[] = (3, 4, 3, 2);
float f[] = {2.3, 4.5, 6.6};
char[] c = new char();
```

6.6 How do you access elements in an array? What is an array indexed variable?

6.7 What is the array index type? What is the lowest index? What is the representation of the third element in an array named a?

6.8 Write statements to do the following:

a. Create an array to hold 10 double values.

b. Assign the value 5.5 to the last element in the array.

c. Display the sum of the first two elements.

d. Write a loop that computes the sum of all elements in the array.
e. Write a loop that finds the minimum element in the array.

f. Randomly generate an index and display the element of this index in the array.

g. Use an array initializer to create another array with the initial values 3.5, 5.5, 4.5, and 5.6.

6.9 What happens when your program attempts to access an array element with an invalid index?

6.10 Identify and fix the errors in the following code:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        double[100] r;
        for (int i = 0; i < r.length(); i++);
        r(i) = Math.random * 100;
    }
}
```

6.11 What is the output of the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int list[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};
        for (int i = 1; i < list.length; i++)
            list[i] = list[i - 1];
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
    }
}
```

6.3 Case Study: Lotto Numbers

The problem is to write a program that checks if all the input numbers cover 1 to 99.

Each ticket for the Pick-10 lotto has 10 unique numbers ranging from 1 to 99. Suppose you buy a lot of tickets and like to have them cover all numbers from 1 to 99. Write a program that reads the ticket numbers from a file and checks whether all numbers are covered. Assume the last number in the file is 0. Suppose the file contains the numbers

```
80 3 87 62 30 90 10 21 46 27
12 40 83 9 39 88 95 59 20 37
80 40 87 67 31 90 11 24 56 77
11 48 51 42 8 74 1 41 36 53
52 82 16 72 19 70 44 56 29 33
54 64 99 14 23 22 94 79 55 2
60 86 34 4 31 63 84 89 7 78
43 93 97 45 25 38 28 26 85 49
47 65 57 67 73 69 32 71 24 66
92 98 96 77 6 75 17 61 58 13
35 81 18 15 5 68 91 50 76
0
```

Your program should display

```
The tickets cover all numbers
```

Suppose the file contains the numbers

```
11 48 51 42 8 74 1 41 36 53
52 82 16 72 19 70 44 56 29 33
0
```
Your program should display

The tickets don't cover all numbers

How do you mark a number as covered? You can create an array with 99 boolean elements. Each element in the array can be used to mark whether a number is covered. Let the array be isCovered. Initially, each element is false, as shown in Figure 6.2a. Whenever a number is read, its corresponding element is set to true. Suppose the numbers entered are 1, 2, 3, 99, 0. When number 1 is read, isCovered[0] is set to true (see Figure 6.2b). When number 2 is read, isCovered[2 - 1] is set to true (see Figure 6.2c). When number 3 is read, isCovered[3 - 1] is set to true (see Figure 6.2d). When number 99 is read, isCovered[98] is set to true (see Figure 6.2e).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>isCovered</th>
<th>isCovered</th>
<th>isCovered</th>
<th>isCovered</th>
<th>isCovered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[0] false</td>
<td>[0] true</td>
<td>[0] true</td>
<td>[0] true</td>
<td>[0] true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.2 If number i appears in a Lotto ticket, isCovered[i-1] is set to true.

The algorithm for the program can be described as follows:

for each number k read from the file,
mark number k as covered by setting isCovered[k - 1] true;
if every isCovered[i] is true
   The tickets cover all numbers
else
   The tickets don't cover all numbers

The complete program is given in Listing 6.1.

Listing 6.1 LottoNumbers.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class LottoNumbers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        boolean[] isCovered = new boolean[99]; // Default is false
        // Read each number and mark its corresponding element covered
        while (input.hasNextInt()) {
            number = input.nextInt();
            isCovered[number - 1] = true;
        }
    }
}```
6.3 Case Study: Lotto Numbers

```java
// Check whether all covered
boolean allCovered = true; // Assume all covered initially
for (int i = 0; i < isCovered.length; i++)
    if (!isCovered[i]) {
        allCovered = false; // Find one number not covered
        break;
    }

// Display result
if (allCovered)
    System.out.println("The tickets cover all numbers");
else
    System.out.println("The tickets don't cover all numbers");
```

Suppose you have created a text file named LottoNumbers.txt that contains the input data `2 5 6 5 4 3 23 43 2 0`. You can run the program using the following command:

```
java LottoNumbers < LottoNumbers.txt
```

The program can be traced as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line#</th>
<th>Representative elements in array isCovered number allCovered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[1]</td>
<td>[2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18(i=0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
The program creates an array of 99 boolean elements and initializes each element to false (line 6). It reads the first number from the file (line 9). The program then repeats the following operations in a loop:

- If the number is not zero, set its corresponding value in array isCovered to true (line 11);
- Read the next number (line 12).

When the input is 0, the input ends. The program checks whether all numbers are covered in lines 16–21 and displays the result in lines 24–27.

### 6.4 Case Study: Deck of Cards

*The problem is to create a program that will randomly select four cards from a deck of cards.*

Say you want to write a program that will pick four cards at random from a deck of 52 cards. All the cards can be represented using an array named deck, filled with initial values 0 to 51, as follows:

```java
int[] deck = new int[52];

// Initialize cards
for (int i = 0; i < deck.length; i++)
    deck[i] = i;
```

Card numbers 0 to 12, 13 to 25, 26 to 38, and 39 to 51 represent 13 Spades, 13 Hearts, 13 Diamonds, and 13 Clubs, respectively, as shown in Figure 6.3. 

Card number 6 is the 7 (6 % 13 = 6) of Spades (7 / 13 is 0)
Card number 48 is the 10 (48 % 13 = 9) of Clubs (48 / 13 is 3)
Card number 11 is the Queen (11 % 13 = 11) of Spades (11 / 13 is 0)
Card number 24 is the Queen (24 % 13 = 11) of Hearts (24 / 13 is 1)

Card number 6 is the 7 (6 % 13 = 6) of Spades (7 / 13 is 0)
Card number 48 is the 10 (48 % 13 = 9) of Clubs (48 / 13 is 3)
Card number 11 is the Queen (11 % 13 = 11) of Spades (11 / 13 is 0)
Card number 24 is the Queen (24 % 13 = 11) of Hearts (24 / 13 is 1)

**Figure 6.3** 52 cards are stored in an array named deck.
Listing 6.2 gives the solution to the problem.

**Listing 6.2  DeckOfCards.java**

```java
public class DeckOfCards {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[] deck = new int[52];
        String[] suits = {"Spades", "Hearts", "Diamonds", "Clubs"};
        String[] ranks = {"Ace", "2", "3", "4", "5", "6", "7", "8", "9", "10", "Jack", "Queen", "King"};

        // Initialize the cards
        for (int i = 0; i < deck.length; i++)
            deck[i] = i;

        // Shuffle the cards
        for (int i = 0; i < deck.length; i++) {
            int index = (int)(Math.random() * deck.length);
            int temp = deck[i];
            deck[i] = deck[index];
            deck[index] = temp;
        }

        // Display the first four cards
        for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
            String suit = suits[deck[i] / 13];
            String rank = ranks[deck[i] % 13];
            System.out.println("Card number " + deck[i] + ": 
            + rank + " of " + suit);
        }
    }
}
```

Card number 6: 7 of Spades
Card number 48: 10 of Clubs
Card number 11: Queen of Spades
Card number 24: Queen of Hearts

**Figure 6.4** How `cardNumber` identifies a card’s suit and rank number.
The program defines an array `suits` for four suits (line 4) and an array `ranks` for 13 cards in a suit (lines 5–6). Each element in these arrays is a string.

The program initializes `deck` with values 0 to 51 in lines 9–10. The `deck` value 0 represents the card Ace of Spades, 1 represents the card 2 of Spades, 13 represents the card Ace of Hearts, and 14 represents the card 2 of Hearts.

Lines 13–19 randomly shuffle the deck. After a deck is shuffled, `deck[i]` contains an arbitrary value. `deck[i] / 13` is 0, 1, 2, or 3, which determines the suit (line 23). `deck[i] % 13` is a value between 0 and 12, which determines the rank (line 24). If the `suits` array is not defined, you would have to determine the suit using a lengthy multi-way `if-else` statement as follows:

```java
if (deck[i] / 13 == 0)
    System.out.print("suit is Spades");
else if (deck[i] / 13 == 1)
    System.out.print("suit is Hearts");
else if (deck[i] / 13 == 2)
    System.out.print("suit is Diamonds");
else
    System.out.print("suit is Clubs");
```

With `suits = {"Spades", "Hearts", "Diamonds", "Clubs"}` created in an array, `suits[deck / 13]` gives the suit for the `deck`. Using arrays greatly simplifies the solution for this program.

### 6.5 Copying Arrays

*To copy the contents of one array into another, you have to copy the array's individual elements into the other array.*

Often, in a program, you need to duplicate an array or a part of an array. In such cases you could attempt to use the assignment statement (=), as follows:

```java
list2 = list1;
```

However, this statement does not copy the contents of the array referenced by `list1` to `list2`, but instead merely copies the reference value from `list1` to `list2`. After this statement, `list1` and `list2` reference the same array, as shown in Figure 6.5. The array previously referenced by `list2` is no longer referenced; it becomes garbage, which will be automatically collected by the Java Virtual Machine (this process is called garbage collection).

![Figure 6.5](image-url)  
**Figure 6.5** Before the assignment statement, `list1` and `list2` point to separate memory locations. After the assignment, the reference of the `list1` array is passed to `list2`.

In Java, you can use assignment statements to copy primitive data type variables, but not arrays. Assigning one array variable to another array variable actually copies one reference to another and makes both variables point to the same memory location.
There are three ways to copy arrays:

- Use a loop to copy individual elements one by one.
- Use the static `arraycopy` method in the `System` class.
- Use the `clone` method to copy arrays; this will be introduced in Chapter 15, Abstract Classes and Interfaces.

You can write a loop to copy every element from the source array to the corresponding element in the target array. The following code, for instance, copies `sourceArray` to `targetArray` using a `for` loop.

```java
int[] sourceArray = {2, 3, 1, 5, 10};
int[] targetArray = new int[sourceArray.length];
for (int i = 0; i < sourceArray.length; i++) {
    targetArray[i] = sourceArray[i];
}
```

Another approach is to use the `arraycopy` method in the `java.lang.System` class to copy arrays instead of using a loop. The syntax for `arraycopy` is:

```
arraycopy(sourceArray, src_pos, targetArray, tar_pos, length);
```

The parameters `src_pos` and `tar_pos` indicate the starting positions in `sourceArray` and `targetArray`, respectively. The number of elements copied from `sourceArray` to `targetArray` is indicated by `length`. For example, you can rewrite the loop using the following statement:

```
System.arraycopy(sourceArray, 0, targetArray, 0, sourceArray.length);
```

The `arraycopy` method does not allocate memory space for the target array. The target array must have already been created with its memory space allocated. After the copying takes place, `targetArray` and `sourceArray` have the same content but independent memory locations.

**Note**
The `arraycopy` method violates the Java naming convention. By convention, this method should be named `arrayCopy` (i.e., with an uppercase C).

### 6.12 Check Point
Use the `arraycopy()` method to copy the following array to a target array `t`:

```java
int[] source = {3, 4, 5};
```

### 6.13 Check Point
Once an array is created, its size cannot be changed. Does the following code resize the array?

```java
int[] myList;
myList = new int[10];
// Sometime later you want to assign a new array to myList
myList = new int[20];
```

### 6.6 Passing Arrays to Methods

*When passing an array to a method, the reference of the array is passed to the method.*

Just as you can pass primitive type values to methods, you can also pass arrays to methods. For example, the following method displays the elements in an `int` array:

```java
public static void printArray(int[] array) {
    for (int i = 0; i < array.length; i++) {
        System.out.println(array[i]);
    }
}
```
System.out.print(array[i] + " ");
}
}

You can invoke it by passing an array. For example, the following statement invokes the `printArray` method to display 3, 1, 2, 6, 4, and 2.

```java
printArray(new int[]{3, 1, 2, 6, 4, 2});
```

**Note**
The preceding statement creates an array using the following syntax:

```java
new elementType[] {value0, value1, ..., valuek};
```

**anonymous array**
There is no explicit reference variable for the array. Such array is called an **anonymous array**.

**pass-by-value**
Java uses **pass-by-value** to pass arguments to a method. There are important differences between passing the values of variables of primitive data types and passing arrays.

- For an argument of a primitive type, the argument’s value is passed.
- For an argument of an array type, the value of the argument is a reference to an array; this reference value is passed to the method. Semantically, it can be best described as **pass-by-sharing**, that is, the array in the method is the same as the array being passed. Thus, if you change the array in the method, you will see the change outside the method.

Take the following code, for example:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x = 1; // x represents an int value
        int[] y = new int[10]; // y represents an array of int values

        m(x, y); // Invoke m with arguments x and y

        System.out.println("x is " + x);
        System.out.println("y[0] is " + y[0]);
    }

    public static void m(int number, int[] numbers) {
        number = 1001; // Assign a new value to number
        numbers[0] = 5555; // Assign a new value to numbers[0]
    }
}
```

```plaintext
x is 1
y[0] is 5555
```

You may wonder why after `m` is invoked, `x` remains 1, but `y[0]` become 5555. This is because `y` and `numbers`, although they are independent variables, reference the same array, as illustrated in Figure 6.6. When `m(x, y)` is invoked, the values of `x` and `y` are passed to `number` and `numbers`. Since `y` contains the reference value to the array, `numbers` now contains the same reference value to the same array.
6.6 Passing Arrays to Methods

Arrays are objects in Java (objects are introduced in Chapter 8). The JVM stores the objects in an area of memory called the heap, which is used for dynamic memory allocation.

Listing 6.3 gives another program that shows the difference between passing a primitive data type value and an array reference variable to a method.

The program contains two methods for swapping elements in an array. The first method, named `swap`, fails to swap two `int` arguments. The second method, named `swapFirstTwoInArray`, successfully swaps the first two elements in the array argument.

LISTING 6.3 TestPassArray.java

```java
public class TestPassArray {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[] a = {1, 2};

        // Swap elements using the swap method
        System.out.println("Before invoking swap");
        System.out.println("array is "+ a[0] + ", " + a[1] + "}");
        swap(a[0], a[1]);
        System.out.println("After invoking swap");
        System.out.println("array is "+ a[0] + ", " + a[1] + "}");

        // Swap elements using the swapFirstTwoInArray method
        System.out.println("Before invoking swapFirstTwoInArray");
        System.out.println("array is "+ a[0] + ", " + a[1] + "}");
        swapFirstTwoInArray(a);
        System.out.println("After invoking swapFirstTwoInArray");
        System.out.println("array is "+ a[0] + ", " + a[1] + "}");
    }

    /** Swap two variables */
    public static void swap(int n1, int n2) {
        int temp = n1;
        n1 = n2;
        n2 = temp;
    }

    /** Swap the first two elements in the array */
    public static void swapFirstTwoInArray(int[] array) {
        int temp = array[0];
        array[0] = array[1];
        array[1] = temp;
    }
}
```

Figure 6.6  The primitive type value in `x` is passed to `number`, and the reference value in `y` is passed to `numbers`.

Note
Arrays are objects in Java (objects are introduced in Chapter 8). The JVM stores the objects in an area of memory called the heap, which is used for dynamic memory allocation.

Listing 6.3 gives another program that shows the difference between passing a primitive data type value and an array reference variable to a method.

The program contains two methods for swapping elements in an array. The first method, named `swap`, fails to swap two `int` arguments. The second method, named `swapFirstTwoInArray`, successfully swaps the first two elements in the array argument.
Chapter 6 Single-Dimensional Arrays

As shown in Figure 6.7, the two elements are not swapped using the `swap` method. However, they are swapped using the `swapFirstTwoInArray` method. Since the parameters in the `swap` method are primitive type, the values of `a[0]` and `a[1]` are passed to `n1` and `n2` inside the method when invoking `swap(a[0], a[1])`. The memory locations for `n1` and `n2` are independent of the ones for `a[0]` and `a[1]`. The contents of the array are not affected by this call.

The parameter in the `swapFirstTwoInArray` method is an array. As shown in Figure 6.7, the reference of the array is passed to the method. Thus the variables `a` (outside the method) and `array` (inside the method) both refer to the same array in the same memory location. Therefore, swapping `array[0]` with `array[1]` inside the method `swapFirstTwoInArray` is the same as swapping `a[0]` with `a[1]` outside of the method.

6.7 Returning an Array from a Method

When a method returns an array, the reference of the array is returned.

You can pass arrays when invoking a method. A method may also return an array. For example, the following method returns an array that is the reversal of another array.

```java
public static int[] reverse(int[] list) {
    int[] result = new int[list.length];
    for (int i = 0, j = result.length - 1; i < list.length; i++, j--) {
        result[j] = list[i];
    }
    return result;
}
```
6.8 Case Study: Counting the Occurrences of Each Letter

This section presents a program to count the occurrences of each letter in an array of characters.

The program given in Listing 6.4 does the following:

1. Generates 100 lowercase letters randomly and assigns them to an array of characters, as shown in Figure 6.8a. You can obtain a random letter by using the getRandomLowerCaseLetter() method in the RandomCharacter class in Listing 5.10.

2. Count the occurrences of each letter in the array. To do so, create an array, say counts, of 26 int values, each of which counts the occurrences of a letter, as shown in Figure 6.8b. That is, counts[0] counts the number of a’s, counts[1] counts the number of b’s, and so on.

![Figure 6.8](image)

**Figure 6.8** The chars array stores 100 characters, and the counts array stores 26 counts, each of which counts the occurrences of a letter.

**Listing 6.4** CountLettersInArray.java

```java
public class CountLettersInArray {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Declare and create an array
        char[] chars = createArray();
        // Display the array
        System.out.println("The lowercase letters are:");
        displayArray(chars);
        // Count the occurrences of each letter
        int[] counts = countLetters(chars);
        // Display counts
        System.out.println("The occurrences of each letter are:");
        displayCounts(counts);
    }
    /** Create an array of characters */
    private static char[] createArray() {
        // Code to create an array
        return new char[100];
    }
    /** Count characters */
    private static int[] countLetters(char[] chars) {
        int[] counts = new int[26];
        // Code to count characters
        return counts;
    }
    /** Display array */
    private static void displayArray(char[] chars) {
        // Code to display array
    }
    /** Display counts */
    private static void displayCounts(int[] counts) {
        // Code to display counts
    }
}
```

Line 2 creates a new array result. Lines 4–7 copy elements from array list to array result. Line 9 returns the array. For example, the following statement returns a new array list2 with elements 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1.

```java
int[] list1 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};
int[] list2 = reverse(list1);
```
```java
public static char[] createArray() {
    // Declare an array of characters and create it
    char[] chars = new char[100];

    // Create lowercase letters randomly and assign
    // them to the array
    for (int i = 0; i < chars.length; i++)
        chars[i] = RandomCharacter.getRandomLowerCaseLetter();

    // Return the array
    return chars;
}

/** Display the array of characters */
public static void displayArray(char[] chars) {
    // Display the characters in the array 20 on each line
    for (int i = 0; i < chars.length; i++) {
        if ((i + 1) % 20 == 0)
            System.out.println(chars[i]);
        else
            System.out.print(chars[i] + " ");
    }
}

/** Count the occurrences of each letter */
public static int[] countLetters(char[] chars) {
    // Declare and create an array of 26 int
    int[] counts = new int[26];

    // For each lowercase letter in the array, count it
    for (int i = 0; i < chars.length; i++)
        counts[chars[i] - 'a']++;

    return counts;
}

/** Display counts */
public static void displayCounts(int[] counts) {
    for (int i = 0; i < counts.length; i++) {
        if ((i + 1) % 10 == 0)
            System.out.println(counts[i] + " " + (char)(i + 'a'));
        else
            System.out.print(counts[i] + " " + (char)(i + 'a') + " ");
    }
}
```

The lowercase letters are:
```
e y l s r i b k j v j h a b z n w b t v
s c c k r d w a m p w v u n q a m p l o
a z g d e g f i n d x m z o u l o z j v
h w i w n t g x w c d o t x h y v z y z
q e a m f w p g u q t r e n n w f c r f
```

The occurrences of each letter are:
```
5 a 3 b 4 c 4 d 4 e 4 f 4 g 3 h 3 i 3 j
2 k 3 1 4 m 6 n 4 o 3 p 3 q 4 r 2 s 4 t
3 u 5 v 8 w 3 x 3 y 6 z
```
The `createArray` method (lines 21–32) generates an array of 100 random lowercase letters. Line 5 invokes the method and assigns the array to `chars`. What would be wrong if you rewrote the code as follows?

```java
char[] chars = new char[100];
chars = createArray();
```

You would be creating two arrays. The first line would create an array by using `new char[100]`. The second line would create an array by invoking `createArray()` and assign the reference of the array to `chars`. The array created in the first line would be garbage because it is no longer referenced, and as mentioned earlier Java automatically collects garbage behind the scenes. Your program would compile and run correctly, but it would create an array unnecessarily.

Invoking `getRandomLowerCaseLetter()` (line 28) returns a random lowercase letter. This method is defined in the `RandomCharacter` class in Listing 5.10.

The `countLetters` method (lines 46–55) returns an array of 26 `int` values, each of which stores the number of occurrences of a letter. The method processes each letter in the array and increases its count by one. A brute-force approach to count the occurrences of each letter might be as follows:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < chars.length; i++)
    if (chars[i] == 'a')
        counts[0]++;
    else if (chars[i] == 'b')
        counts[1]++;
...
```

But a better solution is given in lines 51–52.

```java
for (int i = 0; i < chars.length; i++)
    counts[chars[i] - 'a']++;
```

If the letter (`chars[i]`) is `a`, the corresponding count is `counts['a' - 'a']` (i.e., `counts[0]`). If the letter is `b`, the corresponding count is `counts['b' - 'a']` (i.e., `counts[1]`), since the Unicode of `b` is one more than that of `a`. If the letter is `z`, the corresponding count is `counts['z' - 'a']` (i.e., `counts[25]`), since the Unicode of `z` is 25 more than that of `a`.

Figure 6.9 shows the call stack and heap during and after executing `createArray`. See Checkpoint Question 6.16 to show the call stack and heap for other methods in the program.

![Figure 6.9](image)

(a) Executing `createArray` in line 5
(b) After exiting `createArray` in line 5

**FIGURE 6.9** (a) An array of 100 characters is created when executing `createArray`. (b) This array is returned and assigned to the variable `chars` in the `main` method.
6.14 True or false? When an array is passed to a method, a new array is created and passed to the method.

6.15 Show the output of the following two programs:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int number = 0;
        int[] numbers = new int[1];
        m(number, numbers);
        System.out.println("number is " + number + " and numbers[0] is " + numbers[0]);
    }
    public static void m(int x, int[] y) {
        x = 3;
        y[0] = 3;
    }
}
```

(a)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[] list = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
        reverse(list);
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
    }
    public static void reverse(int[] list) {
        int[] newList = new int[list.length];
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            newList[i] = list[list.length - 1 - i];
        list = newList;
    }
}
```

(b)

6.16 Where are the arrays stored during execution? Show the contents of the stack and heap during and after executing `displayArray`, `countLetters`, `displayCounts` in Listing 6.4.

6.9 Variable-Length Argument Lists

A variable number of arguments of the same type can be passed to a method and treated as an array.

You can pass a variable number of arguments of the same type to a method. The parameter in the method is declared as follows:

```java
typeName... parameterName
```

In the method declaration, you specify the type followed by an ellipsis (...). Only one variable-length parameter may be specified in a method, and this parameter must be the last parameter. Any regular parameters must precede it.

Java treats a variable-length parameter as an array. You can pass an array or a variable number of arguments to a variable-length parameter. When invoking a method with a variable number of arguments, Java creates an array and passes the arguments to it. Listing 6.5 contains a method that prints the maximum value in a list of an unspecified number of values.

**Listing 6.5 VarArgsDemo.java**

```java
1 public class VarArgsDemo {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         printMax(34, 3, 3, 2, 56.5);
4         printMax(new double[]{1, 2, 3});
5     }
6     public static void printMax(double... numbers) {
7         if (numbers.length == 0) {
8             System.out.println("No argument passed");
9         }
10     }
11 }
```
6.10 Searching Arrays

If an array is sorted, binary search is more efficient than linear search for finding an element in the array.

Searching is the process of looking for a specific element in an array—for example, discovering whether a certain score is included in a list of scores. Searching is a common task in computer programming. Many algorithms and data structures are devoted to searching. This section discusses two commonly used approaches, linear search and binary search.

6.10.1 The Linear Search Approach

The linear search approach compares the key element `key` sequentially with each element in the array. It continues to do so until the key matches an element in the array or the array is exhausted without a match being found. If a match is made, the linear search returns the index of the element in the array that matches the key. If no match is found, the search returns -1. The `LinearSearch` method in Listing 6.6 gives the solution.

**LISTING 6.6 LinearSearch.java**

```java
public class LinearSearch {
   /** The method for finding a key in the list */
   public static int linearSearch(int[] list, int key) {
      for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++) {
         if (key == list[i])
            return i;
      }
      return -1;
   }
}
```

6.17 What is wrong in the following method header?

```java
public static void print(String... strings, double... numbers)
public static void print(double... numbers, String name)
public static double... print(double d1, double d2)
```

6.18 Can you invoke the `printMax` method in Listing 6.5 using the following statements?

```java
printMax(1, 2, 2, 1, 4);
printMax(new double[]{1, 2, 3});
printMax(new int[]{1, 2, 3});
```
To better understand this method, trace it with the following statements:

```java
1  int[] list = {1, 4, 4, 2, 5, -3, 6, 2};
2  int i = linearSearch(list, 4); // Returns 1
3  int j = linearSearch(list, -4); // Returns -1
4  int k = linearSearch(list, -3); // Returns 5
```

The linear search method compares the key with each element in the array. The elements can be in any order. On average, the algorithm will have to examine half of the elements in an array before finding the key, if it exists. Since the execution time of a linear search increases linearly as the number of array elements increases, linear search is inefficient for a large array.

### 6.10.2 The Binary Search Approach

Binary search is the other common search approach for a list of values. For binary search to work, the elements in the array must already be ordered. Assume that the array is in ascending order. The binary search first compares the key with the element in the middle of the array. Consider the following three cases:

- If the key is less than the middle element, you need to continue to search for the key only in the first half of the array.
- If the key is equal to the middle element, the search ends with a match.
- If the key is greater than the middle element, you need to continue to search for the key only in the second half of the array.

Clearly, the binary search method eliminates at least half of the array after each comparison. Sometimes you eliminate half of the elements, and sometimes you eliminate half plus one. Suppose that the array has \( n \) elements. For convenience, let \( n \) be a power of \( 2 \). After the first comparison, \( n/2 \) elements are left for further search; after the second comparison, \( (n/2)/2 \) elements are left. After the \( k \)th comparison, \( n/2^k \) elements are left for further search. When \( k = \log_2 n \), only one element is left in the array, and you need only one more comparison. Therefore, in the worst case when using the binary search approach, you need \( \log_2 n + 1 \) comparisons to find an element in the sorted array. In the worst case for a list of 1024 \( (2^{10}) \) elements, binary search requires only 11 comparisons, whereas a linear search requires 1023 comparisons in the worst case.

The portion of the array being searched shrinks by half after each comparison. Let \( \text{low} \) and \( \text{high} \) denote, respectively, the first index and last index of the array that is currently being searched. Initially, \( \text{low} = 0 \) and \( \text{high} = \text{list.length} - 1 \). Let \( \text{mid} \) denote the index of the middle element, so \( \text{mid} = (\text{low} + \text{high})/2 \). Figure 6.10 shows how to find key 11 in the list \{2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 45, 50, 59, 60, 66, 69, 70, 79\} using binary search.

You now know how the binary search works. The next task is to implement it in Java. Don’t rush to give a complete implementation. Implement it incrementally, one step at a time. You may start with the first iteration of the search, as shown in Figure 6.11a. It compares the key with the middle element in the list whose \( \text{low} \) index is 0 and \( \text{high} \) index is \( \text{list.length} - 1 \). If \( \text{key} < \text{list[mid]} \), set the \( \text{high} \) index to \( \text{mid} - 1 \); if \( \text{key} == \text{list[mid]} \), a match is found and return \( \text{mid} \); if \( \text{key} > \text{list[mid]} \), set the \( \text{low} \) index to \( \text{mid} + 1 \).

Next consider implementing the method to perform the search repeatedly by adding a loop, as shown in Figure 6.11b. The search ends if the key is found, or if the key is not found when \( \text{low} > \text{high} \).

When the key is not found, \( \text{low} \) is the insertion point where a key would be inserted to maintain the order of the list. It is more useful to return the insertion point than -1. The method must return a negative value to indicate that the key is not in the list. Can it simply return \(-\text{low}\)? No. If the key is less than \( \text{list[0]} \), \( \text{low} \) would be 0. -0 is 0. This would
Searching Arrays

---

**Figure 6.10** Binary search eliminates half of the list from further consideration after each comparison.

```java
public static int binarySearch(int[] list, int key) {
    int low = 0;
    int high = list.length - 1;

    int mid = (low + high) / 2;
    if (key < list[mid])
        high = mid - 1;
    else if (key == list[mid])
        return mid;
    else
        low = mid + 1;

    while (high >= low) {
        int mid = (low + high) / 2;
        if (key < list[mid])
            high = mid - 1;
        else if (key == list[mid])
            return mid;
        else
            low = mid + 1;
    }

    return -1; // Not found
}
```

(a) Version 1

---

**Figure 6.11** Binary search is implemented incrementally.

```java
public static int binarySearch(int[] list, int key) {
    int low = 0;
    int high = list.length - 1;

    while (high >= low) {
        int mid = (low + high) / 2;
        if (key < list[mid])
            high = mid - 1;
        else if (key == list[mid])
            return mid;
        else
            low = mid + 1;
    }

    return -1; // Not found
}
```

(b) Version 2

---

indicate that the key matches list[0]. A good choice is to let the method return \(-low - 1\) if the key is not in the list. Returning \(-low - 1\) indicates not only that the key is not in the list, but also where the key would be inserted.

The complete program is given in Listing 6.7.

**Listing 6.7** BinarySearch.java

```java
public class BinarySearch {
    /** Use binary search to find the key in the list */
    public static int binarySearch(int[] list, int key) {
        int low = 0;
        int high = list.length - 1;

        while (high >= low) {
            int mid = (low + high) / 2;
            if (key < list[mid])
                high = mid - 1;
            else if (key == list[mid])
                return mid;
            else
                low = mid + 1;
        }

        return -1; // Not found
    }
}
```

---
The binary search returns the index of the search key if it is contained in the list (line 12). Otherwise, it returns \(-low - 1\) (line 17).

What would happen if we replaced \((high >= low)\) in line 7 with \((high > low)\)? The search would miss a possible matching element. Consider a list with just one element. The search would miss the element.

Does the method still work if there are duplicate elements in the list? Yes, as long as the elements are sorted in increasing order. The method returns the index of one of the matching elements if the element is in the list.

To better understand this method, trace it with the following statements and identify \(low\) and \(high\) when the method returns.

```java
int[] list = {2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 45, 50, 59, 60, 66, 69, 70, 79};
int i = BinarySearch.binarySearch(list, 2); // Returns 0
int j = BinarySearch.binarySearch(list, 11); // Returns 4
int k = BinarySearch.binarySearch(list, 12); // Returns -6
int l = BinarySearch.binarySearch(list, 1); // Returns -1
int m = BinarySearch.binarySearch(list, 3); // Returns -2
```

Here is the table that lists the \(low\) and \(high\) values when the method exits and the value returned from invoking the method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Value Returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>binarySearch(list, 2)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binarySearch(list, 11)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binarySearch(list, 12)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binarySearch(list, 1)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binarySearch(list, 3)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note**
Linear search is useful for finding an element in a small array or an unsorted array, but it is inefficient for large arrays. Binary search is more efficient, but it requires that the array be presorted.

### 6.11 Sorting Arrays

*Selection sort and insertion sort are two common approaches.*

Sorting, like searching, is a common task in computer programming. Many different algorithms have been developed for sorting. This section introduces two simple, intuitive sorting algorithms: *selection sort* and *insertion sort*.
6.11 Sorting Arrays

### 6.11.1 Selection Sort

Suppose that you want to sort a list in ascending order. Selection sort finds the smallest number in the list and swaps it with the first element. It then finds the smallest number remaining and swaps it with the second element, and so on, until only a single number remains. Figure 6.12 shows how to sort the list \{2, 9, 5, 4, 8, 1, 6\} using selection sort.

![Selection sort animation](Companion Website)

You know how the selection-sort approach works. The task now is to implement it in Java. Beginners find it difficult to develop a complete solution on the first attempt. Start by writing the code for the first iteration to find the smallest element in the list and swap it with the first element, and then observe what would be different for the second iteration, the third, and so on. The insight this gives will enable you to write a loop that generalizes all the iterations.

The solution can be described as follows:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < list.length - 1; i++) {
    select the smallest element in list[i..list.length-1];
    swap the smallest with list[i], if necessary;
    // list[i] is in its correct position.
    // The next iteration apply on list[i+1..list.length-1]
}
```
Listing 6.8 implements the solution.

**Listing 6.8  SelectionSort.java**

```java
public class SelectionSort {
  /** The method for sorting the numbers */
  public static void selectionSort(double[] list) {
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length - 1; i++) {
      // Find the minimum in the list[i..list.length-1]
      double currentMin = list[i];
      int currentMinIndex = i;
      for (int j = i + 1; j < list.length; j++) {
        if (currentMin > list[j]) {
          currentMin = list[j];
          currentMinIndex = j;
        }
      }
      // Swap list[i] with list[currentMinIndex] if necessary
      if (currentMinIndex != i) {
        list[currentMinIndex] = list[i];
        list[i] = currentMin;
      }
    }
  }
}
```

The `selectionSort(double[] list)` method sorts any array of `double` elements. The method is implemented with a nested `for` loop. The outer loop (with the loop control variable `i`) (line 4) is iterated in order to find the smallest element in the list, which ranges from `list[i]` to `list[list.length-1]`, and exchange it with `list[i]`.

The variable `i` is initially 0. After each iteration of the outer loop, `list[i]` is in the right place. Eventually, all the elements are put in the right place; therefore, the whole list is sorted.

To understand this method better, trace it with the following statements:

```java
double[] list = {1, 9, 4.5, 6.6, 5.7, -4.5};
SelectionSort.selectionSort(list);
```

### 6.11.2 Insertion Sort

Suppose that you want to sort a list in ascending order. The insertion-sort algorithm sorts a list of values by repeatedly inserting a new element into a sorted sublist until the whole list is sorted. Figure 6.13 shows how to sort the list `{2, 9, 5, 4, 8, 1, 6}` using insertion sort.

The algorithm can be described as follows:

```java
for (int i = 1; i < list.length; i++) {
  insert list[i] into a sorted sublist list[0..i-1] so that list[0..i] is sorted.
}
```

To insert `list[i]` into `list[0..i-1]`, save `list[i]` into a temporary variable, say `currentElement`. Move `list[i-1]` to `list[i]` if `list[i-1] > currentElement`, move `list[i-2]` to `list[i-1]` if `list[i-2] > currentElement`, and so on, until `list[i-k] <= currentElement` or `k > i` (we pass the first element of the sorted list). Assign `currentElement` to `list[i-k+1]`. For example, to insert 4 into `{2, 5, 9}` in Step 4 in Figure 6.14, move `list[2]` (9) to `list[3]` since 9 > 4, and move `list[1]` (5) to `list[2]` since 5 > 4. Finally, move `currentElement` (4) to `list[1]`. 
6.11 Sorting Arrays

The algorithm can be expanded and implemented as in Listing 6.9.

LISTING 6.9 InsertionSort.java

```java
public class InsertionSort {
    /* The method for sorting the numbers */
    public static void insertionSort(double[] list) {
        for (int i = 1; i < list.length; i++) {
            /* Insert list[i] into a sorted sublist list[0..i-1] so that list[0..i] is sorted. */
            double currentElement = list[i];
            int k;
            for (k = i - 1; k >= 0 && list[k] > currentElement; k--) {  // shift
                list[k + 1] = list[k];
            }
            // Insert the current element into list[k + 1]
        }
    }
}
```

The algorithm can be expanded and implemented as in Listing 6.9.

FIGURE 6.13 Insertion sort repeatedly inserts a new element into a sorted sublist.

```
list [0][1][2][3][4][5][6]  Step 1: Save 4 to a temporary variable currentElement
list [0][1][2][3][4][5][6]  Step 2: Move list[2] to list[3]
list [0][1][2][3][4][5][6]  Step 3: Move list[1] to list[2]
list [0][1][2][3][4][5][6]  Step 4: Assign currentElement to list[1]
```

FIGURE 6.14 A new element is inserted into a sorted sublist.
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The `insertionSort(double[] list)` method sorts any array of `double` elements. The method is implemented with a nested `for` loop. The outer loop (with the loop control variable `i`) (line 4) is iterated in order to obtain a sorted sublist, which ranges from `list[0]` to `list[i]`. The inner loop (with the loop control variable `k`) inserts `list[i]` into the sublist from `list[0]` to `list[i-1].`

To better understand this method, trace it with the following statements:

```java
double[] list = {1, 9, 4.5, 6.6, 5.7, -4.5};
InsertionSort.insertionSort(list);
```

6.19 Use Figure 6.10 as an example to show how to apply the binary search approach to a search for key 10 and key 12 in list \{2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 45, 50, 59, 60, 66, 69, 70, 79\}.

6.20 If the binary search method returns -4, is the key in the list? Where should the key be inserted if you wish to insert the key into the list?

6.21 Use Figure 6.12 as an example to show how to apply the selection-sort approach to sort \{3, 4, 5, 3, 3.5, 2.2, 1.9, 2\}.

6.22 Use Figure 6.13 as an example to show how to apply the insertion-sort approach to sort \{3, 4, 5, 3, 3.5, 2.2, 1.9, 2\}.

6.23 How do you modify the `selectionSort` method in Listing 6.8 to sort numbers in decreasing order?

6.24 How do you modify the `insertionSort` method in Listing 6.9 to sort numbers in decreasing order?

### 6.12 The Arrays Class

The `java.util.Arrays` class contains useful methods for common array operations such as sorting and searching.

The `java.util.Arrays` class contains various static methods for sorting and searching arrays, comparing arrays, filling array elements, and returning a string representation of the array. These methods are overloaded for all primitive types.

You can use the `sort` method to sort a whole array or a partial array. For example, the following code sorts an array of numbers and an array of characters.

```java
double[] numbers = {6.0, 4.4, 1.9, 2.9, 3.4, 3.5};
java.util.Arrays.sort(numbers);  // Sort the whole array

char[] chars = {'a', 'A', '4', 'F', 'D', 'P'};
java.util.Arrays.sort(chars, 1, 3); // Sort part of the array
```

Invoking `sort(numbers)` sorts the whole array `numbers`. Invoking `sort(chars, 1, 3)` sorts a partial array from `chars[1]` to `chars[3-1].`

You can use the `binarySearch` method to search for a key in an array. The array must be pre-sorted in increasing order. If the key is not in the array, the method returns \(-(insertionIndex + 1)\). For example, the following code searches the keys in an array of integers and an array of characters.

```java
int[] list = {2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 45, 50, 59, 60, 66, 69, 70, 79};
System.out.println("(1) Index is " +
    java.util.Arrays.binarySearch(list, 11));
```
System.out.println("(2) Index is "+
    java.util.Arrays.binarySearch(list, 12));

char[] chars = {'a', 'c', 'g', 'x', 'y', 'z'};
System.out.println("(3) Index is "+
    java.util.Arrays.binarySearch(chars, 'a'));
System.out.println("(4) Index is "+
    java.util.Arrays.binarySearch(chars, 't'));

The output of the preceding code is

1. Index is 4
2. Index is –6
3. Index is 0
4. Index is –4

You can use the equals method to check whether two arrays are equal. Two arrays are equal if they have the same contents. In the following code, list1 and list2 are equal, but list2 and list3 are not.

```java
int[] list1 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
int[] list2 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
int[] list3 = {4, 2, 7, 10};
System.out.println(java.util.Arrays.equals(list1, list2)); // true
System.out.println(java.util.Arrays.equals(list2, list3)); // false
```

You can use the fill method to fill in all or part of the array. For example, the following code fills list1 with 5 and fills 8 into elements list2[1] and list2[3-1].

```java
int[] list1 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
int[] list2 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
java.util.Arrays.fill(list1, 7); // Fill 5 to the whole array
java.util.Arrays.fill(list2, 1, 3, 8); // Fill 8 to a partial array
```

You can also use the toString method to return a string that represents all elements in the array. This is a quick and simple way to display all elements in the array. For example, the following code displays [2, 4, 7, 10].

```java
int[] list = {2, 4, 7, 10};
System.out.println(Arrays.toString(list));
```

6.25 What types of array can be sorted using the java.util.Arrays.sort method? Does this sort method create a new array?

6.26 To apply java.util.Arrays.binarySearch(array, key), should the array be sorted in increasing order, in decreasing order, or neither?

6.27 Show the output of the following code:

```java
int[] list1 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
java.util.Arrays.fill(list1, 7);
System.out.println(java.util.Arrays.toString(list1));

int[] list2 = {2, 4, 7, 10};
System.out.println(java.util.Arrays.toString(list2));
System.out.print(java.util.Arrays.equals(list1, list2));
```
Chapter 6  Single-Dimensional Arrays

Key Terms

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Chapter Summary

1. A variable is declared as an array type using the syntax `elementType[] arrayRefVar` or `elementType arrayRefVar[]`. The style `elementType[] arrayRefVar[]` is preferred, although `elementType arrayRefVar[]` is legal.

2. Unlike declarations for primitive data type variables, the declaration of an array variable does not allocate any space in memory for the array. An array variable is not a primitive data type variable. An array variable contains a reference to an array.

3. You cannot assign elements to an array unless it has already been created. You can create an array by using the `new` operator with the following syntax: `new elementType[arraySize]`.

4. Each element in the array is represented using the syntax `arrayRefVar[index]`. An index must be an integer or an integer expression.

5. After an array is created, its size becomes permanent and can be obtained using `arrayRefVar.length`. Since the index of an array always begins with 0, the last index is always `arrayRefVar.length - 1`. An out-of-bounds error will occur if you attempt to reference elements beyond the bounds of an array.

6. Programmers often mistakenly reference the first element in an array with index 1, but it should be 0. This is called the index off-by-one error.

7. When an array is created, its elements are assigned the default value of 0 for the numeric primitive data types, \u0000 for char types, and `false` for boolean types.

8. Java has a shorthand notation, known as the array initializer, which combines declaring an array, creating an array, and initializing an array in one statement, using the syntax `elementType[] arrayRefVar = {value0, value1, ..., valuek}`.

9. When you pass an array argument to a method, you are actually passing the reference of the array; that is, the called method can modify the elements in the caller’s original array.

10. If an array is sorted, binary search is more efficient than linear search for finding an element in the array.

11. Selection sort finds the smallest number in the list and swaps it with the first element. It then finds the smallest number remaining and swaps it with the first element in the remaining list, and so on, until only a single number remains.
exercise 12. The *insertion-sort algorithm* sorts a list of values by repeatedly inserting a new element into a sorted sublist until the whole list is sorted.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 6.2–6.5

*6.1 (Assign grades) Write a program that reads student scores, gets the best score, and then assigns grades based on the following scheme:

- Grade is A if score is >= best − 10
- Grade is B if score is >= best − 20;
- Grade is C if score is >= best − 30;
- Grade is D if score is >= best − 40;
- Grade is F otherwise.

The program prompts the user to enter the total number of students, then prompts the user to enter all of the scores, and concludes by displaying the grades. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of students: 4
Enter 4 scores: 40 55 70 58
Student 0 score is 40 and grade is C
Student 1 score is 55 and grade is B
Student 2 score is 70 and grade is A
Student 3 score is 58 and grade is B
```

6.2 (Reverse the numbers entered) Write a program that reads ten integers and displays them in the reverse of the order in which they were read.

**6.3 (Count occurrence of numbers) Write a program that reads the integers between 1 and 100 and counts the occurrences of each. Assume the input ends with 0. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the integers between 1 and 100: 2 5 6 5 4 3 23 43 2 0
2 occurs 2 times
3 occurs 1 time
4 occurs 1 time
5 occurs 2 times
6 occurs 1 time
23 occurs 1 time
43 occurs 1 time
```

Note that if a number occurs more than one time, the plural word “times” is used in the output.
6.4  **Analyze scores** Write a program that reads an unspecified number of scores and determines how many scores are above or equal to the average and how many scores are below the average. Enter a negative number to signify the end of the input. Assume that the maximum number of scores is 100.

**6.5** **Print distinct numbers** Write a program that reads in ten numbers and displays distinct numbers (i.e., if a number appears multiple times, it is displayed only once). *(Hint: Read a number and store it to an array if it is new. If the number is already in the array, ignore it.)* After the input, the array contains the distinct numbers. Here is the sample run of the program:

Enter ten numbers: 1 2 3 2 1 6 3 4 5 2
The distinct numbers are: 1 2 3 6 4 5

**6.6** **Revise Listing 4.14, PrimeNumber.java** Listing 4.14 determines whether a number \( n \) is prime by checking whether \( 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., n/2 \) is a divisor. If a divisor is found, \( n \) is not prime. A more efficient approach is to check whether any of the prime numbers less than or equal to \( \sqrt{n} \) can divide \( n \) evenly. If not, \( n \) is prime. Rewrite Listing 4.14 to display the first 50 prime numbers using this approach. You need to use an array to store the prime numbers and later use them to check whether they are possible divisors for \( n \).

**6.7** **Count single digits** Write a program that generates 100 random integers between 0 and 9 and displays the count for each number. *(Hint: Use \((\text{int})(\text{Math.random()} \times 10)\) to generate a random integer between 0 and 9. Use an array of ten integers, say \( \text{counts} \), to store the counts for the number of 0s, 1s, ..., 9s.)*

**Sections 6.6–6.8**

6.8  **Average an array** Write two overloaded methods that return the average of an array with the following headers:

```java
public static int average(int[] array)
public static double average(double[] array)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter ten double values, invokes this method, and displays the average value.

6.9  **Find the smallest element** Write a method that finds the smallest element in an array of double values using the following header:

```java
public static double min(double[] array)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter ten numbers, invokes this method to return the minimum value, and displays the minimum value. Here is a sample run of the program:

Enter ten numbers: 1.9 2.5 3.7 2 1.5 6 3 4 5 2
The minimum number is: 1.5

6.10  **Find the index of the smallest element** Write a method that returns the index of the smallest element in an array of integers. If the number of such elements is greater than 1, return the smallest index. Use the following header:

```java
public static int indexOfSmallestElement(double[] array)
```
Write a test program that prompts the user to enter ten numbers, invokes this method to return the index of the smallest element, and displays the index.

*6.11 (Statistics: compute deviation) Programming Exercise 5.37 computes the standard deviation of numbers. This exercise uses a different but equivalent formula to compute the standard deviation of \( n \) numbers.

\[
\text{mean} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n}{n} \quad \text{deviation} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \text{mean})^2}{n - 1}}
\]

To compute the standard deviation with this formula, you have to store the individual numbers using an array, so that they can be used after the mean is obtained.

Your program should contain the following methods:

/* Compute the deviation of double values */
public static double deviation(double[] x)

/* Compute the mean of an array of double values */
public static double mean(double[] x)

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter ten numbers and displays the mean and standard deviation, as shown in the following sample run:

Enter ten numbers: 1.9 2.5 3.7 2 1 6 3 4 5 2
The mean is 3.11
The standard deviation is 1.55738

*6.12 (Reverse an array) The reverse method in Section 6.7 reverses an array by copying it to a new array. Rewrite the method that reverses the array passed in the argument and returns this array. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter ten numbers, invokes the method to reverse the numbers, and displays the numbers.

Section 6.9

*6.13 (Random number chooser) Write a method that returns a random number between 1 and 54, excluding the numbers passed in the argument. The method header is specified as follows:

public static int getRandom(int... numbers)

6.14 (Computing gcd) Write a method that returns the gcd of an unspecified number of integers. The method header is specified as follows:

public static int gcd(int... numbers)

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter five numbers, invokes the method to find the gcd of these numbers, and displays the gcd.

Sections 6.10–6.12

6.15 (Eliminate duplicates) Write a method that returns a new array by eliminating the duplicate values in the array using the following method header:

public static int[] eliminateDuplicates(int[] list)
Write a test program that reads in ten integers, invokes the method, and displays the result. Here is the sample run of the program:

![Image of a computer interface with numbers entered and displayed]

**6.16** *(Execution time)* Write a program that randomly generates an array of 100,000 integers and a key. Estimate the execution time of invoking the `linearSearch` method in Listing 6.6. Sort the array and estimate the execution time of invoking the `binarySearch` method in Listing 6.7. You can use the following code template to obtain the execution time:

```java
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
perform the task;
long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
long executionTime = endTime - startTime;
```

**6.17** *(Sort students)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter the number of students, the students’ names, and their scores, and prints student names in decreasing order of their scores.

**6.18** *(Bubble sort)* Write a sort method that uses the bubble-sort algorithm. The bubble-sort algorithm makes several passes through the array. On each pass, successive neighboring pairs are compared. If a pair is not in order, its values are swapped; otherwise, the values remain unchanged. The technique is called a *bubble sort* or *sinking sort* because the smaller values gradually “bubble” their way to the top and the larger values “sink” to the bottom. Write a test program that reads in ten double numbers, invokes the method, and displays the sorted numbers.

**6.19** *(Sorted?)* Write the following method that returns true if the list is already sorted in increasing order.

```java
public static boolean isSorted(int[] list)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a list and displays whether the list is sorted or not. Here is a sample run. Note that the first number in the input indicates the number of the elements in the list.

![Image of a computer interface with numbers entered and displayed]

*6.20** *(Revise selection sort)* In Section 6.11.1, you used selection sort to sort an array. The selection-sort method repeatedly finds the smallest number in the current array and swaps it with the first. Rewrite this program by finding the largest number and swapping it with the last. Write a test program that reads in ten double numbers, invokes the method, and displays the sorted numbers.

***6.21** *(Game: bean machine)* The bean machine, also known as a quincunx or the Galton box, is a device for statistics experiments named after English scientist Sir Francis Galton. It consists of an upright board with evenly spaced nails (or pegs) in a triangular form, as shown in Figure 6.15.
Balls are dropped from the opening of the board. Every time a ball hits a nail, it has a 50% chance of falling to the left or to the right. The piles of balls are accumulated in the slots at the bottom of the board.

Write a program that simulates the bean machine. Your program should prompt the user to enter the number of the balls and the number of the slots in the machine. Simulate the falling of each ball by printing its path. For example, the path for the ball in Figure 6.15b is LLRLLRR and the path for the ball in Figure 6.15c is RLRRLLRR. Display the final buildup of the balls in the slots in a histogram. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the number of balls to drop: 5
Enter the number of slots in the bean machine: 7

LRLRLRR
RRLLRR
LLRLRR
RRLLLL
LRLRLL
    0
    0
    00

(Hint: Create an array named slots. Each element in slots stores the number of balls in a slot. Each ball falls into a slot via a path. The number of Rs in a path is the position of the slot where the ball falls. For example, for the path LRLRLRR, the ball falls into slots[4], and for the path is RRLLLL, the ball falls into slots[2].)

***6.22 (Game: Eight Queens) The classic Eight Queens puzzle is to place eight queens on a chessboard such that no two queens can attack each other (i.e., no two queens are on the same row, same column, or same diagonal). There are many possible solutions. Write a program that displays one such solution. A sample output is shown below:

```
```

(a) (b) (c)

Figure 6.15 Each ball takes a random path and falls into a slot.
Chapter 6  Single-Dimensional Arrays

**6.23 (Game: locker puzzle) A school has 100 lockers and 100 students. All lockers are closed on the first day of school. As the students enter, the first student, denoted S1, opens every locker. Then the second student, S2, begins with the second locker, denoted L2, and closes every other locker. Student S3 begins with the third locker and changes every third locker (closes it if it was open, and opens it if it was closed). Student S4 begins with locker L4 and changes every fourth locker. Student S5 starts with L5 and changes every fifth locker, and so on, until student S100 changes L100.

After all the students have passed through the building and changed the lockers, which lockers are open? Write a program to find your answer.

(Hint: Use an array of 100 Boolean elements, each of which indicates whether a locker is open (true) or closed (false). Initially, all lockers are closed.)

**6.24 (Simulation: coupon collector’s problem) Coupon collector is a classic statistics problem with many practical applications. The problem is to pick objects from a set of objects repeatedly and find out how many picks are needed for all the objects to be picked at least once. A variation of the problem is to pick cards from a shuffled deck of 52 cards repeatedly and find out how many picks are needed before you see one of each suit. Assume a picked card is placed back in the deck before picking another. Write a program to simulate the number of picks needed to get four cards from each suit and display the four cards picked (it is possible a card may be picked twice). Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Queen of Spades
5 of Clubs
Queen of Hearts
4 of Diamonds
Number of picks: 12
```

6.25 (Algebra: solve quadratic equations) Write a method for solving a quadratic equation using the following header:

```
public static int solveQuadratic(double[] eqn, double[] roots)
```

The coefficients of a quadratic equation \( ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \) are passed to the array eqn and the noncomplex roots are stored in roots. The method returns the number of roots. See Programming Exercise 3.1 on how to solve a quadratic equation.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter values for \( a \), \( b \), and \( c \) and displays the number of roots and all noncomplex roots.

6.26 (Strictly identical arrays) The arrays list1 and list2 are strictly identical if their corresponding elements are equal. Write a method that returns true if list1 and list2 are strictly identical, using the following header:

```
public static boolean equals(int[] list1, int[] list2)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two lists of integers and displays whether the two are strictly identical. Here are the sample runs. Note that the first number in the input indicates the number of the elements in the list.

```
Enter list1: 5 2 5 6 1 6
Enter list2: 5 2 5 6 1 6
Two lists are strictly identical
```
6.27 (Identical arrays) The arrays list1 and list2 are identical if they have the same contents. Write a method that returns true if list1 and list2 are identical, using the following header:

```java
public static boolean equals(int[] list1, int[] list2)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two lists of integers and displays whether the two are identical. Here are the sample runs. Note that the first number in the input indicates the number of the elements in the list.

```
Enter list1: 5 2 5 6 1
Enter list2: 5 2 5 6 1 6
Two lists are not strictly identical
```

```
Enter list1: 5 2 5 6 1
Enter list2: 5 2 5 6 1 6
Two lists are strictly identical
```

```
Enter list1: 5 2 5 6 1
Enter list2: 5 5 2 6 1 6
Two lists are not identical
```

*6.28 (Math: combinations) Write a program that prompts the user to enter 10 integers and displays all combinations of picking two numbers from the 10.

*6.29 (Game: pick four cards) Write a program that picks four cards from a deck of 52 cards and computes their sum. An Ace, King, Queen, and Jack represent 1, 13, 12, and 11, respectively. Your program should display the number of picks that yields the sum of 24.

*6.30 (Pattern recognition: consecutive four equal numbers) Write the following method that tests whether the array has four consecutive numbers with the same value.

```java
public static boolean isConsecutiveFour(int[] values)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a series of integers and displays true if the series contains four consecutive numbers with the same value. Otherwise, display false. Your program should first prompt the user to enter the input size—i.e., the number of values in the series.

**6.31 (Merge two sorted lists) Write the following method that merges two sorted lists into a new sorted list.

```java
public static int[] merge(int[] list1, int[] list2)
```

Implement the method in a way that takes `list1.length + list2.length` comparisons. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two sorted lists and displays the merged list. Here is a sample run. Note that the first number in the input indicates the number of the elements in the list.
**6.32** (Partition of a list) Write the following method that partitions the list using the first element, called a pivot.

```java
public static int partition(int[] list)
```

After the partition, the elements in the list are rearranged so that all the elements before the pivot are less than or equal to the pivot and the elements after the pivot are greater than the pivot. The method returns the index where the pivot is located in the new list. For example, suppose the list is [5, 2, 9, 3, 6, 8]. After the partition, the list becomes [3, 2, 9, 5, 6, 8]. Implement the method in a way that takes `list.length` comparisons. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a list and displays the list after the partition. Here is a sample run. Note that the first number in the input indicates the number of the elements in the list.

Enter list:
After the partition, the list is 9 1 5 1 10 61 11 16 8 10 1 5 16 61 9 11 1

*6.33* (Culture: Chinese Zodiac) Simplify Listing 3.10 using an array of strings to store the animal names.

***6.34*** (Game: multiple Eight Queens solutions) Exercise 6.22 finds one solution for the Eight Queens problem. Write a program to count all possible solutions for the Eight Queens problem and display all solutions.
MULTIDIMENSIONAL ARRAYS

Objectives

- To give examples of representing data using two-dimensional arrays (§7.1).
- To declare variables for two-dimensional arrays, create arrays, and access array elements in a two-dimensional array using row and column indexes (§7.2).
- To program common operations for two-dimensional arrays (displaying arrays, summing all elements, finding the minimum and maximum elements, and random shuffling) (§7.3).
- To pass two-dimensional arrays to methods (§7.4).
- To write a program for grading multiple-choice questions using two-dimensional arrays (§7.5).
- To solve the closest-pair problem using two-dimensional arrays (§7.6).
- To check a Sudoku solution using two-dimensional arrays (§7.7).
- To use multidimensional arrays (§7.8).
7.1 Introduction

Data in a table or a matrix can be represented using a two-dimensional array.

The preceding chapter introduced how to use one-dimensional arrays to store linear collections of elements. You can use a two-dimensional array to store a matrix or a table. For example, the following table that lists the distances between cities can be stored using a two-dimensional array named `distances`.

```
double[][] distances = {
    {0, 983, 787, 714, 1375, 967, 1087},
    {983, 0, 214, 1102, 1763, 1723, 1842},
    {787, 214, 0, 888, 1549, 1548, 1627},
    {714, 1102, 888, 0, 661, 781, 810},
    {1375, 1763, 1549, 661, 0, 1426, 1187},
    {967, 1723, 1548, 781, 1426, 0, 239},
    {1087, 1842, 1627, 810, 1187, 239, 0}
};
```

### Key Point

**7.2 Two-Dimensional Array Basics**

An element in a two-dimensional array is accessed through a row and column index.

How do you declare a variable for two-dimensional arrays? How do you create a two-dimensional array? How do you access elements in a two-dimensional array? This section addresses these issues.

#### 7.2.1 Declaring Variables of Two-Dimensional Arrays and Creating Two-Dimensional Arrays

The syntax for declaring a two-dimensional array is:

```
elementType[][] arrayRefVar;
```

or

```
elementType arrayRefVar[][]; // Allowed, but not preferred
```

As an example, here is how you would declare a two-dimensional array variable `matrix` of `int` values:

```
int[][] matrix;
```
7.2 Two-Dimensional Array Basics

or

```java
int matrix[][]; // This style is allowed, but not preferred
```

You can create a two-dimensional array of 5-by-5 `int` values and assign it to `matrix` using this syntax:

```java
matrix = new int[5][5];
```

Two subscripts are used in a two-dimensional array, one for the row and the other for the column. As in a one-dimensional array, the index for each subscript is of the `int` type and starts from 0, as shown in Figure 7.1a.

```plaintext
[0][1][2][3][4]
[0] 0 0 0 0 0
[1] 0 0 0 0 0
[2] 0 0 0 0 0
[3] 0 0 0 0 0
[4] 0 0 0 0 0
```

```
matrix = new int[5][5];
```

To assign the value 7 to a specific element at row 2 and column 1, as shown in Figure 7.1b, you can use the following syntax:

```java
matrix[2][1] = 7;
```

**Caution**

It is a common mistake to use `matrix[2, 1]` to access the element at row 2 and column 1. In Java, each subscript must be enclosed in a pair of square brackets.

You can also use an array initializer to declare, create, and initialize a two-dimensional array. For example, the following code in (a) creates an array with the specified initial values, as shown in Figure 7.1c. This is equivalent to the code in (b).

```java
int[][] array = {
    {1, 2, 3},
    {4, 5, 6},
    {7, 8, 9},
    {10, 11, 12}
};
```

**Equivalent**

```java
int[][] array = new int[4][3];
array[0][0] = 1; array[0][1] = 2; array[0][2] = 3;
array[1][0] = 4; array[1][1] = 5; array[1][2] = 6;
array[2][0] = 7; array[2][1] = 8; array[2][2] = 9;
array[3][0] = 10; array[3][1] = 11; array[3][2] = 12;
```

7.2.2 Obtaining the Lengths of Two-Dimensional Arrays

A two-dimensional array is actually an array in which each element is a one-dimensional array. The length of an array `x` is the number of elements in the array, which can be obtained using `x.length`, `x[0]`, `x[1]`, . . . , and `x[x.length-1]` are arrays. Their lengths can be obtained using `x[0].length`, `x[1].length`, . . . , and `x[x.length-1].length`. 
Chapter 7  Multidimensional Arrays

For example, suppose \( x = \text{new int}[3][4] \), \( x[0] \), \( x[1] \), and \( x[2] \) are one-dimensional arrays and each contains four elements, as shown in Figure 7.2. \( x\.length \) is 3, and \( x[0].length \), \( x[1].length \), and \( x[2].length \) are 4.

![Figure 7.2 A two-dimensional array is a one-dimensional array in which each element is another one-dimensional array.](image)

7.2.3  Ragged Arrays

Each row in a two-dimensional array is itself an array. Thus, the rows can have different lengths. An array of this kind is known as a ragged array. Here is an example of creating a ragged array:

```java
int[][] triangleArray = {
    {1, 2, 3, 4, 5},
    {2, 3, 4, 5},
    {3, 4, 5},
    {4, 5},
    {5}
};
```

As you can see, \( \text{triangleArray}[0].length \) is 5, \( \text{triangleArray}[1].length \) is 4, \( \text{triangleArray}[2].length \) is 3, \( \text{triangleArray}[3].length \) is 2, and \( \text{triangleArray}[4].length \) is 1.

If you don’t know the values in a ragged array in advance, but do know the sizes—say, the same as before—you can create a ragged array using the following syntax:

```java
int[][] triangleArray = \text{new int}[5][];
triangleArray[0] = \text{new int}[5];
triangleArray[1] = \text{new int}[4];
triangleArray[2] = \text{new int}[3];
triangleArray[3] = \text{new int}[2];
triangleArray[4] = \text{new int}[1];
```

You can now assign values to the array. For example,

```java
triangleArray[0][3] = 50;
triangleArray[4][0] = 45;
```

Note

The syntax \( \text{new int}[5][] \) for creating an array requires the first index to be specified. The syntax \( \text{new int}[][] \) would be wrong.

Check Point

7.1  Declare an array reference variable for a two-dimensional array of \text{int} values, create a 4-by-5 \text{int} matrix, and assign it to the variable.
7.2 Can the rows in a two-dimensional array have different lengths?

7.3 What is the output of the following code?

```java
int[][] array = new int[5][6];
int[] x = {1, 2};
array[0] = x;
System.out.println("array[0][1] is " + array[0][1]);
```

7.4 Which of the following statements are valid?

```java
int[][] r = new int[2];
int[] x = new int[];
int[][] y = new int[3][];
int[][] z = {{{1, 2}}};
int[][] m = {{{1, 2}, {2, 3}}};
int[][] n = {{{1, 2}, {2, 3}}};
```

7.3 Processing Two-Dimensional Arrays

**Nested for loops are often used to process a two-dimensional array.**

Suppose an array `matrix` is created as follows:

```java
int[][] matrix = new int[10][10];
```

The following are some examples of processing two-dimensional arrays.

1. Initializing arrays with input values. The following loop initializes the array with user input values:

```java
java.util.Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
System.out.println("Enter " + matrix.length + " rows and " + matrix[0].length + " columns:");
for (int row = 0; row < matrix.length; row++) {
    for (int column = 0; column < matrix[row].length; column++) {
        matrix[row][column] = input.nextInt();
    }
}
```

2. Initializing arrays with random values. The following loop initializes the array with random values between 0 and 99:

```java
for (int row = 0; row < matrix.length; row++) {
    for (int column = 0; column < matrix[row].length; column++) {
        matrix[row][column] = (int)(Math.random() * 100);
    }
}
```

3. Printing arrays. To print a two-dimensional array, you have to print each element in the array using a loop like the following:

```java
for (int row = 0; row < matrix.length; row++) {
    for (int column = 0; column < matrix[row].length; column++) {
        System.out.print(matrix[row][column] + " ");
    }
    System.out.println();
}
```
4. Summing all elements. Use a variable named `total` to store the sum. Initially `total` is 0. Add each element in the array to `total` using a loop like this:

```java
int total = 0;
for (int row = 0; row < matrix.length; row++) {
    for (int column = 0; column < matrix[row].length; column++) {
        total += matrix[row][column];
    }
}
```

5. Summing elements by column. For each column, use a variable named `total` to store its sum. Add each element in the column to `total` using a loop like this:

```java
for (int column = 0; column < matrix[0].length; column++) {
    int total = 0;
    for (int row = 0; row < matrix.length; row++) {
        total += matrix[row][column];
    }
    System.out.println("Sum for column " + column + " is " + total);
}
```

6. Which row has the largest sum? Use variables `maxRow` and `indexOfMaxRow` to track the largest sum and index of the row. For each row, compute its sum and update `maxRow` and `indexOfMaxRow` if the new sum is greater.

```java
int maxRow = 0;
int indexOfMaxRow = 0;

// Get sum of the first row in maxRow
for (int column = 0; column < matrix[0].length; column++) {
    maxRow += matrix[0][column];
}

for (int row = 1; row < matrix.length; row++) {
    int totalOfThisRow = 0;
    for (int column = 0; column < matrix[row].length; column++) {
        totalOfThisRow += matrix[row][column];
    }
    if (totalOfThisRow > maxRow) {
        maxRow = totalOfThisRow;
        indexOfMaxRow = row;
    }
}
System.out.println("Row "+indexOfMaxRow + " has the maximum sum of " + maxRow);
```

7. Random shuffling. Shuffling the elements in a one-dimensional array was introduced in Section 6.2.6. How do you shuffle all the elements in a two-dimensional array? To accomplish this, for each element `matrix[i][j]`, randomly generate indices `i1` and `j1` and swap `matrix[i][j]` with `matrix[i1][j1]`, as follows:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < matrix[i].length; j++) {
        int i1 = (int)(Math.random() * matrix.length);
        int j1 = (int)(Math.random() * matrix[i].length);

        // Swap matrix[i][j] with matrix[i1][j1]
        int temp = matrix[i][j];
        matrix[i][j] = matrix[i1][j1];
        matrix[i1][j1] = temp;
    }
}
```
7.4 Passing Two-Dimensional Arrays to Methods

When passing a two-dimensional array to a method, the reference of the array is passed to the method.

You can pass a two-dimensional array to a method just as you pass a one-dimensional array. You can also return an array from a method. Listing 7.1 gives an example with two methods. The first method, getArray(), returns a two-dimensional array, and the second method, sum(int[][] m), returns the sum of all the elements in a matrix.

**LISTING 7.1 PassTwoDimensionalArray.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class PassTwoDimensionalArray {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[][] m = getArray(); // Get an array
        // Display sum of elements
        System.out.println("Sum of all elements is " + sum(m));
    }

    public static int[][] getArray() {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Enter array values
        int[][] m = new int[3][4];
        System.out.println("Enter " + m.length + " rows and "
                         + m[0].length + " columns: ");
        for (int i = 0; i < m.length; i++)
            for (int j = 0; j < m[i].length; j++)
                m[i][j] = input.nextInt();
        return m;
    }

    public static int sum(int[][] m) {
        int total = 0;
        for (int row = 0; row < m.length; row++)
            for (int column = 0; column < m[row].length; column++)
                total += m[row][column];
        return total;
    }
}
```
Enter 3 rows and 4 columns:

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\
9 & 10 & 11 & 12
\end{array}
\]

Sum of all elements is 78

The method `getArray` prompts the user to enter values for the array (lines 11–24) and returns the array (line 23).

The method `sum` (lines 26–35) has a two-dimensional array argument. You can obtain the number of rows using `m.length` (line 28) and the number of columns in a specified row using `m[row].length` (line 29).

### 7.5 Case Study: Grading a Multiple-Choice Test

The problem is to write a program that will grade multiple-choice tests.

Suppose you need to write a program that grades multiple-choice tests. Assume there are eight students and ten questions, and the answers are stored in a two-dimensional array. Each row records a student’s answers to the questions, as shown in the following array.

**Students’ Answers to the Questions:**

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\
A & B & A & C & D & E & E & A & D \\
D & B & A & B & C & A & E & E & A & D \\
E & D & D & A & C & B & E & E & A & D \\
C & B & A & E & D & C & E & E & A & D \\
A & B & D & C & C & D & E & E & A & D \\
B & B & E & C & D & E & E & A & D \\
B & B & A & C & C & D & E & E & A & D \\
E & B & E & C & C & D & E & E & A & D
\end{array}
\]
The key is stored in a one-dimensional array:

```
Key to the Questions:
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Key  D B D C C D A E A D
```

Your program grades the test and displays the result. It compares each student’s answers with the key, counts the number of correct answers, and displays it. Listing 7.2 gives the program.

**Listing 7.2 GradeExam.java**

```java
public class GradeExam {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Students' answers to the questions
        char[][] answers = {
            {'A', 'B', 'A', 'C', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
            {'E', 'D', 'D', 'C', 'B', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
            {'C', 'B', 'A', 'E', 'D', 'C', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
            {'A', 'B', 'D', 'C', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
            {'B', 'B', 'E', 'C', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
            {'B', 'B', 'A', 'C', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'E', 'A', 'D'},
        };

        // Key to the questions

        // Grade all answers
        for (int i = 0; i < answers.length; i++) {
            // Grade one student
            int correctCount = 0;
            for (int j = 0; j < answers[i].length; j++) {
                if (answers[i][j] == keys[j])
                    correctCount++;
            }
            System.out.println("Student "+i+"'s correct count is "+correctCount);
        }
    }
}
```

The statement in lines 5–13 declares, creates, and initializes a two-dimensional array of characters and assigns the reference to `answers` of the `char[][]` type.

The statement in line 16 declares, creates, and initializes an array of `char` values and assigns the reference to `keys` of the `char[]` type.
Each row in the array `answers` stores a student’s answer, which is graded by comparing it with the key in the array `keys`. The result is displayed immediately after a student’s answer is graded.

### 7.6 Case Study: Finding the Closest Pair

*This section presents a geometric problem for finding the closest pair of points.*

Given a set of points, the closest-pair problem is to find the two points that are nearest to each other. In Figure 7.3, for example, points \((1, 1)\) and \((2, 0.5)\) are closest to each other. There are several ways to solve this problem. An intuitive approach is to compute the distances between all pairs of points and find the one with the minimum distance, as implemented in Listing 7.3.

![Points can be represented in a two-dimensional array.](figure7_3.png)

**Figure 7.3** Points can be represented in a two-dimensional array.

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class FindNearestPoints {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter the number of points: ");
        int numberOfPoints = input.nextInt();
        double[][] points = new double[numberOfPoints][2];
        System.out.print("Enter " + numberOfPoints + " points: ");

        for (int i = 0; i < points.length; i++) {
            points[i][0] = input.nextDouble();
            points[i][1] = input.nextDouble();
        }

        int p1 = 0, p2 = 1; // Initial two points
        double shortestDistance = distance(points[p1][0], points[p1][1], points[p2][0], points[p2][1]); // Initialize shortestDistance

        for (int i = 0; i < points.length; i++) {
            // Compute distance for every two points
            for (int j = i + 1; j < points.length; j++) {
                double currentDistance = distance(points[i][0], points[i][1], points[j][0], points[j][1]);
                if (currentDistance < shortestDistance) {
                    shortestDistance = currentDistance;
                    p1 = i;
                    p2 = j;
                }
            }
        }
        System.out.println("The closest pair of points is \((" + points[p1][0] + ", " + points[p1][1] + ") and \((" + points[p2][0] + ", " + points[p2][1] + ")\)
        System.out.println("The distance is "+ shortestDistance);  // Display the closest pair
    }

    public static double distance(double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2) {
        return Math.sqrt(Math.pow(x1 - x2, 2) + Math.pow(y1 - y2, 2));
    }
}
```

**Listing 7.3** `FindNearestPoints.java`
```java
for (int j = i + 1; j < points.length; j++) {
    double distance = distance(points[i][0], points[i][1],
                                points[j][0], points[j][1]); // Find distance

    if (shortestDistance > distance) {
        p1 = i; // Update p1
        p2 = j; // Update p2
        shortestDistance = distance; // Update shortestDistance
    }
}
}
```

```java
/** Compute the distance between two points (x1, y1) and (x2, y2)*/
public static double distance(
    double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2) {
    return Math.sqrt((x2 - x1) * (x2 - x1) + (y2 - y1) * (y2 - y1));
}
```

Enter the number of points: 8
Enter 8 points: -1 3 -1 -1 1 1 2 0.5 2 -1 3 3 4 2 4 -0.5
The closest two points are (1, 1) and (2, 0.5)

The program prompts the user to enter the number of points (lines 6–7). The points are read from the console and stored in a two-dimensional array named `points` (lines 12–15). The program uses the variable `shortestDistance` (line 19) to store the distance between the two nearest points, and the indices of these two points in the `points` array are stored in `p1` and `p2` (line 18).

For each point at index `i`, the program computes the distance between `points[i]` and `points[j]` for all `j > i` (lines 23–34). Whenever a shorter distance is found, the variable `shortestDistance` and `p1` and `p2` are updated (lines 28–32).

The distance between two points `(x1, y1)` and `(x2, y2)` can be computed using the formula $\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$ (lines 43–46).

The program assumes that the plane has at least two points. You can easily modify the program to handle the case if the plane has zero or one point.

Note that there might be more than one closest pair of points with the same minimum distance. The program finds one such pair. You may modify the program to find all closest pairs in Programming Exercise 7.8.

**Tip**
It is cumbersome to enter all points from the keyboard. You may store the input in a file, say `FindNearestPoints.txt`, and compile and run the program using the following command:

```
java FindNearestPoints < FindNearestPoints.txt
```
7.7 Case Study: Sudoku

The problem is to check whether a given Sudoku solution is correct.

This section presents an interesting problem of a sort that appears in the newspaper every day. It is a number-placement puzzle, commonly known as Sudoku. This is a very challenging problem. To make it accessible to the novice, this section presents a solution to a simplified version of the Sudoku problem, which is to verify whether a solution is correct. The complete solution for solving the Sudoku problem is presented in Supplement VI.A.

Sudoku is a grid divided into smaller \( 3 \times 3 \) boxes (also called regions or blocks), as shown in Figure 7.4a. Some cells, called fixed cells, are populated with numbers from 1 to 9. The objective is to fill the empty cells, also called free cells, with the numbers 1 to 9 so that every row, every column, and every \( 3 \times 3 \) box contains the numbers 1 to 9, as shown in Figure 7.4b.

![Figure 7.4](image_url)

For convenience, we use value 0 to indicate a free cell, as shown in Figure 7.5a. The grid can be naturally represented using a two-dimensional array, as shown in Figure 7.5b.

![Figure 7.5](image_url)

To find a solution for the puzzle, we must replace each 0 in the grid with an appropriate number from 1 to 9. For the solution to the puzzle in Figure 7.5, the grid should be as shown in Figure 7.6.

Once a solution to a Sudoku puzzle is found, how do you verify that it is correct? Here are two approaches:

- Check if every row has numbers from 1 to 9, every column has numbers from 1 to 9, and every small box has numbers from 1 to 9.
Check each cell. Each cell must be a number from 1 to 9 and the cell must be unique on every row, every column, and every small box.

A solution grid is

```
{5, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 1, 2},
{6, 7, 2, 1, 9, 5, 3, 4, 8},
{1, 9, 8, 3, 4, 2, 5, 6, 7},
{8, 5, 9, 7, 6, 1, 4, 2, 3},
{4, 2, 6, 8, 5, 3, 7, 9, 1},
{7, 1, 3, 9, 2, 4, 8, 5, 6},
{9, 6, 1, 5, 3, 7, 2, 8, 4},
{2, 8, 7, 4, 1, 9, 6, 3, 5},
{3, 4, 5, 2, 8, 6, 1, 7, 9}
```

Figure 7.6 A solution is stored in grid.

The program in Listing 7.4 prompts the user to enter a solution and reports whether it is valid. We use the second approach in the program to check whether the solution is correct.

### Listing 7.4 CheckSudokuSolution.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class CheckSudokuSolution {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Read a Sudoku solution
    int[][] grid = readASolution();

    System.out.println(isValid(grid) ? "Valid solution" : "Invalid solution");
  }

  /** Read a Sudoku solution from the console */
  public static int[][] readASolution() {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

    System.out.println("Enter a Sudoku puzzle solution:");
    int[][] grid = new int[9][9];
    for (int i = 0; i < 9; i++)
      for (int j = 0; j < 9; j++)
        grid[i][j] = input.nextInt();

    return grid;
  }

  /** Check whether a solution is valid */
  public static boolean isValid(int[][] grid) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 9; i++)
      for (int j = 0; j < 9; j++)
        if (grid[i][j] < 1 || grid[i][j] > 9 || !isValid(i, j, grid))
          return false;
    return true; // The solution is valid
  }

  /** Check whether grid[i][j] is valid in the grid */
  public static boolean isValid(int i, int j, int[][] grid) {
    // Check whether grid[i][j] is valid in i's row
  }
}
```
check rows
39
for (int column = 0; column < 9; column++)
40  
41  
42  if (column != j && grid[i][column] == grid[i][j])
43    return false;
44
45  // Check whether grid[i][j] is valid in j's column
46  for (int row = 0; row < 9; row++)
47    if (row != i && grid[row][j] == grid[i][j])
48      return false;
49
columns
50
51  // Check whether grid[i][j] is valid in the 3-by-3 box
52  for (int row = (i / 3) * 3; row < (i / 3) * 3 + 3; row++)
53    for (int col = (j / 3) * 3; col < (j / 3) * 3 + 3; col++)
54      if (row != i && col != j && grid[row][col] == grid[i][j])
55        return false;
56
57  return true; // The current value at grid[i][j] is valid
58
59

Enter a Sudoku puzzle solution:
9 6 3 1 7 4 2 5 8
1 7 8 3 2 5 6 4 9
2 5 4 6 8 9 7 3 1
8 2 1 4 3 7 5 9 6
4 9 6 8 5 2 3 1 7
7 3 5 9 6 1 8 2 4
5 8 9 7 1 3 4 6 2
3 1 7 2 4 6 9 8 5
6 4 2 5 9 8 1 7 3
Valid solution

The program invokes the readASolution() method (line 6) to read a Sudoku solution and return a two-dimensional array representing a Sudoku grid.

isValid method

The isValid(grid) method checks whether the values in the grid are valid by verifying that each value is between 1 and 9 and that each value is valid in the grid (lines 27–34).

overloaded isValid method

The isValid(i, j, grid) method checks whether the value at grid[i][j] is valid. It checks whether grid[i][j] appears more than once in row i (lines 39–41), in column j (lines 44–46), and in the 3 × 3 box (lines 49–52).

How do you locate all the cells in the same box? For any grid[i][j], the starting cell of the 3 × 3 box that contains it is grid[(i / 3) * 3][(j / 3) * 3], as illustrated in Figure 7.7.

For any grid[i][j] in this 3 by 3 box, its starting cell is grid[3*(i/3)][3*(j/3)] (i.e., grid[0][6]). For example, for grid[2][8], i=2 and j=8, 3*(i/3)=0 and 3*(j/3)=6.

For any grid[i][j] in this 3 by 3 box, its starting cell is grid[3*(i/3)][3*(j/3)] (i.e., grid[6][3]). For example, for grid[8][5], i=8 and j=5, 3*(i/3)=6 and 3*(j/3)=3.

FIGURE 7.7 The location of the first cell in a 3 × 3 box determines the locations of other cells in the box.
With this observation, you can easily identify all the cells in the box. For instance, if \texttt{grid[r][c]} is the starting cell of a $3 \times 3$ box, the cells in the box can be traversed in a nested loop as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
// Get all cells in a 3-by-3 box starting at grid[r][c]
for (int row = r; row < r + 3; row++)
  for (int col = c; col < c + 3; col++)
    // grid[row][col] is in the box
\end{verbatim}

It is cumbersome to enter 81 numbers from the console. When you test the program, you may store the input in a file, say \texttt{CheckSudokuSolution.txt} (see \url{www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/CheckSudokuSolution.txt}), and run the program using the following command:

\texttt{java CheckSudokuSolution < CheckSudokuSolution.txt}

\section*{7.8 Multidimensional Arrays}

\textit{A two-dimensional array consists of an array of one-dimensional arrays and a three-dimensional array consists of an array of two-dimensional arrays.}

In the preceding section, you used a two-dimensional array to represent a matrix or a table. Occasionally, you will need to represent \textit{n}-dimensional data structures. In Java, you can create \textit{n}-dimensional arrays for any integer \textit{n}.

The way to declare two-dimensional array variables and create two-dimensional arrays can be generalized to declare \textit{n}-dimensional array variables and create \textit{n}-dimensional arrays for \textit{n} \geq 3. For example, you may use a three-dimensional array to store exam scores for a class of six students with five exams, and each exam has two parts (multiple-choice and essay). The following syntax declares a three-dimensional array variable \texttt{scores}, creates an array, and assigns its reference to \texttt{scores}.

\begin{verbatim}
double[][][] scores = new double[6][5][2];
\end{verbatim}

You can also use the short-hand notation to create and initialize the array as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
double[][][] scores = {
  {{7.5, 20.5}, {9.0, 22.5}, {15, 33.5}, {13, 21.5}, {15, 2.5}},
  {{4.5, 21.5}, {9.0, 22.5}, {15, 34.5}, {12, 20.5}, {14, 9.5}},
  {{6.5, 30.5}, {9.4, 10.5}, {11, 33.5}, {11, 23.5}, {10, 2.5}},
  {{6.5, 23.5}, {9.4, 32.5}, {13, 34.5}, {11, 20.5}, {16, 7.5}},
  {{8.5, 26.5}, {9.4, 52.5}, {13, 36.5}, {13, 24.5}, {16, 2.5}},
  {{9.5, 20.5}, {9.4, 42.5}, {13, 31.5}, {12, 20.5}, {16, 6.5}}
};
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{scores[0][1][0]} refers to the multiple-choice score for the first student’s second exam, which is 9.0. \texttt{scores[0][1][1]} refers to the essay score for the first student’s second exam, which is 22.5. This is depicted in the following figure:

\begin{verbatim}
Which student Which exam Multiple-choice or essay
   |          |          |
   v          v          v
\hspace{2.5cm}\texttt{scores[i][j][k]}
\end{verbatim}

A multidimensional array is actually an array in which each element is another array. A three-dimensional array consists of an array of two-dimensional arrays. A two-dimensional array consists of an array of one-dimensional arrays. For example, suppose \texttt{x = new int[2][2][5]}, and \texttt{x[0]} and \texttt{x[1]} are two-dimensional arrays. \texttt{X[0][0]}, \texttt{x[0][1]}, \texttt{x[1][0]}, and \texttt{x[1][1]} are one-dimensional arrays and each contains five elements.
Chapter 7 Multidimensional Arrays

\[ x.length \text{ is } 2, \ x[0].length \text{ and } x[1].length \text{ are } 2, \text{ and } X[0][0].length, \ x[0][1].length, x[1][0].length, \text{ and } x[1][1].length \text{ are } 5. \]

7.8.1 Case Study: Daily Temperature and Humidity

Suppose a meteorology station records the temperature and humidity every hour of every day and stores the data for the past ten days in a text file named Weather.txt (see www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Weather.txt). Each line of the file consists of four numbers that indicate the day, hour, temperature, and humidity. The contents of the file may look like the one in (a).

Note that the lines in the file are not necessarily in increasing order of day and hour. For example, the file may appear as shown in (b).

Your task is to write a program that calculates the average daily temperature and humidity for the 10 days. You can use the input redirection to read the file and store the data in a three-dimensional array named data. The first index of data ranges from 0 to 9 and represents 10 days, the second index ranges from 0 to 23 and represents 24 hours, and the third index ranges from 0 to 1 and represents temperature and humidity, as depicted in the following figure:

Which day
\[
\text{data} \[ i \] \[ j \] \[ k \]
\]

Which hour

Temperature or humidity

Note that the days are numbered from 1 to 10 and the hours from 1 to 24 in the file. Because the array index starts from 0, data[0][0][0] stores the temperature in day 1 at hour 1 and data[9][23][1] stores the humidity in day 10 at hour 24.

The program is given in Listing 7.5.

**LISTING 7.5 Weather.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Weather {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final int NUMBER_OF_DAYS = 10;
        final int NUMBER_OF_HOURS = 24;
        double[][][] data = new double[NUMBER_OF_DAYS][NUMBER_OF_HOURS][2];

        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Read input using input redirection from a file
        for (int k = 0; k < NUMBER_OF_DAYS * NUMBER_OF_HOURS; k++) {
            int day = input.nextInt();
            int hour = input.nextInt();
            double temperature = input.nextDouble();
            double humidity = input.nextDouble();
            data[day - 1][hour - 1][0] = temperature;
            data[day - 1][hour - 1][1] = humidity;
        }
    }
}
```
7.8 Multidimensional Arrays

```java
    data[day - 1][hour - 1][1] = humidity;
    }

    // Find the average daily temperature and humidity
    for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_DAYS; i++) {
        double dailyTemperatureTotal = 0, dailyHumidityTotal = 0;
        for (int j = 0; j < NUMBER_OF_HOURS; j++) {
            dailyTemperatureTotal += data[i][j][0];
            dailyHumidityTotal += data[i][j][1];
        }

        // Display result
        System.out.println("Day "+ i + "'s average temperature is "+ dailyTemperatureTotal / NUMBER_OF_HOURS);
        System.out.println("Day "+ i + "'s average humidity is "+ dailyHumidityTotal / NUMBER_OF_HOURS);
    }
```

Day 0's average temperature is 77.7708
Day 0's average humidity is 0.929583
Day 1's average temperature is 77.3125
Day 1's average humidity is 0.929583
... Day 9's average temperature is 79.3542
Day 9's average humidity is 0.9125

You can use the following command to run the program:

```
java Weather < Weather.txt
```

A three-dimensional array for storing temperature and humidity is created in line 8. The loop in lines 12–19 reads the input to the array. You can enter the input from the keyboard, but doing so will be awkward. For convenience, we store the data in a file and use input redirection to read the data from the file. The loop in lines 24–27 adds all temperatures for each hour in a day to `dailyTemperatureTotal` and all humidity for each hour to `dailyHumidityTotal`. The average daily temperature and humidity are displayed in lines 30–33.

### 7.8.2 Case Study: Guessing Birthdays

Listing 3.3, GuessBirthday.java, gives a program that guesses a birthday. The program can be simplified by storing the numbers in five sets in a three-dimensional array, and it prompts the user for the answers using a loop, as shown in Listing 7.6. The sample run of the program can be the same as shown in Listing 3.3.

#### Listing 7.6 GuessBirthdayUsingArray.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class GuessBirthdayUsingArray {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int day = 0; // Day to be determined
        int answer;

        int[][][] dates = {
            {{1, 3, 5, 7},
             {9, 11, 13, 15},
```
A three-dimensional array `dates` is created in Lines 8–28. This array stores five sets of numbers. Each set is a 4-by-4 two-dimensional array.

The loop starting from line 33 displays the numbers in each set and prompts the user to answer whether the birthday is in the set (lines 41–42). If the day is in the set, the first number (`dates[i][0][0]`) in the set is added to variable `day` (line 45).

7.8 Declare an array variable for a three-dimensional array, create a 4 × 6 × 5 `int` array, and assign its reference to the variable.

7.9 Assume `int[][][] x = new char[12][5][2]`, how many elements are in the array? What are `x.length`, `x[2].length`, and `x[0][0].length`?

7.10 Show the printout of the following code:

```java
int[][][] array = {{{1, 2}, {3, 4}}, {{5, 6}, {7, 8}}};
System.out.println(array[0][0][0]);
System.out.println(array[1][1][1]);
```
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. A two-dimensional array can be used to store a table.
2. A variable for two-dimensional arrays can be declared using the syntax: `elementType[][] arrayVar`.
3. A two-dimensional array can be created using the syntax: `new elementType[ROW_SIZE][COLUMN_SIZE]`.
4. Each element in a two-dimensional array is represented using the syntax: `arrayVar[rowIndex][columnIndex]`.
5. You can create and initialize a two-dimensional array using an array initializer with the syntax: `elementType[][] arrayVar = {{row values}, . . . , {row values}}`.
6. You can use arrays of arrays to form multidimensional arrays. For example, a variable for three-dimensional arrays can be declared as `elementType[][][] arrayVar`, and a three-dimensional array can be created using `new elementType[size1][size2][size3]`.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

*7.1 (Sum elements column by column) Write a method that returns the sum of all the elements in a specified column in a matrix using the following header:

    public static double sumColumn(double[][] m, int columnIndex)

Write a test program that reads a 3-by-4 matrix and displays the sum of each column. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a 3-by-4 matrix row by row:
1.5 2 3 4  [Enter]
5.5 6 7 8  [Enter]
9.5 1 3 1  [Enter]

Sum of the elements at column 0 is 16.5
Sum of the elements at column 1 is 9.0
Sum of the elements at column 2 is 13.0
Sum of the elements at column 3 is 13.0
```

*7.2 (Sum the major diagonal in a matrix) Write a method that sums all the numbers in the major diagonal in an $n \times n$ matrix of integers using the following header:

    public static double sumMajorDiagonal(double[][] m)

Write a test program that reads a 4-by-4 matrix and displays the sum of all its elements on the major diagonal. Here is a sample run:
Enter a 4-by-4 matrix row by row:
1 2 3 4.0
5 6.5 7 8
9 10 11 12
13 14 15 16
Sum of the elements in the major diagonal is 34.5

*7.3 (Sort students on grades) Rewrite Listing 7.2, GradeExam.java, to display the students in increasing order of the number of correct answers.

**7.4 (Compute the weekly hours for each employee) Suppose the weekly hours for all employees are stored in a two-dimensional array. Each row records an employee’s seven-day work hours with seven columns. For example, the following array stores the work hours for eight employees. Write a program that displays employees and their total hours in decreasing order of the total hours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Su</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>Th</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee 0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee 7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.5 (Algebra: add two matrices) Write a method to add two matrices. The header of the method is as follows:

```java
public static double[][] addMatrix(double[][] a, double[][] b)
```

In order to be added, the two matrices must have the same dimensions and the same or compatible types of elements. Let \( \mathbf{c} \) be the resulting matrix. Each element \( c_{ij} \) is \( a_{ij} + b_{ij} \). For example, for two \( 3 \times 3 \) matrices \( \mathbf{a} \) and \( \mathbf{b} \), \( \mathbf{c} \) is

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
  a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\
  a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{pmatrix} + 
\begin{pmatrix}
  b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\
  b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\
  b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33}
\end{pmatrix} = 
\begin{pmatrix}
  a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & a_{13} + b_{13} \\
  a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & a_{23} + b_{23} \\
  a_{31} + b_{31} & a_{32} + b_{32} & a_{33} + b_{33}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two \( 3 \times 3 \) matrices and displays their sum. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter matrix1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Enter matrix2: 0 2 4 1 4.5 2.2 1.1 4.3 5.2
The matrices are added as follows
1.0 2.0 3.0 + 0.0 2.0 4.0 = 1.0 4.0 7.0
4.0 5.0 6.0 + 1.0 4.5 2.2 = 5.0 9.5 8.2
7.0 8.0 9.0 + 1.1 4.3 5.2 = 8.1 12.3 14.2
```
**7.6**  *(Algebra: multiply two matrices)* Write a method to multiply two matrices. The header of the method is:

```java
public static double[][]
multiplyMatrix(double[][] a, double[][] b)
```

To multiply matrix \( a \) by matrix \( b \), the number of columns in \( a \) must be the same as the number of rows in \( b \), and the two matrices must have elements of the same or compatible types. Let \( c \) be the result of the multiplication. Assume the column size of matrix \( a \) is \( n \). Each element \( c_{ij} \) is \( a_{i1} \times b_{1j} + a_{i2} \times b_{2j} + \ldots + a_{in} \times b_{nj} \). For example, for two matrices \( a \) and \( b \), \( c \) is

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
 a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
 a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\
 a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
\times
\begin{bmatrix}
 b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\
 b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\
 b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
 c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\
 c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\
 c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where \( c_{ij} = a_{i1} \times b_{1j} + a_{i2} \times b_{2j} + a_{i3} \times b_{3j} \).

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two matrices and displays their product. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter matrix1: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Enter matrix2: 0 2 4 1 4.5 2.2 1.1 4.3 5.2
The multiplication of the matrices is
1 2 3*0 2.0 4.0 = 5.3 23.9 24
4 5 6 2 1 4.5 2.2 11.6 56.3 58.2
7 8 9 1.1 4.3 5.2 17.9 88.7 92.4
```

*7.7  *(Points nearest to each other)* Listing 7.3 gives a program that finds two points in a two-dimensional space nearest to each other. Revise the program so that it finds two points in a three-dimensional space nearest to each other. Use a two-dimensional array to represent the points. Test the program using the following points:

```java
double[][] points = {{-1, 0, 3}, {-1, -1, -1}, {4, 1, 1},
{2, 0.5, 9}, {3.5, 2, -1}, {3, 1.5, 3}, {-1.5, 4, 2},
{5.5, 4, -0.5}};
```

The formula for computing the distance between two points \((x_1, y_1, z_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2, z_2)\) is \(\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}\).

**7.8**  *(All closest pairs of points)* Revise Listing 7.3, FindNearestPoints.java, to find all closest pairs of points with the same minimum distance.

**7.9**  *(Game: play a tic-tac-toe game)* In a game of tic-tac-toe, two players take turns marking an available cell in a \(3 \times 3\) grid with their respective tokens (either X or O). When one player has placed three tokens in a horizontal, vertical, or diagonal row on the grid, the game is over and that player has won. A draw (no winner) occurs when all the cells on the grid have been filled with tokens and neither player has achieved a win. Create a program for playing tic-tac-toe.

The program prompts two players to enter an X token and O token alternately. Whenever a token is entered, the program redisplayed the board on the console and determines the status of the game (win, draw, or continue). Here is a sample run:
Enter a row (0, 1, or 2) for player X: 1
Enter a column (0, 1, or 2) for player X: 1

Enter a row (0, 1, or 2) for player 0: 1
Enter a column (0, 1, or 2) for player 0: 2

Enter a row (0, 1, or 2) for player X:...

X player won

*7.10  (Largest row and column) Write a program that randomly fills in 0s and 1s into a 4-by-4 matrix, prints the matrix, and finds the first row and column with the most 1s. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
0 0 1 1
0 0 1 1
1 1 0 0
1 0 1 0
```

The largest row index: 2
The largest column index: 2

**7.11  (Game: nine heads and tails) Nine coins are placed in a 3-by-3 matrix with some face up and some face down. You can represent the state of the coins using a 3-by-3 matrix with values 0 (heads) and 1 (tails). Here are some examples:

```
0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0
0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1
0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0
```

0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0
Each state can also be represented using a binary number. For example, the preceding matrices correspond to the numbers:

000010000 101001100 110100001 101110100 100111110

There are a total of 512 possibilities, so you can use decimal numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . , and 511 to represent all states of the matrix. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a number between 0 and 511 and displays the corresponding matrix with the characters H and T. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a number between 0 and 511: 7
H H H
H H H
T T T
```

The user entered 7, which corresponds to 000000111. Since 0 stands for H and 1 for T, the output is correct.

**7.12** (Financial application: compute tax) Rewrite Listing 3.6, ComputeTax.java, using arrays. For each filing status, there are six tax rates. Each rate is applied to a certain amount of taxable income. For example, from the taxable income of $400,000 for a single filer, $8,350 is taxed at 10%, (33,950 – 8,350) at 15%, (82,250 – 33,950) at 25%, (171,550 – 82,550) at 28%, (372,550 – 82,250) at 33%, and (400,000 – 372,950) at 36%. The six rates are the same for all filing statuses, which can be represented in the following array:

```java
double[] rates = {0.10, 0.15, 0.25, 0.28, 0.33, 0.35};
```

The brackets for each rate for all the filing statuses can be represented in a two-dimensional array as follows:

```java
int[][] brackets = {
    {8350, 33950, 82250, 171550, 372950},  // Single filer
    {16700, 67900, 137050, 20885, 372950},  // Married jointly
    {8350, 33950, 68525, 104425, 186475},  // Married separately
    {11950, 45500, 117450, 190200, 372950}  // Head of household
};
```

Suppose the taxable income is $400,000 for single filers. The tax can be computed as follows:

```java
tax = brackets[0][0] * rates[0] +
    (brackets[0][1] – brackets[0][0]) * rates[1] +
    (brackets[0][2] – brackets[0][1]) * rates[2] +
    (brackets[0][3] – brackets[0][2]) * rates[3] +
    (brackets[0][4] – brackets[0][3]) * rates[4] +
    (400000 – brackets[0][4]) * rates[5]
```

**7.13** (Locate the largest element) Write the following method that returns the location of the largest element in a two-dimensional array.

```java
public static int[] locateLargest(double[][] a)
```

The return value is a one-dimensional array that contains two elements. These two elements indicate the row and column indices of the largest element in the two-dimensional array. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a
two-dimensional array and displays the location of the largest element in the array. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of rows and columns of the array: 3 4 Enter
Enter the array:
23.5 35 2 10 Enter
4.5 3 45 3.5 Enter
35 44 5.5 9.6 Enter
The location of the largest element is at (1, 2)
```

**7.14** (Explore matrix) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the length of a square matrix, randomly fills in 0s and 1s into the matrix, prints the matrix, and finds the rows, columns, and diagonals with all 0s or 1s. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the size for the matrix: 4 Enter
0111
0000
0100
1111
All 0s on row 1
All 1s on row 3
No same numbers on a column
No same numbers on the major diagonal
No same numbers on the sub-diagonal
```

**7.15** (Geometry: same line?) Programming Exercise 5.39 gives a method for testing whether three points are on the same line.

Write the following method to test whether all the points in the array `points` are on the same line.

```
public static boolean sameLine(double[][] points)
```

Write a program that prompts the user to enter five points and displays whether they are on the same line. Here are sample runs:

```
Enter five points: 3.4 2 6.5 9.5 2.3 2.3 5.5 5 -5 4 Enter
The five points are not on the same line
```

```
Enter five points: 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4 5 5 Enter
The five points are on the same line
```

**7.16** (Sort two-dimensional array) Write a method to sort a two-dimensional array using the following header:

```
public static void sort(int m[][])
```
The method performs a primary sort on rows and a secondary sort on columns. For example, the following array
\[
\{\{4, 2\}, \{1, 7\}, \{4, 5\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 1\}, \{4, 1\}\}
\]
will be sorted to
\[
\{\{1, 1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 7\}, \{4, 1\}, \{4, 2\}, \{4, 5\}\}.
\]

***7.17 (Financial tsunami) Banks lend money to each other. In tough economic times, if a bank goes bankrupt, it may not be able to pay back the loan. A bank’s total assets are its current balance plus its loans to other banks. The diagram in Figure 7.8 shows five banks. The banks’ current balances are 25, 125, 175, 75, and 181 million dollars, respectively. The directed edge from node 1 to node 2 indicates that bank 1 lends 40 million dollars to bank 2.

![Figure 7.8](image)

**Figure 7.8** Banks lend money to each other.

If a bank’s total assets are under a certain limit, the bank is unsafe. The money it borrowed cannot be returned to the lender, and the lender cannot count the loan in its total assets. Consequently, the lender may also be unsafe, if its total assets are under the limit. Write a program to find all the unsafe banks. Your program reads the input as follows. It first reads two integers \(n\) and \(\text{limit}\), where \(n\) indicates the number of banks and \(\text{limit}\) is the minimum total assets for keeping a bank safe. It then reads \(n\) lines that describe the information for \(n\) banks with IDs from 0 to \(n-1\). The first number in the line is the bank’s balance, the second number indicates the number of banks that borrowed money from the bank, and the rest are pairs of two numbers. Each pair describes a borrower. The first number in the pair is the borrower’s ID and the second is the amount borrowed. For example, the input for the five banks in Figure 7.8 is as follows (note that the limit is 201):

\[
5 \ 201
25 \ 2 \ 1 \ 100.5 \ 4 \ 320.5
125 \ 2 \ 40 \ 3 \ 85
175 \ 2 \ 0 \ 125 \ 3 \ 75
75 \ 1 \ 0 \ 125
181 \ 1 \ 2 \ 125
\]

The total assets of bank 3 are \((75 + 125)\), which is under 201, so bank 3 is unsafe. After bank 3 becomes unsafe, the total assets of bank 1 fall below \((125 + 40)\). Thus, bank 1 is also unsafe. The output of the program should be

Unsafe banks are 3 1
*7.18 (Shuffle rows) Write a method that shuffles the rows in a two-dimensional int array using the following header:

\[
\text{public static void shuffle(int[][] } m) \]

Write a test program that shuffles the following matrix:

\[
\text{int[][] m = {{1, 2}, {3, 4}, {5, 6}, {7, 8}, {9, 10}};} \]

**7.19 (Pattern recognition: four consecutive equal numbers) Write the following method that tests whether a two-dimensional array has four consecutive numbers of the same value, either horizontally, vertically, or diagonally.

\[
\text{public static boolean isConsecutiveFour(int[][] values)} \]

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter the number of rows and columns of a two-dimensional array and then the values in the array and displays true if the array contains four consecutive numbers with the same value. Otherwise, display false. Here are some examples of the true cases:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 6 \\
0 & 1 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 0 \\
5 & 6 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 2 \\
6 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 1 & 9 \\
1 & 3 & 6 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\
3 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 6 \\
0 & 1 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 0 \\
5 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 2 \\
6 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 1 & 9 \\
1 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\
3 & 5 & 3 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 6 \\
0 & 1 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 0 \\
5 & 6 & 2 & 1 & 6 & 2 \\
6 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 1 & 9 \\
1 & 3 & 6 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\
3 & 6 & 3 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 6 \\
0 & 1 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 0 \\
9 & 6 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 2 \\
6 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 1 & 9 \\
1 & 3 & 9 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\
3 & 3 & 3 & 9 & 4 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]

***7.20 (Game: connect four) Connect four is a two-player board game in which the players alternately drop colored disks into a seven-column, six-row vertically suspended grid, as shown below.

![Connect Four Board]

The objective of the game is to connect four same-colored disks in a row, a column, or a diagonal before your opponent can do likewise. The program prompts two players to drop a red or yellow disk alternately. In the preceding figure, the red disk is shown in a dark color and the yellow in a light color. Whenever a disk is dropped, the program redisplays the board on the console and determines the status of the game (win, draw, or continue). Here is a sample run:
Drop a red disk at column (0–6): 0

Drop a yellow disk at column (0–6): 3

Drop a yellow disk at column (0–6): 6

The yellow player won

*7.21 (Central city) Given a set of cities, the central point is the city that has the shortest total distance to all other cities. Write a program that prompts the user to enter the number of the cities and the locations of the cities (coordinates), and finds the central city.

Enter the number of cities: 5
Enter the coordinates of the cities: 2.5 5 5.1 3 1 9 5.4 54 5.5 2.1
The central city is at (2.5, 5.0)

*7.22 (Even number of 1s) Write a program that generates a 6-by-6 two-dimensional matrix filled with 0s and 1s, displays the matrix, and checks if every row and every column have an even number of 1s.

*7.23 (Game: find the flipped cell) Suppose you are given a 6-by-6 matrix filled with 0s and 1s. All rows and all columns have an even number of 1s. Let the user flip one
cell (i.e., flip from 1 to 0 or from 0 to 1) and write a program to find which cell was flipped. Your program should prompt the user to enter a 6-by-6 array with 0s and 1s and find the first row \( r \) and first column \( c \) where the even number of the 1s property is violated (i.e., the number of 1s is not even). The flipped cell is at \((r, c)\).

\*7.24 \((\text{Check Sudoku solution})\) Listing 7.4 checks whether a solution is valid by checking whether every number is valid in the board. Rewrite the program by checking whether every row, every column, and every small box has the numbers 1 to 9.

\*7.25 \((\text{Markov matrix})\) An \( n \times n \) matrix is called a \textit{positive Markov matrix} if each element is positive and the sum of the elements in each column is 1. Write the following method to check whether a matrix is a Markov matrix.

```java
public static boolean isMarkovMatrix(double[][] m)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a \( 3 \times 3 \) matrix of double values and tests whether it is a Markov matrix. Here are sample runs:

```
Enter a 3-by-3 matrix row by row:
0.15 0.875 0.375
0.55 0.005 0.225
0.30 0.12 0.4
It is a Markov matrix
```

```
Enter a 3-by-3 matrix row by row:
0.95 -0.875 0.375
0.65 0.005 0.225
0.30 0.22 -0.4
It is not a Markov matrix
```

\*7.26 \((\text{Row sorting})\) Implement the following method to sort the rows in a two-dimensional array. A new array is returned and the original array is intact.

```java
public static double[][] sortRows(double[][] m)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a \( 3 \times 3 \) matrix of double values and displays a new row-sorted matrix. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a 3-by-3 matrix row by row:
0.15 0.875 0.375
0.55 0.005 0.225
0.30 0.12 0.4
The row-sorted array is
0.15 0.375 0.875
0.005 0.225 0.55
0.12 0.30 0.4
```

\*7.27 \((\text{Column sorting})\) Implement the following method to sort the columns in a two-dimensional array. A new array is returned and the original array is intact.

```java
public static double[][] sortColumns(double[][] m)
```
Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a $3 \times 3$ matrix of double values and displays a new column-sorted matrix. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a 3-by-4 matrix row by row:  
0.15 0.875 0.375  
0.55 0.005 0.225  
0.30 0.12 0.4  

The column-sorted array is  
0.15 0.0050 0.225  
0.3 0.12 0.375  
0.55 0.875 0.4  
```

7.28 (*Strictly identical arrays*) The two-dimensional arrays $m_1$ and $m_2$ are *strictly identical* if their corresponding elements are equal. Write a method that returns `true` if $m_1$ and $m_2$ are strictly identical, using the following header:

```
public static boolean equals(int[][] m1, int[][] m2)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two $3 \times 3$ arrays of integers and displays whether the two are strictly identical. Here are the sample runs.

```
Enter list1: 51 22 25 6 1 4 24 54 6  
Enter list2: 51 22 25 6 1 4 24 54 6  
The two arrays are strictly identical  
```

```
Enter list1: 51 25 22 6 1 4 24 54 6  
Enter list2: 51 22 25 6 1 4 24 54 6  
The two arrays are not strictly identical  
```

7.29 (*Identical arrays*) The two-dimensional arrays $m_1$ and $m_2$ are *identical* if they have the same contents. Write a method that returns `true` if $m_1$ and $m_2$ are identical, using the following header:

```
public static boolean equals(int[][] m1, int[][] m2)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two lists of integers and displays whether the two are identical. Here are the sample runs.

```
Enter list1: 51 25 22 6 1 4 24 54 6  
Enter list2: 51 22 25 6 1 4 24 54 6  
The two arrays are identical  
```

```
Enter list1: 51 5 22 6 1 4 24 54 6  
Enter list2: 51 22 25 6 1 4 24 54 6  
The two arrays are not identical  
```
*7.30  (Algebra: solve linear equations) Write a method that solves the following $2 \times 2$ system of linear equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
& a_{00}x + a_{01}y = b_0 \\
& a_{10}x + a_{11}y = b_1 
\end{align*}
\]

The method header is

\[
\text{public static double[]} \text{linearEquation(double[]}[] a, \text{double[]} b)
\]

The method returns \text{null} if $a_{00}a_{11} - a_{01}a_{10}$ is 0. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter $a_{00}$, $a_{01}$, $a_{10}$, $a_{11}$, $b_0$, and $b_1$, and displays the result. If $a_{00}a_{11} - a_{01}a_{10}$ is 0, report that “The equation has no solution.” A sample run is similar to Programming Exercise 3.3.

*7.31  (Geometry: intersecting point) Write a method that returns the intersecting point of two lines. The intersecting point of the two lines can be found by using the formula shown in Programming Exercise 3.25. Assume that $(x_1, y_1)$ and $(x_2, y_2)$ are the two points on line 1 and $(x_3, y_3)$ and $(x_4, y_4)$ are on line 2. The method header is

\[
\text{public static double[]} \text{getIntersectingPoint(double[]}[] points)
\]

The points are stored in a 4-by-2 two-dimensional array \text{points} with $(\text{points}[0][0], \text{points}[0][1])$ for $(x_1, y_1)$. The method returns the intersecting point or \text{null} if the two lines are parallel. Write a program that prompts the user to enter four points and displays the intersecting point. See Programming Exercise 3.25 for a sample run.

*7.32  (Geometry: area of a triangle) Write a method that returns the area of a triangle using the following header:

\[
\text{public static double} \text{getTriangleArea(double[]}[] points)
\]

The points are stored in a 3-by-2 two-dimensional array \text{points} with \text{points}[0][0] and \text{points}[0][1] for $(x_1, y_1)$. The triangle area can be computed using the formula in Programming Exercise 2.15. The method returns 0 if the three points are on the same line. Write a program that prompts the user to enter two lines and displays the intersecting point. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3: 2.5 2 5 -1.0 4.0 2.0
The area of the triangle is 2.25
```

```
Enter x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3: 2 2 4.5 4.5 6 6
The three points are on the same line
```

*7.33  (Geometry: polygon subareas) A convex 4-vertex polygon is divided into four triangles, as shown in Figure 7.9.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter the coordinates of four vertices and displays the areas of the four triangles in increasing order. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4:
-2.5 2 4 4 3 -2 -2 -3.5
The areas are 6.17 7.96 8.08 10.42
```
*7.34* (Geometry: rightmost lowest point) In computational geometry, often you need to find the rightmost lowest point in a set of points. Write the following method that returns the rightmost lowest point in a set of points.

```java
public static double[] getRightmostLowestPoint(double[][] points)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter the coordinates of six points and displays the rightmost lowest point. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter 6 points: 1.5 2.5 -3 4.5 5.6 -7 6.5 -7 8 1 10 2.5
The rightmost lowest point is (6.5, -7.0)
```

**7.35** (Largest block) Given a square matrix with the elements 0 or 1, write a program to find a maximum square submatrix whose elements are all 1s. Your program should prompt the user to enter the number of rows in the matrix. The program then displays the location of the first element in the maximum square submatrix and the number of the rows in the submatrix. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of rows in the matrix: 5
Enter the matrix row by row:
1 0 1 1
1 1 1 0
1 0 1 1
1 0 1 1
1 0 1 1
The maximum square submatrix is at (2, 2) with size 3
```

Your program should implement and use the following method to find the maximum square submatrix:

```java
public static int[] findLargestBlock(int[][] m)
```

The return value is an array that consists of three values. The first two values are the row and column indices for the first element in the submatrix, and the third value is the number of the rows in the submatrix.

**7.36** (Latin square) A Latin square is an n-by-n array filled with n different Latin letters, each occurring exactly once in each row and once in each column. Write a
program that prompts the user to enter the number \( n \) and the array of characters, as shown in the sample output, and checks if the input array is a Latin square. The characters are the first \( n \) characters starting from \( A \).
CHAPTER 8

OBJECTS AND CLASSES

Objectives

■ To describe objects and classes, and use classes to model objects (§8.2).
■ To use UML graphical notation to describe classes and objects (§8.2).
■ To demonstrate how to define classes and create objects (§8.3).
■ To create objects using constructors (§8.4).
■ To access objects via object reference variables (§8.5).
■ To define a reference variable using a reference type (§8.5.1).
■ To access an object’s data and methods using the object member access operator (.) (§8.5.2).
■ To define data fields of reference types and assign default values for an object’s data fields (§8.5.3).
■ To distinguish between object reference variables and primitive data type variables (§8.5.4).
■ To use the Java library classes Date, Random, and JFrame (§8.6).
■ To distinguish between instance and static variables and methods (§8.7).
■ To define private data fields with appropriate get and set methods (§8.8).
■ To encapsulate data fields to make classes easy to maintain (§8.9).
■ To develop methods with object arguments and differentiate between primitive-type arguments and object-type arguments (§8.10).
■ To store and process objects in arrays (§8.11).
8.1 Introduction

Object-oriented programming enables you to develop large-scale software and GUIs effectively.

Having learned the material in the preceding chapters, you are able to solve many programming problems using selections, loops, methods, and arrays. However, these Java features are not sufficient for developing graphical user interfaces and large-scale software systems. Suppose you want to develop a graphical user interface (GUI, pronounced goo-ee) as shown in Figure 8.1. How would you program it? You will learn how in this chapter.

This chapter introduces object-oriented programming, which you can use to develop GUI and large-scale software systems.

8.2 Defining Classes for Objects

A class defines the properties and behaviors for objects.

Object-oriented programming (OOP) involves programming using objects. An object represents an entity in the real world that can be distinctly identified. For example, a student, a desk, a circle, a button, and even a loan can all be viewed as objects. An object has a unique identity, state, and behavior.

- The state of an object (also known as its properties or attributes) is represented by data fields with their current values. A circle object, for example, has a data field radius, which is the property that characterizes a circle. A rectangle object has the data fields width and height, which are the properties that characterize a rectangle.

- The behavior of an object (also known as its actions) is defined by methods. To invoke a method on an object is to ask the object to perform an action. For example, you may define methods named getArea() and getPerimeter() for circle objects. A circle object may invoke getArea() to return its area and getPerimeter() to return its perimeter. You may also define the setRadius(radius) method. A circle object can invoke this method to change its radius.

Objects of the same type are defined using a common class. A class is a template, blueprint, or contract that defines what an object’s data fields and methods will be. An object is an instance of a class. You can create many instances of a class. Creating an instance is referred to as instantiation. The terms object and instance are often interchangeable. The relationship between classes and objects is analogous to that between an apple-pie recipe and apple pies: You can make as many apple pies as you want from a single recipe. Figure 8.2 shows a class named Circle and its three objects.

A Java class uses variables to define data fields and methods to define actions. Additionally, a class provides methods of a special type, known as constructors, which are invoked to create a new object. A constructor can perform any action, but constructors are designed to perform initializing actions, such as initializing the data fields of objects. Figure 8.3 shows an example of defining the class for circle objects.
8.2 Defining Classes for Objects

Class Name: Circle

Data Fields:
radius is _____

Methods:
getArea
getPerimeter
setRadius

Circle Object 1
Data Fields:
radius is 1

Circle Object 2
Data Fields:
radius is 25

Circle Object 3
Data Fields:
radius is 125

Figure 8.2 A class is a template for creating objects.

```java
class Circle {
    /** The radius of this circle */
    double radius = 1;

    /** Construct a circle object */
    Circle() {
    }

    /** Construct a circle object */
    Circle(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }

    /** Return the area of this circle */
    double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    /** Return the perimeter of this circle */
    double getPerimeter() {
        return 2 * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    /** Set new radius for this circle */
    double setRadius(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }
}
```

Figure 8.3 A class is a construct that defines objects of the same type.

The Circle class is different from all of the other classes you have seen thus far. It does not have a main method and therefore cannot be run; it is merely a definition for circle objects. The class that contains the main method will be referred to in this book, for convenience, as the main class.

The illustration of class templates and objects in Figure 8.2 can be standardized using Unified Modeling Language (UML) notation. This notation, as shown in Figure 8.4, is called a UML class diagram, or simply a class diagram. In the class diagram, the data field is denoted as

dataFieldName: dataFieldType

The constructor is denoted as

ClassName(parameterName: parameterType)
Key Point

Classes are definitions for objects and objects are created from classes.

This section gives two examples of defining classes and uses the classes to create objects. Listing 8.1 is a program that defines the Circle class and uses it to create objects. The program constructs three circle objects with radius 1, 25, and 125 and displays the radius and area of each of the three circles. It then changes the radius of the second object to 100 and displays its new radius and area.

Note
To avoid a naming conflict with several enhanced versions of the Circle class introduced later in the chapter, the Circle class in this example is named SimpleCircle. For simplicity, we will still refer to the class in the text as Circle.

LISTING 8.1 TestSimpleCircle.java

```java
public class TestSimpleCircle {
    // Main method
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a circle with radius 1
        SimpleCircle circle1 = new SimpleCircle();
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius " + circle1.radius + " is " + circle1.getArea());

        // Create a circle with radius 25
        SimpleCircle circle2 = new SimpleCircle(25);
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius " + circle2.radius + " is " + circle2.getArea());

        // Create a circle with radius 125
        SimpleCircle circle3 = new SimpleCircle(125);
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius " + circle3.radius + " is " + circle3.getArea());

        // Modify circle radius
        circle2.radius = 100; // or circle2.setRadius(100)
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius " + circle2.radius + " is " + circle2.getArea());
    }
}
```
8.3 Example: Defining Classes and Creating Objects 299

```java
// Define the circle class with two constructors
class SimpleCircle {
    double radius;

    /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
    SimpleCircle() {
        radius = 1;
    }

    /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
    SimpleCircle(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }

    /** Return the area of this circle */
    double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    /** Return the perimeter of this circle */
    double getPerimeter() {
        return 2 * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    /** Set a new radius for this circle */
    void setRadius(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }
}
```

The area of the circle of radius 1.0 is 3.141592653589793
The area of the circle of radius 25.0 is 1963.4954084936207
The area of the circle of radius 125.0 is 49087.385212340516
The area of the circle of radius 100.0 is 31415.926535897932

The program contains two classes. The first of these, `TestSimpleCircle`, is the main class. Its sole purpose is to test the second class, `SimpleCircle`. Such a program that uses the class is often referred to as a `client` of the class. When you run the program, the Java runtime system invokes the `main` method in the main class.

You can put the two classes into one file, but only one class in the file can be a `public class`. Furthermore, the public class must have the same name as the file name. Therefore, the file name is `TestSimpleCircle.java`, since `TestSimpleCircle` is public. Each class in the source code is compiled into a `.class` file. When you compile `TestSimpleCircle.java`, two class files `TestSimpleCircle.class` and `SimpleCircle.class` are generated, as shown in Figure 8.5.

![Diagram showing the compilation process of Java classes](image)

**Figure 8.5** Each class in the source code file is compiled into a `.class` file.
The main class contains the `main` method (line 3) that creates three objects. As in creating an array, the `new` operator is used to create an object from the constructor. `new SimpleCircle()` creates an object with radius 1 (line 5), `new SimpleCircle(25)` creates an object with radius 25 (line 10), and `new SimpleCircle(125)` creates an object with radius 125 (line 15).

These three objects (referenced by `circle1`, `circle2`, and `circle3`) have different data but the same methods. Therefore, you can compute their respective areas by using the `getArea()` method. The data fields can be accessed via the reference of the object using `circle1.radius`, `circle2.radius`, and `circle3.radius`, respectively. The object can invoke its method via the reference of the object using `circle1.getArea()`, `circle2.getArea()`, and `circle3.getArea()`, respectively.

These three objects are independent. The radius of `circle2` is changed to 100 in line 20. The object's new radius and area are displayed in lines 21–22.

There are many ways to write Java programs. For instance, you can combine the two classes in the example into one, as shown in Listing 8.2.

**Listing 8.2 SimpleCircle.java**

```java
public class SimpleCircle {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a circle with radius 1
        SimpleCircle circle1 = new SimpleCircle();
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius "+ circle1.radius + " is "+ circle1.getArea());

        // Create a circle with radius 25
        SimpleCircle circle2 = new SimpleCircle(25);
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius "+ circle2.radius + " is "+ circle2.getArea());

        // Create a circle with radius 125
        SimpleCircle circle3 = new SimpleCircle(125);
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius "+ circle3.radius + " is "+ circle3.getArea());

        // Modify circle radius
        circle2.radius = 100;
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius "+ circle2.radius + " is "+ circle2.getArea());
    }

    double radius;

    /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
    SimpleCircle() {
        radius = 1;
    }

    /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
    SimpleCircle(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }

    /** Return the area of this circle */
    double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }
}
```
As another example, consider television sets. Each TV is an object with states (current channel, current volume level, power on or off) and behaviors (change channels, adjust volume, turn on/off). You can use a class to model TV sets. The UML diagram for the class is shown in Figure 8.6.

Since the combined class has a `main` method, it can be executed by the Java interpreter. The `main` method is the same as in Listing 8.1. This demonstrates that you can test a class by simply adding a `main` method in the same class.

Listing 8.3 gives a program that defines the `TV` class.

**LISTING 8.3**  TV.java

```java
public class TV {
    int channel = 1; // Default channel is 1
    int volumeLevel = 1; // Default volume level is 1
    boolean on = false; // TV is off

    public TV() {
        // Constructor
    }

    public void turnOn() {
        on = true;
    }

    public void turnOff() {
        on = false;
    }
}
```

The `+` sign indicates public modifier.

**FIGURE 8.6** The TV class models TV sets.
```java
public class TV {
    private boolean on = false;

    public void setChannel(int newChannel) {
        if (on && newChannel >= 1 && newChannel <= 120)
            channel = newChannel;
    }

    public void setVolume(int newVolumeLevel) {
        if (on && newVolumeLevel >= 1 && newVolumeLevel <= 7)
            volumeLevel = newVolumeLevel;
    }

    public void channelUp() {
        if (on && channel < 120)
            channel++;
    }

    public void channelDown() {
        if (on && channel > 1)
            channel--;
    }

    public void volumeUp() {
        if (on && volumeLevel < 7)
            volumeLevel++;
    }

    public void volumeDown() {
        if (on && volumeLevel > 1)
            volumeLevel--;
    }
}
```

The constructor and methods in the `TV` class are defined public so they can be accessed from other classes. Note that the channel and volume level are not changed if the TV is not on. Before either of these is changed, its current value is checked to ensure that it is within the correct range.

Listing 8.4 gives a program that uses the `TV` class to create two objects.

### Listing 8.4 TestTV.java

```java
public class TestTV {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TV tv1 = new TV();
        tv1.turnOn();
        tv1.setChannel(30);
        tv1.setVolume(3);
        TV tv2 = new TV();
        tv2.turnOn();
        tv2.channelUp();
        tv2.channelUp();
        tv2.volumeUp();
        System.out.println("tv1's channel is " + tv1.channel + " and volume level is " + tv1.volumeLevel);
        System.out.println("tv2's channel is " + tv2.channel + " and volume level is " + tv2.volumeLevel);
    }
}
```
The program creates two objects in lines 3 and 8 and invokes the methods on the objects to perform actions for setting channels and volume levels and for increasing channels and volumes. The program displays the state of the objects in lines 14–17. The methods are invoked using syntax such as `tv1.turnOn()` (line 4). The data fields are accessed using syntax such as `tv1.channel` (line 14).

These examples have given you a glimpse of classes and objects. You may have many questions regarding constructors, objects, reference variables, accessing data fields, and invoking object’s methods. The sections that follow discuss these issues in detail.

### 8.1 Describe the relationship between an object and its defining class.

### 8.2 How do you define a class?

### 8.3 How do you declare an object’s reference variable?

### 8.4 How do you create an object?

#### 8.4 Constructing Objects Using Constructors

*An constructor is invoked to create an object using the `new` operator.*

Constructors are a special kind of method. They have three peculiarities:

- A constructor must have the same name as the class itself.
- Constructors do not have a return type—not even `void`.
- Constructors are invoked using the `new` operator when an object is created. Constructors play the role of initializing objects.

The constructor has exactly the same name as its defining class. Like regular methods, constructors can be overloaded (i.e., multiple constructors can have the same name but different signatures), making it easy to construct objects with different initial data values.

It is a common mistake to put the `void` keyword in front of a constructor. For example,

```java
public void Circle() {
}
```

In this case, `Circle()` is a method, not a constructor.

Constructors are used to construct objects. To construct an object from a class, invoke a constructor of the class using the `new` operator, as follows:

```java
new ClassName(arguments);
```

For example, `new Circle()` creates an object of the `Circle` class using the first constructor defined in the `Circle` class, and `new Circle(25)` creates an object using the second constructor defined in the `Circle` class.

A class normally provides a constructor without arguments (e.g., `Circle()`). Such a constructor is referred to as a no-arg or no-argument constructor.

A class may be defined without constructors. In this case, a public no-arg constructor with an empty body is implicitly defined in the class. This constructor, called a default constructor, is provided automatically only if no constructors are explicitly defined in the class.

### 8.5 What are the differences between constructors and methods?

### 8.6 When will a class have a default constructor?
8.5 Accessing Objects via Reference Variables

An object’s data and methods can be accessed through the dot (.) operator via the object’s reference variable.

**Key Point**

Newly created objects are allocated in the memory. They can be accessed via reference variables.

8.5.1 Reference Variables and Reference Types

Objects are accessed via the object’s reference variables, which contain references to the objects. Such variables are declared using the following syntax:

```
ClassName objectRefVar;
```

A class is essentially a programmer-defined type. A class is a reference type, which means that a variable of the class type can reference an instance of the class. The following statement declares the variable `myCircle` to be of the `Circle` type:

```
Circle myCircle;
```

The variable `myCircle` can reference a `Circle` object. The next statement creates an object and assigns its reference to `myCircle`:

```
myCircle = new Circle();
```

You can write a single statement that combines the declaration of an object reference variable, the creation of an object, and the assigning of an object reference to the variable with the following syntax:

```
ClassName objectRefVar = new ClassName();
```

Here is an example:

```
Circle myCircle = new Circle();
```

The variable `myCircle` holds a reference to a `Circle` object.

**Note**

An object reference variable that appears to hold an object actually contains a reference to that object. Strictly speaking, an object reference variable and an object are different, but most of the time the distinction can be ignored. Therefore, it is fine, for simplicity, to say that `myCircle` is a `Circle` object rather than use the longer-winded description that `myCircle` is a variable that contains a reference to a `Circle` object.

**Note**

Arrays are treated as objects in Java. Arrays are created using the `new` operator. An array variable is actually a variable that contains a reference to an array.

8.5.2 Accessing an Object’s Data and Methods

In OOP terminology, an object’s member refers to its data fields and methods. After an object is created, its data can be accessed and its methods invoked using the dot operator (.), also known as the object member access operator:

- `objectRefVar.dataField` references a data field in the object.
- `objectRefVar.method(arguments)` invokes a method on the object.
8.5 Accessing Objects via Reference Variables

For example, `myCircle.radius` references the radius in `myCircle`, and `myCircle.getArea()` invokes the `getArea` method on `myCircle`. Methods are invoked as operations on objects.

The data field `radius` is referred to as an `instance variable`, because it is dependent on a specific instance. For the same reason, the method `getArea` is referred to as an `instance method`, because you can invoke it only on a specific instance. The object on which an instance method is invoked is called a `calling object`.

**Caution**
Recall that you use `Math.methodName(arguments)` (e.g., `Math.pow(3, 2.5)`) to invoke a method in the `Math` class. Can you invoke `getArea()` using `Circle.getArea()`? The answer is no. All the methods in the `Math` class are static methods, which are defined using the `static` keyword. However, `getArea()` is an instance method, and thus nonstatic. It must be invoked from an object using `objectRefVar.methodName(arguments)` (e.g., `myCircle.getArea()`). Further explanation is given in Section 8.7, Static Variables, Constants, and Methods.

**Note**
Usually you create an object and assign it to a variable, and then later you can use the variable to reference the object. Occasionally an object does not need to be referenced later. In this case, you can create an object without explicitly assigning it to a variable using the syntax:

```java
new Circle();
```

or

```java
System.out.println("Area is " + new Circle(5).getArea());
```

The former statement creates a `Circle` object. The latter creates a `Circle` object and invokes its `getArea` method to return its area. An object created in this way is known as an `anonymous object`.

### 8.5.3 Reference Data Fields and the `null` Value

The data fields can be of reference types. For example, the following `Student` class contains a data field `name` of the `String` type. `String` is a predefined Java class.

```java
class Student {
    String name; // name has the default value null
    int age; // age has the default value 0
    boolean isScienceMajor; // isScienceMajor has default value false
    char gender; // gender has default value '\u0000'
}
```

If a data field of a reference type does not reference any object, the data field holds a special Java value, `null`. `null` is a literal just like `true` and `false`. While `true` and `false` are Boolean literals, `null` is a literal for a reference type.

The default value of a data field is `null` for a reference type, `0` for a numeric type, `false` for a `boolean` type, and `\u0000` for a `char` type. However, Java assigns no default value to a local variable inside a method. The following code displays the default values of the data fields `name`, `age`, `isScienceMajor`, and `gender` for a `Student` object:

```java
class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Student student = new Student();
        System.out.println("name? " + student.name);
    }
}
```
System.out.println("age? " + student.age);
System.out.println("isScienceMajor? " + student.isScienceMajor);
System.out.println("gender? " + student.gender);
}
}

The following code has a compile error, because the local variables x and y are not initialized:

class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int x; // x has no default value
        String y; // y has no default value
        System.out.println("x is " + x);
        System.out.println("y is " + y);
    }
}

Caution

NullPointerException is a common runtime error. It occurs when you invoke a method on a reference variable with a null value. Make sure you assign an object reference to the variable before invoking the method through the reference variable.

8.5.4 Differences between Variables of Primitive Types and Reference Types

Every variable represents a memory location that holds a value. When you declare a variable, you are telling the compiler what type of value the variable can hold. For a variable of a primitive type, the value is of the primitive type. For a variable of a reference type, the value is a reference to where an object is located. For example, as shown in Figure 8.7, the value of int variable i is int value 1, and the value of Circle object c holds a reference to where the contents of the Circle object are stored in memory.

When you assign one variable to another, the other variable is set to the same value. For a variable of a primitive type, the real value of one variable is assigned to the other variable. For a variable of a reference type, the reference of one variable is assigned to the other variable.

As shown in Figure 8.8, the assignment statement i = j copies the contents of j into i for

![Figure 8.7](image)

**Figure 8.7** A variable of a primitive type holds a value of the primitive type, and a variable of a reference type holds a reference to where an object is stored in memory.

![Figure 8.8](image)

**Figure 8.8** Primitive variable j is copied to variable i.
primitive variables. As shown in Figure 8.9, the assignment statement \( c_1 = c_2 \) copies the reference of \( c_2 \) into \( c_1 \) for reference variables. After the assignment, variables \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \) refer to the same object.

![Diagram showing object type assignment](image)

**Figure 8.9** Reference variable \( c_2 \) is copied to variable \( c_1 \).

**Note**
As illustrated in Figure 8.9, after the assignment statement \( c_1 = c_2 \), \( c_1 \) points to the same object referenced by \( c_2 \). The object previously referenced by \( c_1 \) is no longer useful and therefore is now known as garbage. Garbage occupies memory space, so the Java runtime system detects garbage and automatically reclaims the space it occupies. This process is called garbage collection.

**Tip**
If you know that an object is no longer needed, you can explicitly assign `null` to a reference variable for the object. The JVM will automatically collect the space if the object is not referenced by any reference variable.

8.7 Which operator is used to access a data field or invoke a method from an object?

8.8 What is an anonymous object?

8.9 What is `NullPointerException`?

8.10 Is an array an object or a primitive type value? Can an array contain elements of an object type as well as a primitive type? Describe the default value for the elements of an array.

8.11 What is wrong with each of the following programs?

```
1 public class ShowErrors {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         ShowErrors t = new ShowErrors(5);
4     }
5 }
```

```
1 public class ShowErrors {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         ShowErrors t = new ShowErrors();
4         t.x();
5     }
6 }
```

(a) (b)
8.12 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
1 class Test {
2   public static void main(String[] args) {
3     A a = new A();
4     a.print();
5   }
6 }
7
8 class A {
9   String s;
10  A(String newS) {
11      s = newS;
12  }
13  }
14  public void print() {
15      System.out.print(s);
16  }
17 }
```

8.13 What is the printout of the following code?

```java
public class A {
  private boolean x;

  public static void main(String[] args) {
    A a = new A();
    System.out.println(a.x);
  }
}
```

8.6 Using Classes from the Java Library

The Java API contains a rich set of classes for developing Java programs.

Listing 8.1 defined the SimpleCircle class and created objects from the class. You will frequently use the classes in the Java library to develop programs. This section gives some examples of the classes in the Java library.

8.6.1 The Date Class

In Listing 2.6, ShowCurrentTime.java, you learned how to obtain the current time using System.currentTimeMillis(). You used the division and remainder operators to extract
the current second, minute, and hour. Java provides a system-independent encapsulation of
date and time in the `java.util.Date` class, as shown in Figure 8.10.

![Figure 8.10](image)

A `Date` object represents a specific date and time.

You can use the no-arg constructor in the `Date` class to create an instance for the current
date and time, the `getTime()` method to return the elapsed time since January 1, 1970, GMT,
and the `toString()` method to return the date and time as a string. For example, the follow-
ing code

```java
java.util.Date date = new java.util.Date();
System.out.println("The elapsed time since Jan 1, 1970 is "+
date.getTime()+" milliseconds");
System.out.println(date.toString());
```

displays the output like this:

The elapsed time since Jan 1, 1970 is 1324903419651 milliseconds
Mon Dec 26 07:43:39 EST 2011

The `Date` class has another constructor, `Date(long elapsedTime)`, which can be used to
construct a `Date` object for a given time in milliseconds elapsed since January 1, 1970, GMT.

### 8.6.2 The `Random` Class

You have used `Math.random()` to obtain a random `double` value between 0.0 and 1.0
(excluding 1.0). Another way to generate random numbers is to use the `java.util.Random`
class, as shown in Figure 8.11, which can generate a random `int`, `long`, `double`, `float`, and
`boolean` value.

![Figure 8.11](image)

A `Random` object can be used to generate random values.
When you create a `Random` object, you have to specify a seed or use the default seed. A seed is a number used to initialize a random number generator. The no-arg constructor creates a `Random` object using the current elapsed time as its seed. If two `Random` objects have the same seed, they will generate identical sequences of numbers. For example, the following code creates two `Random` objects with the same seed, 3.

```java
Random random1 = new Random(3);
System.out.print("From random1: ");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    System.out.print(random1.nextInt(1000) + " ");

Random random2 = new Random(3);
System.out.print("\nFrom random2: ");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    System.out.print(random2.nextInt(1000) + " ");
```

The code generates the same sequence of random `int` values:

```
From random1: 734 660 210 581 128 202 549 564 459 961
From random2: 734 660 210 581 128 202 549 564 459 961
```

**Note**
The ability to generate the same sequence of random values is useful in software testing and many other applications. In software testing, often you need to reproduce the test cases from a fixed sequence of random numbers.

### 8.6.3 Displaying GUI Components

**Pedagogical Note**
Graphical user interface (GUI) components are good examples for teaching OOP. Simple GUI examples are introduced here for this purpose. The full introduction to GUI programming begins with Chapter 12, GUI Basics.

When you develop programs to create graphical user interfaces, you will use Java classes such as `JFrame`, `JButton`, `JRadioButton`, `JComboBox`, and `JList` to create frames, buttons, radio buttons, combo boxes, lists, and so on. Listing 8.5 is an example that creates two windows using the `JFrame` class. The output of the program is shown in Figure 8.12.

![Figure 8.12](image)

**Figure 8.12** The program creates two windows using the `JFrame` class.

### Listing 8.5 TestFrame.java

```java
import javax.swing.JFrame;

public class TestFrame {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame1 = new JFrame();
        frame1.setTitle("Window 1");
        frame1.setSize(200, 150);
        frame1.setLocation(200, 100);
        frame1.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame1.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```
This program creates two objects of the `JFrame` class (lines 5, 12) and then uses the methods `setTitle`, `setSize`, `setLocation`, `setDefaultCloseOperation`, and `setVisible` to set the properties of the objects. The `setTitle` method sets a title for the window (lines 6, 13). The `setSize` method sets the window’s width and height (lines 7, 14). The `setLocation` method specifies the location of the window’s upper-left corner (lines 8, 15). The `setDefaultCloseOperation` method terminates the program when the frame is closed (lines 9, 16). The `setVisible` method displays the window.

You can add graphical user interface components, such as buttons, labels, text fields, check boxes, and combo boxes to the window. The components are defined using classes. Listing 8.6 gives an example of creating a graphical user interface, as shown in Figure 8.1.

**LISTING 8.6  GUIComponents.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class GUIComponents {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a button with text OK
        JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
        // Create a button with text Cancel
        JButton jbtCancel = new JButton("Cancel");
        // Create a label with text "Enter your name: 
        JLabel jlblName = new JLabel("Enter your name: ");
        // Create a text field with text "Type Name Here"
        JTextField jtfName = new JTextField("Type Name Here");
        // Create a check box with text Bold
        JCheckBox jchkBold = new JCheckBox("Bold");
        // Create a check box with text Italic
        JCheckBox jchkItalic = new JCheckBox("Italic");
        // Create a radio button with text Red
        JRadioButton jrbRed = new JRadioButton("Red");
        // Create a radio button with text Yellow
        JRadioButton jrbYellow = new JRadioButton("Yellow");
        // Create a combo box with several choices
        JComboBox jcboColor = new JComboBox(new String[] {"Freshman", "Sophomore", "Junior", "Senior"});
        // Create a panel to group components
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtOK); // Add the OK button to the panel
        panel.add(jbtCancel); // Add the Cancel button to the panel
```
This program creates GUI objects using the classes JButton, JLabel, JTextField, JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JComboBox (lines 6–31). Then, using the JPanel class (line 34), it then creates a panel object and adds the button, label, text field, check box, radio button, and combo box to it (lines 35–43). The program then creates a frame and adds the panel to the frame (line 45). The frame is displayed in line 51.

8.14 How do you create a Date for the current time? How do you display the current time?

8.15 How do you create a JFrame, set a title in a frame, and display a frame?

8.16 Which packages contain the classes Date, JFrame, JOptionPane, System, and Math?

8.7 Static Variables, Constants, and Methods

A static variable is shared by all objects of the class. A static method cannot access instance members of the class.

The data field radius in the circle class is known as an instance variable. An instance variable is tied to a specific instance of the class; it is not shared among objects of the same class. For example, suppose that you create the following objects:

```java
Circle circle1 = new Circle();
Circle circle2 = new Circle(5);
```

The radius in circle1 is independent of the radius in circle2 and is stored in a different memory location. Changes made to circle1’s radius do not affect circle2’s radius, and vice versa.

If you want all the instances of a class to share data, use static variables, also known as class variables. Static variables store values for the variables in a common memory location. Because of this common location, if one object changes the value of a static variable, all objects of the same class are affected. Java supports static methods as well as static variables. Static methods can be called without creating an instance of the class.

Let’s modify the Circle class by adding a static variable numberOfObjects to count the number of circle objects created. When the first object of this class is created, numberOfObjects is 1. When the second object is created, numberOfObjects becomes 2. The UML of the new circle class is shown in Figure 8.13. The Circle class defines the instance variable radius and the static variable numberOfObjects, the instance methods getRadius, setRadius, and getArea, and the static method getNumberOfObjects. (Note that static variables and methods are underlined in the UML class diagram.)
To declare a static variable or define a static method, put the modifier `static` in the variable or method declaration. The static variable `numberOfObjects` and the static method `getNumberOfObjects()` can be declared as follows:

```java
int numberOfObjects;

int getNumberOfObjects() {
    return numberOfObjects;
}
```

Constants in a class are shared by all objects of the class. Thus, constants should be declared as `final static`. For example, the constant `PI` in the `Math` class is defined as:

```java
final static double PI = 3.14159265358979323846;
```

The new circle class, named `CircleWithStaticMembers`, is defined in Listing 8.7:

### Listing 8.7 CircleWithStaticMembers.java

```java
public class CircleWithStaticMembers {
    /** The radius of the circle */
    double radius;

    /** The number of objects created */
    static int numberOfObjects = 0;

    /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
    CircleWithStaticMembers() {
        radius = 1;
        numberOfObjects++;
    }

    /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
    CircleWithStaticMembers(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
        numberOfObjects++;
    }

    /** Return numberOfObjects */
    static int getNumberOfObjects() {
        return numberOfObjects;
    }
}
```

Figure 8.13 Instance variables belong to the instances and have memory storage independent of one another. Static variables are shared by all the instances of the same class.
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```java
/** Return the area of this circle */
double getArea() {
    return radius * radius * Math.PI;
}
```

Method `getNumberOfObjects()` in `CircleWithStaticMembers` is a static method. Other examples of static methods are `showMessageDialog` and `showInputDialog` in the `JOptionPane` class and all the methods in the `Math` class. The `main` method is static, too.

Instance methods (e.g., `getArea()`) and instance data (e.g., `radius`) belong to instances and can be used only after the instances are created. They are accessed via a reference variable. Static methods (e.g., `getNumberOfObjects()`) and static data (e.g., `numberOfObjects`) can be accessed from a reference variable or from their class name.

The program in Listing 8.8 demonstrates how to use instance and static variables and methods and illustrates the effects of using them.

**Listing 8.8 TestCircleWithStaticMembers.java**

```java
public class TestCircleWithStaticMembers {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Before creating objects");
        System.out.println("The number of Circle objects is " +
                        CircleWithStaticMembers.numberOfObjects);
        // Create c1
        CircleWithStaticMembers c1 = new CircleWithStaticMembers();

        System.out.println("After creating c1");
        System.out.println("c1: radius (" + c1.radius +
                           ") and number of Circle objects (" +
                           c1.numberOfObjects + ")");

        // Create c2
        CircleWithStaticMembers c2 = new CircleWithStaticMembers(5);

        System.out.println("After creating c2 and modifying c1");
        System.out.println("c1: radius (" + c1.radius +
                           ") and number of Circle objects (" +
                           c1.numberOfObjects + ")");
        System.out.println("c2: radius (" + c2.radius +
                           ") and number of Circle objects (" +
                           c2.numberOfObjects + ")");
    }
```

Before creating objects
The number of Circle objects is 0
After creating c1
`c1: radius (1.0) and number of Circle objects (1)`
After creating c2 and modifying c1
`c1: radius (9.0) and number of Circle objects (2)`
`c2: radius (5.0) and number of Circle objects (2)`
When you compile `TestCircleWithStaticMembers.java`, the Java compiler automatically compiles `CircleWithStaticMembers.java` if it has not been compiled since the last change.

Static variables and methods can be accessed without creating objects. Line 6 displays the number of objects, which is 0, since no objects have been created.

The `main` method creates two circles, `c1` and `c2` (lines 9, 18). The instance variable `radius` in `c1` is modified to become 9 (line 21). This change does not affect the instance variable `radius` in `c2`, since these two instance variables are independent. The static variable `numberOfObjects` becomes 1 after `c1` is created (line 9), and it becomes 2 after `c2` is created (line 18).

Note that `PI` is a constant defined in `Math`, and `Math.PI` references the constant. `c1.numberOfObjects` (line 27) and `c2.numberOfObjects` (line 30) are better replaced by `CircleWithStaticMembers.numberOfObjects`. This improves readability, because other programmers can easily recognize the static variable. You can also replace `CircleWithStaticMembers.numberOfObjects` with `CircleWithStaticMembers.getNumberOfObjects()`.

**Tip**

Use `ClassName.methodName(arguments)` to invoke a static method and `ClassName.staticVariable` to access a static variable. This improves readability, because other programmers can easily recognize the static method and data in the class.

An instance method can invoke an instance or static method and access an instance or static data field. A static method can invoke a static method and access a static data field. However, a static method cannot invoke an instance method or access an instance data field, since static methods and static data fields don’t belong to a particular object. The relationship between static and instance members is summarized in the following diagram:

```
1  public class A {
2      int i = 5;
3      static int k = 2;
4
5      public static void main(String[] args) {
6          int j = i; // Wrong because i is an instance variable
7          m1(); // Wrong because m1() is an instance method
8      }
9
10     public void m1() {
11         // Correct since instance and static variables and methods
12         // can be used in an instance method
13         i = i + k + m2(i, k);
14     }
15
16     public static int m2(int i, int j) {
17         return (int)(Math.pow(i, j));
18     }
19  }
```
Note that if you replace the preceding code with the following new code, the program would be fine, because the instance data field `i` and method `m1` are now accessed from an object `a` (lines 7–8):

```java
public class A {
    int i = 5;
    static int k = 2;

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new A();
        int j = a.i; // OK, a.i accesses the object's instance variable
        a.m1(); // OK, a.m1() invokes the object's instance method
    }

    public void m1() {
        i = i + k + m2(i, k);
    }

    public static int m2(int i, int j) {
        return (int)(Math.pow(i, j));
    }
}
```

### Design Guide

How do you decide whether a variable or method should be an instance one or a static one? A variable or method that is dependent on a specific instance of the class should be an instance variable or method. A variable or method that is not dependent on a specific instance of the class should be a static variable or method. For example, every circle has its own radius, so the radius is dependent on a specific circle. Therefore, `radius` is an instance variable of the `Circle` class. Since the `getArea` method is dependent on a specific circle, it is an instance method. None of the methods in the `Math` class, such as `random`, `pow`, `sin`, and `cos`, is dependent on a specific instance. Therefore, these methods are static methods. The `main` method is static and can be invoked directly from a class.

### Caution

It is a common design error to define an instance method that should have been defined as static. For example, the method `factorial(int n)` should be defined as static, as shown next, because it is independent of any specific instance.

#### Common design error

```java
public class Test {
    public int factorial(int n) {
        int result = 1;
        for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
            result *= i;
        return result;
    }
}
```

(a) Wrong design

```java
public class Test {
    public static int factorial(int n) {
        int result = 1;
        for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
            result *= i;
        return result;
    }
}
```

(b) Correct design

### Check Point

8.17 Suppose that the class `F` is defined in (a). Let `f` be an instance of `F`. Which of the statements in (b) are correct?
8.18 Add the `static` keyword in the place of `?` if appropriate.

```java
public class Test {
    private int count;

    public ? void main(String[] args) {
        ...
    }

    public ? int getCount() {
        return count;
    }

    public ? int factorial(int n) {
        int result = 1;
        for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
            result *= i;

        return result;
    }
}
```

8.19 Can you invoke an instance method or reference an instance variable from a static method? Can you invoke a static method or reference a static variable from an instance method? What is wrong in the following code?

```java
public class C {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        method1();
    }

    public void method1() {
        method2();
    }

    public static void method2() {
        System.out.println("What is radius " + c.getRadius());
    }

    Circle c = new Circle();
}
```

8.8 Visibility Modifiers

Visibility modifiers can be used to specify the visibility of a class and its members.

You can use the `public` visibility modifier for classes, methods, and data fields to denote that they can be accessed from any other classes. If no visibility modifier is used, then by default the classes, methods, and data fields are accessible by any class in the same package. This is known as `package-private` or `package-access`. 
Chapter 8 Objects and Classes

If a class is not defined as public, it can be accessed only within the same package. As shown in Figure 8.15, C1 can be accessed from C2 but not from C3.

Note

Packages can be used to organize classes. To do so, you need to add the following line as the first noncomment and nonblank statement in the program:

```java
package packageName;
```

If a class is defined without the package statement, it is said to be placed in the default package.

Java recommends that you place classes into packages rather than using a default package. For simplicity, however, this book uses default packages. For more information on packages, see Supplement III.G, Packages.

In addition to the public and default visibility modifiers, Java provides the private and protected modifiers for class members. This section introduces the private modifier. The protected modifier will be introduced in Section 11.13, The protected Data and Methods.

The private modifier makes methods and data fields accessible only from within its own class. Figure 8.14 illustrates how a public, default, and private data field or method in class C1 can be accessed from a class C2 in the same package and from a class C3 in a different package.

```java
package p1;
public class C1 {
   public int x;
   int y;
   private int z;
   public void m1() {
   }
   void m2() {
   }
   private void m3() {
   }
}

package p1;
public class C2 {
   void aMethod() {
      C1 o = new C1();
      can access o.x;
      can access o.y;
      cannot access o.z;
      can invoke o.m1();
      can invoke o.m2();
      cannot invoke o.m3();
   }
}

package p2;
public class C3 {
   public class C1 {
      void aMethod() {
         C1 o = new C1();
         can access o.x;
         cannot access o.y;
         cannot access o.z;
         can invoke o.m1();
         cannot invoke o.m2();
         cannot invoke o.m3();
      }
   }
}
```

**Figure 8.14** The private modifier restricts access to its defining class, the default modifier restricts access to a package, and the public modifier enables unrestricted access.

If a class is not defined as public, it can be accessed only within the same package. As shown in Figure 8.15, C1 can be accessed from C2 but not from C3.

```java
package p1;
public class C1 {
   ...
}

package p1;
public class C2 {
   can access C1
}

package p2;
public class C3 {
   cannot access C1;
   can access C2;
}
```

**Figure 8.15** A nonpublic class has package-access.

A visibility modifier specifies how data fields and methods in a class can be accessed from outside the class. There is no restriction on accessing data fields and methods from inside the class. As shown in Figure 8.16b, an object c of class C cannot access its private members, because c is in the Test class. As shown in Figure 8.16a, an object c of class C can access its private members, because c is defined inside its own class.
Caution
The `private` modifier applies only to the members of a class. The `public` modifier can apply to a class or members of a class. Using the modifiers `public` and `private` on local variables would cause a compile error.

Note
In most cases, the constructor should be public. However, if you want to prohibit the user from creating an instance of a class, use a `private constructor`. For example, there is no reason to create an instance from the `Math` class, because all of its data fields and methods are static. To prevent the user from creating objects from the `Math` class, the constructor in `java.lang.Math` is defined as follows:

```java
private Math() {
}
```

8.9 Data Field Encapsulation

Making data fields private protects data and makes the class easy to maintain.

The data fields `radius` and `numberOfObjects` in the `CircleWithStaticMembers` class in Listing 8.7 can be modified directly (e.g., `c1.radius = 5` or `CircleWithStaticMembers.numberOfObjects = 10`). This is not a good practice—for two reasons:

- First, data may be tampered with. For example, `numberOfObjects` is to count the number of objects created, but it may be mistakenly set to an arbitrary value (e.g., `CircleWithStaticMembers.numberofObjects = 10`).

- Second, the class becomes difficult to maintain and vulnerable to bugs. Suppose you want to modify the `CircleWithStaticMembers` class to ensure that the radius is nonnegative after other programs have already used the class. You have to change not only the `CircleWithStaticMembers` class but also the programs that use it, because the clients may have modified the radius directly (e.g., `c1.radius = -5`).

To prevent direct modifications of data fields, you should declare the data fields private, using the `private` modifier. This is known as `data field encapsulation`.

![Figure 8.16](image)

(a) This is okay because object `c` is used inside the class `C`.

(b) This is wrong because `x` and `convert` are private in class `C`.

**FIGURE 8.16** An object can access its private members if it is defined in its own class.
A private data field cannot be accessed by an object from outside the class that defines the private field. However, a client often needs to retrieve and modify a data field. To make a private data field accessible, provide a get method to return its value. To enable a private data field to be updated, provide a set method to set a new value.

**Note**
Colloquially, a get method is referred to as a getter (or accessor), and a set method is referred to as a setter (or mutator).

A get method has the following signature:

```
public returnType getPropertyName()
```

If the returnType is boolean, the get method should be defined as follows by convention:

```
public boolean isPropertyName()
```

A set method has the following signature:

```
public void setPropertyName(dataType propertyValue)
```

Let’s create a new circle class with a private data-field radius and its associated accessor and mutator methods. The class diagram is shown in Figure 8.17. The new circle class, named `CircleWithPrivateDataFields`, is defined in Listing 8.9:

```java
public class CircleWithPrivateDataFields {

  /** The radius of the circle */
  private double radius = 1;

  /** The number of objects created */
  private static int numberOfObjects = 0;

  /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
  public CircleWithPrivateDataFields() {
    numberOfObjects++;
  }

  /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
  public CircleWithPrivateDataFields(double newRadius) {
    radius = newRadius;
  }

  /** Get the radius of this circle */
  public double getRadius() {
    return radius;
  }

  /** Get the area of this circle */
  public double getArea() {
    return Math.PI * getRadius() * getRadius();
  }

  /** Set a new radius for this circle */
  public void setRadius(double newRadius) {
    radius = newRadius;
  }

  /** Get the number of objects created */
  public int getNumberOfObjects() {
    return numberOfObjects;
  }
}
```

**Figure 8.17** The `Circle` class encapsulates circle properties and provides get/set and other methods.

**Listing 8.9** CircleWithPrivateDataFields.java
The data field `radius` is declared private. Private data can be accessed only within their defining class, so you cannot use `myCircle.radius` in the client program. A compile error would occur if you attempted to access private data from a client.
Since `numberOfObjects` is private, it cannot be modified. This prevents tampering. For example, the user cannot set `numberOfObjects` to 100. The only way to make it 100 is to create 100 objects of the `Circle` class.

Suppose you combined `TestCircleWithPrivateDataFields` and `Circle` into one class by moving the `main` method in `TestCircleWithPrivateDataFields` into `Circle`. Could you use `myCircle.radius` in the `main` method? See Checkpoint Question 8.22 for the answer.

### Design Guide

To prevent data from being tampered with and to make the class easy to maintain, declare data fields private.

8.20 What is an accessor method? What is a mutator method? What are the naming conventions for accessor methods and mutator methods?

8.21 What are the benefits of data field encapsulation?

8.22 In the following code, `radius` is private in the `Circle` class, and `myCircle` is an object of the `Circle` class. Does the highlighted code cause any problems? If so, explain why.

```java
public class Circle {
    private double radius = 1;

    /** Find the area of this circle */
    public double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Circle myCircle = new Circle();
        System.out.println("Radius is "+ myCircle.radius);
    }
}
```

8.10 Passing Objects to Methods

Passing an object to a method is to pass the reference of the object.

You can pass objects to methods. Like passing an array, passing an object is actually passing the reference of the object. The following code passes the `myCircle` object as an argument to the `printCircle` method:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // CircleWithPrivateDataFields is defined in Listing 8.9
        CircleWithPrivateDataFields myCircle = new CircleWithPrivateDataFields(5.0);
        printCircle(myCircle);
    }

    public static void printCircle(CircleWithPrivateDataFields c) {
        System.out.println("The area of the circle of radius "+ c.getRadius() + " is " + c.getArea());
    }
}
```

Java uses exactly one mode of passing arguments: pass-by-value. In the preceding code, the value of `myCircle` is passed to the `printCircle` method. This value is a reference to a `Circle` object.
The program in Listing 8.11 demonstrates the difference between passing a primitive type value and passing a reference value.

**Listing 8.11 TestPassObject.java**

```
public class TestPassObject {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Circle object with radius 1
        CircleWithPrivateDataFields myCircle = new CircleWithPrivateDataFields(1);
        // Print areas for radius 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.
        int n = 5;
        printAreas(myCircle, n);
        // See myCircle.radius and times
        System.out.println("Radius is " + myCircle.getRadius());
        System.out.println("n is " + n);
    }

    /** Print a table of areas for radius */
    public static void printAreas(
        CircleWithPrivateDataFields c, int times)
    {
        System.out.println("Radius \t\tArea");
        while (times >= 1) {
            System.out.println(c.getRadius() + "\t\t" + c.getArea());
            c.setRadius(c.getRadius() + 1);
            times--;
        }
    }
}
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radius</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.141592653589793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>12.566370614359172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>29.274333882308138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>50.26548245743669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>79.53981633974483</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Radius is 6.0
n is 5

The CircleWithPrivateDataFields class is defined in Listing 8.9. The program passes a CircleWithPrivateDataFields object myCircle and an integer value from n to invoke printAreas(myCircle, n) (line 9), which prints a table of areas for radii 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, as shown in the sample output.

Figure 8.18 shows the call stack for executing the methods in the program. Note that the objects are stored in a heap (see Section 6.6).

When passing an argument of a primitive data type, the value of the argument is passed. In this case, the value of n (5) is passed to times. Inside the printAreas method, the content of times is changed; this does not affect the content of n.

When passing an argument of a reference type, the reference of the object is passed. In this case, c contains a reference for the object that is also referenced via myCircle. Therefore, changing the properties of the object through c inside the printAreas method has the same effect as doing so outside the method through the variable myCircle. Pass-by-value on references can be best described semantically as pass-by-sharing; that is, the object referenced in the method is the same as the object being passed.
8.23 Describe the difference between passing a parameter of a primitive type and passing a parameter of a reference type. Show the output of the following programs:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Count myCount = new Count();
        int times = 0;
        for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
            increment(myCount, times);
        System.out.println("count is "+myCount.count);
        System.out.println("times is "+times);
    }
    public static void increment(Count c, int times) {
        c.count++;
        times++;
    }
}

public class Count {
    public int count;
    public Count(int c) {
        count = c;
    }
    public Count() {
        count = 1;
    }
}
```

8.24 Show the output of the following program:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Circle circle1 = new Circle(1);
        Circle circle2 = new Circle(2);
        swap1(circle1, circle2);
        System.out.println("After swap1: circle1 = " +
                           circle1.radius + " circle2 = " + circle2.radius);
        swap2(circle1, circle2);
        System.out.println("After swap2: circle1 = " +
                           circle1.radius + " circle2 = " + circle2.radius);
    }
    public static void swap1(Circle x, Circle y) {
        Circle temp = x;
        x = y;
        y = temp;
    }
    public static void swap2(Circle x, Circle y) {
        x.radius = y.radius;
        y.radius = x.radius;
    }
}
```
public static void swap2(Circle x, Circle y) {
    double temp = x.radius;
    x.radius = y.radius;
    y.radius = temp;
}

class Circle {
    double radius;

    Circle(double newRadius) {
        radius = newRadius;
    }
}

8.25 Show the printout of the following code:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[] a = {1, 2};
        swap(a);
        System.out.println("a[0] = " + a[0] + " a[1] = " + a[1]);
    }

    public static void swap(int[] a) {
        int temp = a[0];
        a[0] = a[1];
        a[1] = temp;
    }
}
```

(a)
8.26 What is the output of the following programs?

(a) `import java.util.Date;
public class Test {
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Date date = null;
m1(date);
    System.out.println(date.getTime());
}
public static void m1(Date date) {
date = new Date();
}
}`

(b) `import java.util.Date;
public class Test {
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Date date = new Date(1234567);
m1(date);
    System.out.println(date.getTime());
}
public static void m1(Date date) {
date = new Date(7654321);
}
}`

(c) `import java.util.Date;
public class Test {
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Date date = new Date(1234567);
m1(date);
    System.out.println(date.getTime());
}
public static void m1(Date date) {
date.setTime(7654321);
}
}`

(d) `import java.util.Date;
public class Test {
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Date date = null;
m1(date);
    System.out.println(date);
}
public static void m1(Date date) {
date = new Date();
}
}`

8.11 Array of Objects

An array can hold objects as well as primitive type values.

Chapter 6, Single-Dimensional Arrays, described how to create arrays of primitive type elements. You can also create arrays of objects. For example, the following statement declares and creates an array of ten `Circle` objects:

```
Circle[] circleArray = new Circle[10];
```

To initialize `circleArray`, you can use a for loop like this one:

```
for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++) {
circleArray[i] = new Circle();
}
```

An array of objects is actually an array of reference variables. So, invoking `circleArray[1].getArea()` involves two levels of referencing, as shown in Figure 8.19. `circleArray` references the entire array; `circleArray[1]` references a `Circle` object.

**Note**

When an array of objects is created using the `new` operator, each element in the array is a reference variable with a default value of `null`. 
Listing 8.12 gives an example that demonstrates how to use an array of objects. The program summarizes the areas of an array of circles. The program creates `circleArray`, an array composed of five `Circle` objects; it then initializes circle radii with random values and displays the total area of the circles in the array.

**LISTING 8.12** TotalArea.java

```java
public class TotalArea {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Declare circleArray
        CircleWithPrivateDataFields[] circleArray;

        // Create circleArray
        circleArray = createCircleArray();

        // Print circleArray and total areas of the circles
        printCircleArray(circleArray);
    }

    /** Create an array of Circle objects */
    public static CircleWithPrivateDataFields[] createCircleArray() {
        CircleWithPrivateDataFields[] circleArray =
                new CircleWithPrivateDataFields[5];

        for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++) {
            circleArray[i] =
                    new CircleWithPrivateDataFields(Math.random() * 100);
        }

        // Return Circle array
        return circleArray;
    }

    /** Print an array of circles and their total area */
    public static void printCircleArray(CircleWithPrivateDataFields[] circleArray) {
        System.out.printf("%-30s%-15s\n", "Radius", "Area");
        for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++) {
            System.out.printf("%-30f%-15f\n", circleArray[i].getRadius(),
                             circleArray[i].getArea());
        }
        System.out.println("------------------------------------------");

        // Compute and display the result
        System.out.printf("%-30s%-15f\n", "The total area of circles is",
                                sum(circleArray));
    }
}
```

**Figure 8.19** In an array of objects, an element of the array contains a reference to an object.
pass array of objects

```java
42     }
43
44     /** Add circle areas */
45     public static double sum(CircleWithPrivateDataFields[] circleArray) {
46       // Initialize sum
47       double sum = 0;
48
49       // Add areas to sum
50       for (int i = 0; i < circleArray.length; i++)
51           sum += circleArray[i].getArea();
52
53       return sum;
54     }
55   }
```

Radius | Area    
------|---------
70.577708 | 15648.941866 
44.152266 | 6124.291736  
24.867853 | 1942.792644  
5.680718  | 101.380949   
36.734246 | 4239.280350  

The total area of circles is 28056.687544

The program invokes `createCircleArray()` (line 8) to create an array of five circle objects. Several circle classes were introduced in this chapter. This example uses the `CircleWithPrivateDataFields` class introduced in Section 8.9, Data Field Encapsulation.

The circle radii are randomly generated using the `Math.random()` method (line 21). The `createCircleArray` method returns an array of `CircleWithPrivateDataFields` objects (line 25). The array is passed to the `printCircleArray` method, which displays the radius and area of each circle and the total area of the circles.

The sum of the circle areas is computed by invoking the `sum` method (line 41), which takes the array of `CircleWithPrivateDataFields` objects as the argument and returns a `double` value for the total area.

8.27 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
1   public class Test {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3       java.util.Date[] dates = new java.util.Date[10];
4       System.out.println(dates[0]);
5       System.out.println(dates[0].toString());
6     }
7   }
```

**Key Terms**

- action 296
- anonymous object 305
- attribute 296
- behavior 296
- class 296
- client 299
- constructor 296
- data field 296
- data field encapsulation 319
- default constructor 303
- dot operator (.) 304
- getter (or accessor) 320
**CHAPTER SUMMARY**

1. A *class* is a template for *objects*. It defines the *properties* of objects and provides *constructors* for creating objects and methods for manipulating them.

2. A class is also a data type. You can use it to declare object *reference variables*. An object reference variable that appears to hold an object actually contains a reference to that object. Strictly speaking, an object reference variable and an object are different, but most of the time the distinction can be ignored.

3. An object is an *instance* of a class. You use the `new` operator to create an object, and the *dot operator* (.) to access members of that object through its reference variable.

4. An *instance variable* or *method* belongs to an instance of a class. Its use is associated with individual instances. A *static variable* is a variable shared by all instances of the same class. A *static method* is a method that can be invoked without using instances.

5. Every instance of a class can access the class’s static variables and methods. For clarity, however, it is better to invoke static variables and methods using `ClassName.variable` and `ClassName.method`.

6. Modifiers specify how the class, method, and data are accessed. A *public* class, method, or data is accessible to all clients. A *private* method or data is accessible only inside the class.

7. You can provide a *get* method or a *set* method to enable clients to see or modify the data. Colloquially, a *get* method is referred to as a *getter* (or *accessor*), and a *set* method as a *setter* (or *mutator*).

8. A *get* method has the signature `public returnType getPropertyName()`. If the *returnType* is `boolean`, the *get* method should be defined as `public boolean isPropertyName()`. A *set* method has the signature `public void setPropertyName(dataType propertyValue)`.

9. All parameters are passed to methods using pass-by-value. For a parameter of a primitive type, the actual value is passed; for a parameter of a *reference type*, the reference for the object is passed.

10. A Java array is an object that can contain primitive type values or object type values. When an array of objects is created, its elements are assigned the default value of `null`.
Chapter 8  Objects and Classes

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Programming Exercises

Pedagogical Note

The exercises in Chapters 8–11, 15 help you achieve three objectives:

- Design classes and draw UML class diagrams
- Implement classes from the UML
- Use classes to develop applications

Students can download solutions for the UML diagrams for the even-numbered exercises from the Companion Website, and instructors can download all solutions from the same site.

Sections 8.2–8.5

8.1  (The Rectangle class) Following the example of the Circle class in Section 8.2, design a class named Rectangle to represent a rectangle. The class contains:

- Two double data fields named width and height that specify the width and height of the rectangle. The default values are 1 for both width and height.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default rectangle.
- A constructor that creates a rectangle with the specified width and height.
- A method named getArea() that returns the area of this rectangle.
- A method named getPerimeter() that returns the perimeter.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates two Rectangle objects—one with width 4 and height 40 and the other with width 3.5 and height 35.9. Display the width, height, area, and perimeter of each rectangle in this order.

8.2  (The Stock class) Following the example of the Circle class in Section 8.2, design a class named Stock that contains:

- A string data field named symbol for the stock’s symbol.
- A string data field named name for the stock’s name.
- A double data field named previousClosingPrice that stores the stock price for the previous day.
- A double data field named currentPrice that stores the stock price for the current time.
- A constructor that creates a stock with the specified symbol and name.
- A method named getChangePercent() that returns the percentage changed from previousClosingPrice to currentPrice.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates a Stock object with the stock symbol ORCL, the name Oracle Corporation, and the previous closing price of 34.5. Set a new current price to 34.35 and display the price-change percentage.

Section 8.6

8.3  (Use the Date class) Write a program that creates a Date object, sets its elapsed time to 10000, 100000, 1000000, 10000000, 100000000, 1000000000, 10000000000, and 100000000000, and displays the date and time using the toString() method, respectively.
*8.4  *(Use the Random class)* Write a program that creates a Random object with seed 1000 and displays the first 50 random integers between 0 and 100 using the nextInt(100) method.

*8.5  *(Use the GregorianCalendar class)* Java API has the GregorianCalendar class in the java.util package, which you can use to obtain the year, month, and day of a date. The no-arg constructor constructs an instance for the current date, and the methods get(GregorianCalendar.YEAR), get(GregorianCalendar.MONTH), and get(GregorianCalendar.DAY_OF_MONTH) return the year, month, and day. Write a program to perform two tasks:

- Display the current year, month, and day.
- The GregorianCalendar class has the setTimeInMillis(long), which can be used to set a specified elapsed time since January 1, 1970. Set the value to 1234567898765L and display the year, month, and day.

Sections 8.7–8.9

**8.6  *(Display calendars)* Rewrite the PrintCalendar class in Listing 5.12 to display calendars in a message dialog box. Since the output is generated from several static methods in the class, you may define a static String variable output for storing the output and display it in a message dialog box.

8.7  *(The Account class)* Design a class named Account that contains:

- A private int data field named id for the account (default 0).
- A private double data field named balance for the account (default 0).
- A private double data field named annualInterestRate that stores the current interest rate (default 0). Assume all accounts have the same interest rate.
- A private Date data field named dateCreated that stores the date when the account was created.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default account.
- A constructor that creates an account with the specified id and initial balance.
- The accessor and mutator methods for id, balance, and annualInterestRate.
- The accessor method for dateCreated.
- A method named getMonthlyInterestRate() that returns the monthly interest rate.
- A method named getMonthlyInterest() that returns the monthly interest.
- A method named withdraw that withdraws a specified amount from the account.
- A method named deposit that deposits a specified amount to the account.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. *(Hint: The method getMonthlyInterest() is to return monthly interest, not the interest rate. Monthly interest is balance * monthlyInterestRate. monthlyInterestRate is annualInterestRate / 12. Note that annualInterestRate is a percentage, e.g., like 4.5%. You need to divide it by 100.)*

Write a test program that creates an Account object with an account ID of 1122, a balance of $20,000, and an annual interest rate of 4.5%. Use the withdraw method to withdraw $2,500, use the deposit method to deposit $3,000, and print the balance, the monthly interest, and the date when this account was created.

8.8  *(The Fan class)* Design a class named Fan to represent a fan. The class contains:

- Three constants named SLOW, MEDIUM, and FAST with the values 1, 2, and 3 to denote the fan speed.
A private `int` data field named `speed` that specifies the speed of the fan (the default is `SLOW`).

A private `boolean` data field named `on` that specifies whether the fan is on (the default is `false`).

A private `double` data field named `radius` that specifies the radius of the fan (the default is `5`).

A string data field named `color` that specifies the color of the fan (the default is `blue`).

The accessor and mutator methods for all four data fields.

A no-arg constructor that creates a default fan.

A method named `toString()` that returns a string description for the fan. If the fan is on, the method returns the fan speed, color, and radius in one combined string. If the fan is not on, the method returns the fan color and radius along with the string “fan is off” in one combined string.

**8.9** (Geometry: n-sided regular polygon) In an n-sided regular polygon, all sides have the same length and all angles have the same degree (i.e., the polygon is both equilateral and equiangular). Design a class named `RegularPolygon` that contains:

- A private `int` data field named `n` that defines the number of sides in the polygon with default value `3`.
- A private `double` data field named `side` that stores the length of the side with default value `1`.
- A private `double` data field named `x` that defines the x-coordinate of the polygon’s center with default value `0`.
- A private `double` data field named `y` that defines the y-coordinate of the polygon’s center with default value `0`.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a regular polygon with default values.
- A constructor that creates a regular polygon with the specified number of sides and length of side, centered at (0, 0).
- A constructor that creates a regular polygon with the specified number of sides, length of side, and x-and y-coordinates.
- The accessor and mutator methods for all data fields.
- The method `getPerimeter()` that returns the perimeter of the polygon.
- The method `getArea()` that returns the area of the polygon. The formula for computing the area of a regular polygon is \( Area = \frac{n \times s^2}{4 \times \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)} \).

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates three `RegularPolygon` objects, created using the no-arg constructor, using `RegularPolygon(6, 4)`, and using `RegularPolygon(10, 4, 5.6, 7.8)`. For each object, display its perimeter and area.

**8.10** (Algebra: quadratic equations) Design a class named `QuadraticEquation` for a quadratic equation \( ax^2 + bx + x = 0 \). The class contains:

- Private data fields `a`, `b`, and `c` that represent three coefficients.
- A constructor for the arguments for `a`, `b`, and `c`. 

Three get methods for a, b, and c.

A method named getDiscriminant() that returns the discriminant, which is \( b^2 - 4ac \).

The methods named getRoot1() and getRoot2() for returning two roots of the equation

\[
\begin{align*}
    r_1 &= \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \\
    r_2 &= \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}
\end{align*}
\]

These methods are useful only if the discriminant is nonnegative. Let these methods return 0 if the discriminant is negative.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter values for a, b, and c and displays the result based on the discriminant. If the discriminant is positive, display the two roots. If the discriminant is 0, display the one root. Otherwise, display “The equation has no roots.” See Programming Exercise 3.1 for sample runs.

**8.11** (Algebra: 2 \(\times\) 2 linear equations) Design a class named LinearEquation for a 2 \(\times\) 2 system of linear equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
    ax + by &= e \\
    cx + dy &= f
\end{align*}
\]

The class contains:

- Private data fields a, b, c, d, e, and f.
- A constructor with the arguments for a, b, c, d, e, and f.
- Six get methods for a, b, c, d, e, and f.
- A method named isSolvable() that returns true if \( ad - bc \) is not 0.
- Methods getX() and getY() that return the solution for the equation.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a, b, c, d, e, and f and displays the result. If \( ad - bc \) is 0, report that “The equation has no solution.” See Programming Exercise 3.3 for sample runs.

**8.12** (Geometry: intersection) Suppose two line segments intersect. The two endpoints for the first line segment are \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) and for the second line segment are \((x_3, y_3)\) and \((x_4, y_4)\). Write a program that prompts the user to enter these four endpoints and displays the intersecting point. (Hint: Use the LinearEquation class in Exercise 8.11.)

```
Enter the endpoints of the first line segment: 2.0 2.0 0 0
Enter the endpoints of the second line segment: 0 2.0 2.0 0
The intersecting point is: (1.0, 1.0)
```

**8.13** (The Location class) Design a class named Location for locating a maximal value and its location in a two-dimensional array. The class contains public data fields row, column, and maxValue that store the maximal value and its indices in a two-dimensional array with row and column as int types and maxValue as a double type.

Write the following method that returns the location of the largest element in a two-dimensional array:

```
public static Location locateLargest(double[][] a)
```
The return value is an instance of `Location`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a two-dimensional array and displays the location of the largest element in the array. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the number of rows and columns in the array: 3 4
Enter the array:
23.5 35 2 10
4.5 3 45 3.5
35 44 5.5 9.6
The location of the largest element is 45 at (1, 2)
```

*8.14 (Stopwatch) Design a class named `StopWatch`. The class contains:

- Private data fields `startTime` and `endTime` with get methods.
- A no-arg constructor that initializes `startTime` with the current time.
- A method named `start()` that resets the `startTime` to the current time.
- A method named `stop()` that sets the `endTime` to the current time.
- A method named `getElapsedTime()` that returns the elapsed time for the stopwatch in milliseconds.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that measures the execution time of sorting 100,000 numbers using selection sort.
OBJECTIVES

To use the `String` class to process fixed strings (§9.2).
To construct strings (§9.2.1).
To understand that strings are immutable and to create an interned string (§9.2.2).
To compare strings (§9.2.3).
To get string length and characters, and combine strings (§9.2.4).
To obtain substrings (§9.2.5).
To convert, replace, and split strings (§9.2.6).
To match, replace, and split strings by patterns (§9.2.7).
To search for a character or substring in a string (§9.2.8).
To convert between a string and an array (§9.2.9).
To convert characters and numbers into a string (§9.2.10).
To obtain a formatted string (§9.2.11).
To check whether a string is a palindrome (§9.3).
To convert hexadecimal numbers to decimal numbers (§9.4).
To use the `Character` class to process a single character (§9.5).
To use the `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer` classes to process flexible strings (§9.6).
To distinguish among the `String`, `StringBuilder`, and `StringBuffer` classes (§9.2–9.6).
To learn how to pass arguments to the `main` method from the command line (§9.7).
9.1 Introduction

The classes `String`, `StringBuilder`, and `StringBuffer` are used for processing strings.

A string is a sequence of characters. Strings are frequently used in programming. In many languages, strings are treated as an array of characters, but in Java a string is treated as an object. This chapter introduces the classes for processing strings.

9.2 The String Class

A `String` object is immutable: Its content cannot be changed once the string is created.

The `String` class has 13 constructors and more than 40 methods for manipulating strings. Not only is it very useful in programming, but it is also a good example for learning classes and objects.

9.2.1 Constructing a String

You can create a string object from a string literal or from an array of characters. To create a string from a string literal, use the syntax:

```java
String newString = new String(stringLiteral);
```

The argument `stringLiteral` is a sequence of characters enclosed inside double quotes. The following statement creates a `String` object `message` for the string literal "Welcome to Java":

```java
String message = new String("Welcome to Java");
```

Java treats a string literal as a `String` object. Thus, the following statement is valid:

```java
String message = "Welcome to Java";
```

You can also create a string from an array of characters. For example, the following statements create the string "Good Day":

```java
char[] charArray = {'G', 'o', 'o', 'd', ' ', 'D', 'a', 'y'};
String message = new String(charArray);
```

A `String` variable holds a reference to a `String` object that stores a string value. Strictly speaking, the terms `String variable`, `String object`, and `string value` are different, but most of the time the distinctions between them can be ignored. For simplicity, the term `string` will often be used to refer to `String variable`, `String object`, and string value.

9.2.2 Immutable Strings and Interned Strings

A `String` object is immutable; its contents cannot be changed. Does the following code change the contents of the string?

```java
String s = "Java";
s = "HTML";
```

The answer is no. The first statement creates a `String` object with the content "Java" and assigns its reference to `s`. The second statement creates a new `String` object with the content "HTML", but the reference `s` remains the same.
"HTML" and assigns its reference to `s`. The first `String` object still exists after the assignment, but it can no longer be accessed, because variable `s` now points to the new object, as shown in Figure 9.1.

Because strings are immutable and are ubiquitous in programming, the JVM uses a unique instance for string literals with the same character sequence in order to improve efficiency and save memory. Such an instance is called an *interned string*. For example, the following statements:

```java
String s1 = "Welcome to Java";
String s2 = new String("Welcome to Java");
String s3 = "Welcome to Java";
System.out.println("s1 == s2 is " + (s1 == s2));
System.out.println("s1 == s3 is " + (s1 == s3));
display
s1 == s2 is false
s1 == s3 is true
```

In the preceding statements, `s1` and `s3` refer to the same interned string—"Welcome to Java"—so `s1 == s3` is `true`. However, `s1 == s2` is `false`, because `s1` and `s2` are two different string objects, even though they have the same contents.

### 9.2.3 String Comparisons

The `String` class provides the methods for comparing strings, as shown in Figure 9.2.

How do you compare the contents of two strings? You might attempt to use the `==` operator, as follows:

```java
if (string1 == string2)
    System.out.println("string1 and string2 are the same object");
else
    System.out.println("string1 and string2 are different objects");
```

However, the `==` operator checks only whether `string1` and `string2` refer to the same object; it does not tell you whether they have the same contents. Therefore, you cannot use the `==` operator to find out whether two string variables have the same contents. Instead, you should use the `equals` method. The following code, for instance, can be used to compare two strings:

```java
if (string1.equals(string2))
    System.out.println("string1 and string2 have the same contents");
else
    System.out.println("string1 and string2 are not equal");
```
Note that parameter type for the `equals` method is `Object`. We will introduce the `Object` class in Chapter 11. For now, you can replace `Object` by `String` for using the `equals` method to compare two strings. For example, the following statements display `true` and then `false`.

```java
String s1 = new String("Welcome to Java");
String s2 = "Welcome to Java";
String s3 = "Welcome to C++";
System.out.println(s1.equals(s2));  // true
System.out.println(s1.equals(s3));  // false
```

The `compareTo` method can also be used to compare two strings. For example, consider the following code:

```java
s1.compareTo(s2)
```

The method returns the value `0` if `s1` is equal to `s2`, a value less than `0` if `s1` is lexicographically (i.e., in terms of Unicode ordering) less than `s2`, and a value greater than `0` if `s1` is lexicographically greater than `s2`.

The actual value returned from the `compareTo` method depends on the offset of the first two distinct characters in `s1` and `s2` from left to right. For example, suppose `s1` is `abc` and `s2` is `abg`, and `s1.compareTo(s2)` returns `-4`. The first two characters (a vs. a) from `s1` and `s2` are compared. Because they are equal, the second two characters (b vs. b) are compared. Because they are also equal, the third two characters (c vs. g) are compared. Since the character `c` is 4 less than `g`, the comparison returns `-4`.

**Caution**

Syntax errors will occur if you compare strings by using comparison operators `>`, `>=`, `<`, or `<=`. Instead, you have to use `s1.compareTo(s2)`.

**Note**

The `equals` method returns `true` if two strings are equal and `false` if they are not. The `compareTo` method returns `0`, a positive integer, or a negative integer, depending on whether one string is equal to, greater than, equal to, or less than the other string.

The `String` class also provides the `equalsIgnoreCase`, `compareToIgnoreCase`, and `regionMatches` methods for comparing strings. The `equalsIgnoreCase` and
compareToIgnoreCase methods ignore the case of the letters when comparing two strings. The regionMatches method compares portions of two strings for equality. You can also use str.startsWith(prefix) to check whether string str starts with a specified prefix, and str.endsWith(suffix) to check whether string str ends with a specified suffix.

9.2.4 Getting String Length and Characters, and Combining Strings

The String class provides the methods for obtaining a string’s length, retrieving individual characters, and concatenating strings, as shown in Figure 9.3.

You can get the length of a string by invoking its length() method. For example, message.length() returns the length of the string message.

Caution
length is a method in the String class but is a property of an array object. Therefore, you have to use s.length() to get the number of characters in string s, and a.length to get the number of elements in array a.

The s.charAt(index) method can be used to retrieve a specific character in a string s, where the index is between 0 and s.length()-1. For example, message.charAt(0) returns the character W, as shown in Figure 9.4.

Note
When you use a string, you often know its literal value. For convenience, Java allows you to use the string literal to refer directly to strings without creating new variables. Thus, “Welcome to Java”.charAt(0) is correct and returns W.

Figure 9.3 The String class contains the methods for getting string length, individual characters, and combining strings.

Figure 9.4 The characters in a String object are stored using an array internally.

Figure 9.5 The String class uses an array to store characters internally. The array is private and cannot be accessed outside of the String class. The String class provides many public methods, such as length() and charAt(index), to retrieve the string information. This is a good example of encapsulation: the data field of the class is hidden from the user through the private modifier, and thus the user cannot directly manipulate it. If the array were not private, the user would be able to change the string content by modifying the array. This would violate the tenet that the String class is immutable.
string index range

Caution

Attempting to access characters in a string \( s \) out of bounds is a common programming error. To avoid it, make sure that you do not use an index beyond \( s.length() - 1 \). For example, \( s.charAt(s.length()) \) would cause a StringIndexOutOfBoundsException.

You can use the concat method to concatenate two strings. The statement shown below, for example, concatenates strings \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) into \( s_3 \):

\[
s1.concat(s2)
\]

Because string concatenation is heavily used in programming, Java provides a convenient way to accomplish it. You can use the plus (+) operator to concatenate two strings, so the previous statement is equivalent to

\[
s1 + s2
\]

The following code combines the strings message, " and ", and "HTML" into one string:

\[
String s3 = s1.concat(s2);
\]

9.2.5 Obtaining Substrings

You can obtain a single character from a string using the charAt method, as shown in Figure 9.3. You can also obtain a substring from a string using the substring method in the String class, as shown in Figure 9.5.

For example,

\[
String message = "Welcome to Java".substring(0, 11) + "HTML";
\]

The string message now becomes Welcome to HTML.
9.2.6 Converting, Replacing, and Splitting Strings

The `String` class provides the methods for converting, replacing, and splitting strings, as shown in Figure 9.7.

Once a string is created, its contents cannot be changed. The methods `toLowerCase`, `toUpperCase`, `trim`, `replace`, `replaceFirst`, and `replaceAll` return a new string derived from the original string (without changing the original string!). The `toLowerCase` and `toUpperCase` methods return a new string by converting all the characters in the string to lowercase or uppercase. The `trim` method returns a new string by eliminating whitespace characters from both ends of the string. Several versions of the `replace` methods are provided to replace a character or a substring in the string with a new character or a new substring.

For example,

```
"Welcome".toLowerCase() returns a new string, welcome.
"Welcome".toUpperCase() returns a new string, WELCOME.
"\t Good Night \n".trim() returns a new string, Good Night.
"Welcome".replace('e', 'A') returns a new string, WAlcomA.
"Welcome".replaceFirst("e", "AB") returns a new string, WABlcome.
"Welcome".replace("e", "AB") returns a new string, WABlcomAB.
"Welcome".replace("el", "AB") returns a new string, WABcome.
```

The `split` method can be used to extract tokens from a string with the specified delimiters. For example, the following code

```
String[] tokens = "Java#HTML#Perl".split("#");
for (int i = 0; i < tokens.length; i++)
    System.out.print(tokens[i] + " ");
```

displays

Java HTML Perl
9.2.7 Matching, Replacing and Splitting by Patterns

Often you will need to write code that validates user input, such as to check whether the input is a number, a string with all lowercase letters, or a Social Security number. How do you write this type of code? A simple and effective way to accomplish this task is to use the regular expression.

A regular expression (abbreviated regex) is a string that describes a pattern for matching a set of strings. You can match, replace, or split a string by specifying a pattern. This is an extremely useful and powerful feature.

Let us begin with the `matches` method in the `String` class. At first glance, the `matches` method is very similar to the `equals` method. For example, the following two statements both evaluate to `true`:

```java
"Java".matches("Java");
"Java".equals("Java");
```

However, the `matches` method is more powerful. It can match not only a fixed string, but also a set of strings that follow a pattern. For example, the following statements all evaluate to `true`:

```java
"Java is fun".matches("Java.\*")
"Java is cool".matches("Java.\*")
"Java is powerful".matches("Java.\*")
```

`Java.\*` in the preceding statements is a regular expression. It describes a string pattern that begins with Java followed by any zero or more characters. Here, the substring `.\*` matches any zero or more characters.

The following statement evaluates to `true`:

```java
"440-02-4534".matches("[^d{3}-^d{2}-^d{4}]")
```

Here `[^d{3}]` represents a single digit, and `[^d{3}]` represents three digits.

The `replaceAll`, `replaceFirst`, and `split` methods can be used with a regular expression. For example, the following statement returns a new string that replaces `$`, `+`, or `#` in `a+b$#c` with the string `NNN`.

```java
String s = "a+b$#c".replaceAll("[\$+#]", "NNN");
System.out.println(s);
```

Here the regular expression `[\$+#]` specifies a pattern that matches `$`, `+`, or `#`. So, the output is `aNNNbnNNNNNC`. The following statement splits the string into an array of strings delimited by punctuation marks.

```java
String[] tokens = "Java,C?C#,C++".split("[,.;?]");
for (int i = 0; i < tokens.length; i++)
    System.out.println(tokens[i]);
```

In this example, the regular expression `[,.;?]` specifies a pattern that matches `.`, `,`, `;`, or `?`. Each of these characters is a delimiter for splitting the string. Thus, the string is split into `Java, C, C#`, and `C++`, which are stored in array `tokens`.

Regular expression patterns are complex for beginning students to understand. For this reason, simple patterns are introduced in this section. Please refer to Supplement III.H, Regular Expressions, to learn more about these patterns.

9.2.8 Finding a Character or a Substring in a String

The `String` class provides several overloaded `indexOf` and `lastIndexOf` methods to find a character or a substring in a string, as shown in Figure 9.8.
For example,

```
"Welcome to Java".indexOf('W') returns 0.
"Welcome to Java".indexOf('o') returns 4.
"Welcome to Java".indexOf('o', 5) returns 9.
"Welcome to Java".indexOf("come") returns 3.
"Welcome to Java".indexOf("Java", 5) returns 11.
"Welcome to Java".indexOf("Java") returns -1.
```

```
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf('W') returns 0.
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf('o') returns 9.
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf('o', 5) returns 4.
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf("come") returns 3.
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf("Java", 5) returns -1.
"Welcome to Java".lastIndexOf("Java") returns 11.
```

9.2.9 Conversion between Strings and Arrays

Strings are not arrays, but a string can be converted into an array, and vice versa. To convert a string into an array of characters, use the `toCharArray` method. For example, the following statement converts the string `Java` to an array.

```java
char[] chars = "Java".toCharArray();
```

Thus, `chars[0]` is `J`, `chars[1]` is `a`, `chars[2]` is `v`, and `chars[3]` is `a`.

You can also use the `getChars(int srcBegin, int srcEnd, char[] dst, int dstBegin)` method to copy a substring of the string from index `srcBegin` to index `srcEnd` into a character array `dst` starting from index `dstBegin`. For example, the following code copies a substring "3720" in "CS3720" from index 2 to index 6-1 into the character array `dst` starting from index 4.

```java
char[] dst = {'J', 'A', 'V', 'A', '3', '7', '2', '0'};
"CS3720".getChars(2, 6, dst, 4);
```

Thus, `dst` becomes {
`'J', 'A', 'V', 'A', '3', '7', '2', '0'`}.
To convert an array of characters into a string, use the `String(char[])` constructor or the `valueOf(char[])` method. For example, the following statement constructs a string from an array using the `String` constructor:

```java
String str = new String(new char[]{'J', 'a', 'v', 'a'});
```

The next statement constructs a string from an array using the `valueOf` method.

```java
String str = String.valueOf(new char[]{'J', 'a', 'v', 'a'});
```

### 9.2.10 Converting Characters and Numeric Values to Strings

The static `valueOf` method can be used to convert an array of characters into a string. There are several overloaded versions of the `valueOf` method that can be used to convert a character and numeric values to strings with different parameter types, `char`, `double`, `long`, `int`, and `float`, as shown in Figure 9.9.

```java
valueOf overloads
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(c: char): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string consisting of the character c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(data: char[]): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string consisting of the characters in the array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(d: double): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string representing the double value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(f: float): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string representing the float value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(i: int): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string representing the int value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(l: long): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string representing the long value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>valueOf(b: boolean): String</code></td>
<td>Returns a string representing the boolean value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9.9 The `String` class contains the static methods for creating strings from primitive type values.

For example, to convert a `double` value `5.44` to a string, use `String.valueOf(5.44)`. The return value is a string consisting of the characters `'5'`, `'.'`, `'4'`, and `'4'`.

**Note**

You can use `Double.parseDouble(str)` or `Integer.parseInt(str)` to convert a string to a `double` value or an `int` value. `Double` and `Integer` are two classes in the `java.lang` package.

### 9.2.11 Formatting Strings

The `String` class contains the static `format` method to create a formatted string. The syntax to invoke this method is:

```java
String.format(format, item1, item2, ..., itemk)
```

This method is similar to the `printf` method except that the `format` method returns a formatted string, whereas the `printf` method displays a formatted string. For example,

```java
String s = String.format("%7.2f%6d%-4s", 45.556, 14, "AB");
System.out.println(s);
```

displays

```
45.56 14AB
```

Note that

```java
System.out.printf(format, item1, item2, ..., itemk);
```
9.2 The String Class

is equivalent to

```java
System.out.printf(
    String.format(format, item1, item2, ..., itemk));
```

where the square box (□) denotes a blank space.

9.1 Suppose that `s1`, `s2`, `s3`, and `s4` are four strings, given as follows:

```java
String s1 = "Welcome to Java";
String s2 = s1;
String s3 = new String("Welcome to Java");
String s4 = "Welcome to Java";
```

What are the results of the following expressions?

- a. `s1 == s2`
- b. `s2 == s3`
- c. `s1.equals(s2)`
- d. `s2.equals(s3)`
- e. `s1.compareTo(s2)`
- f. `s2.compareTo(s3)`
- g. `s1 == s4`
- h. `s1.charAt(0)`
- i. `s1.indexOf('j')`
- j. `s1.indexOf("to")`
- k. `s1.lastIndexOf('a')`
- l. `s1.lastIndexOf("o", 15)`
- m. `s1.length()`
- n. `s1.substring(5)`
- o. `s1.substring(5, 11)`
- p. `s1.startsWith("Wel")`
- q. `s1.endsWith("Java")`
- r. `s1.toLowerCase()`
- s. `s1.toUpperCase()`
- t. "Welcome ".trim()
- u. `s1.replace('o', 'T')`
- v. `s1.replaceAll("o", "T")`
- w. `s1.replaceFirst("o", "T")`
- x. `s1.toCharArray()`

9.2 To create the string `Welcome to Java`, you may use a statement like this:

```java
String s = "Welcome to Java";
```
or:

```java
String s = new String("Welcome to Java");
```

Which one is better? Why?

9.3 Suppose that `s1` and `s2` are two strings. Which of the following statements or expressions are incorrect?

```java
String s = new String("new string");
String s3 = s1 + s2;
String s3 = s1 - s2;
s1 == s2;
s1 >= s2;
s1.compareTo(s2);
int i = s1.length();
char c = s1(0);
char c = s1.charAt(s1.length());
```

9.4 What is the printout of the following code?

```java
String s1 = "Welcome to Java";
String s2 = s1.replace("o", "abc");
System.out.println(s1);
System.out.println(s2);
```
9.5 Let \( s_1 \) be " Welcome " and \( s_2 \) be " welcome ". Write the code for the following statements:

a. Check whether \( s_1 \) is equal to \( s_2 \) and assign the result to a Boolean variable \( isEqual \).

b. Check whether \( s_1 \) is equal to \( s_2 \), ignoring case, and assign the result to a Boolean variable \( isEqual \).

c. Compare \( s_1 \) with \( s_2 \) and assign the result to an \( int \) variable \( x \).

d. Compare \( s_1 \) with \( s_2 \), ignoring case, and assign the result to an \( int \) variable \( x \).

e. Check whether \( s_1 \) has the prefix AAA and assign the result to a Boolean variable \( b \).

f. Check whether \( s_1 \) has the suffix AAA and assign the result to a Boolean variable \( b \).

g. Assign the length of \( s_1 \) to an \( int \) variable \( x \).

h. Assign the first character of \( s_1 \) to a \( char \) variable \( x \).

i. Create a new string \( s_3 \) that combines \( s_1 \) with \( s_2 \).

j. Create a substring of \( s_1 \) starting from index 1.

k. Create a substring of \( s_1 \) from index 1 to index 4.

l. Create a new string \( s_3 \) that converts \( s_1 \) to lowercase.

m. Create a new string \( s_3 \) that converts \( s_1 \) to uppercase.

n. Create a new string \( s_3 \) that trims blank spaces on both ends of \( s_1 \).

o. Replace all occurrences of the character \( e \) with \( E \) in \( s_1 \) and assign the new string to \( s_3 \).

p. Split Welcome to Java and HTML into an array \( tokens \) delimited by a space.

q. Assign the index of the first occurrence of the character \( e \) in \( s_1 \) to an \( int \) variable \( x \).

r. Assign the index of the last occurrence of the string \( abc \) in \( s_1 \) to an \( int \) variable \( x \).

9.6 Does any method in the \( String \) class change the contents of the string?

9.7 Suppose string \( s \) is created using \( new \ String() \); what is \( s.length() \)?

9.8 How do you convert a \( char \), an array of characters, or a number to a string?

9.9 Why does the following code cause a \( NullPointerException \)?

```java
1  public class Test {
2      private String text;
3  
4    public Test(String s) {
5      String text = s;
6    }
7  
8    public static void main(String[] args) {
9      Test test = new Test("ABC");
10     System.out.println(test.text.toLowerCase());
11   }
12 }
```

9.10 What is wrong in the following program?

```java
1  public class Test {
2      String text;
3```
9.3 Case Study: Checking Palindromes

This section presents a program that checks whether a string is a palindrome.

A string is a palindrome if it reads the same forward and backward. The words “mom,” “dad,” and “noon,” for instance, are all palindromes.

The problem is to write a program that prompts the user to enter a string and reports whether the string is a palindrome. One solution is to check whether the first character in the string is the same as the last character. If so, check whether the second character is the same as the second-to-last character. This process continues until a mismatch is found or all the characters in the string are checked, except for the middle character if the string has an odd number of characters.

To implement this idea, use two variables, say low and high, to denote the position of the two characters at the beginning and the end in a string s, as shown in Listing 9.1 (lines 22, 25). Initially, low is 0 and high is s.length() - 1. If the two characters at these positions match, increment low by 1 and decrement high by 1 (lines 31–32). This process continues until (low >= high) or a mismatch is found.

**LISTING 9.1 CheckPalindrome.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class CheckPalindrome {
  /** Main method */
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
    // Prompt the user to enter a string
    System.out.print("Enter a string: ");
    String s = input.nextLine();
    if (isPalindrome(s))
```

9.11 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches("ABC ");
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches(".*ABC.*");
    System.out.println("A,B;C").replaceAll(";",
```

9.3 Case Study: Checking Palindromes

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**LISTING 9.1 CheckPalindrome.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class CheckPalindrome {
  /** Main method */
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
    // Prompt the user to enter a string
    System.out.print("Enter a string: ");
    String s = input.nextLine();
    if (isPalindrome(s))
```

9.11 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches("ABC ");
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches(".*ABC.*");
    System.out.println("A,B;C").replaceAll(";",
```

9.3 Case Study: Checking Palindromes

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A string is a palindrome if it reads the same forward and backward. The words “mom,” “dad,” and “noon,” for instance, are all palindromes.

The problem is to write a program that prompts the user to enter a string and reports whether the string is a palindrome. One solution is to check whether the first character in the string is the same as the last character. If so, check whether the second character is the same as the second-to-last character. This process continues until a mismatch is found or all the characters in the string are checked, except for the middle character if the string has an odd number of characters.

To implement this idea, use two variables, say low and high, to denote the position of the two characters at the beginning and the end in a string s, as shown in Listing 9.1 (lines 22, 25). Initially, low is 0 and high is s.length() - 1. If the two characters at these positions match, increment low by 1 and decrement high by 1 (lines 31–32). This process continues until (low >= high) or a mismatch is found.

**LISTING 9.1 CheckPalindrome.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class CheckPalindrome {
  /** Main method */
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
    // Prompt the user to enter a string
    System.out.print("Enter a string: ");
    String s = input.nextLine();
    if (isPalindrome(s))
```

9.11 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches("ABC ");
    System.out.println("Hi, ABC, good").matches(".*ABC.*");
    System.out.println("A,B;C").replaceAll(";",
```
Chapter 9 Strings

14        System.out.println(s + " is a palindrome");
15        else
16        System.out.println(s + " is not a palindrome");
17    }
18
19        /** Check if a string is a palindrome */
20        public static boolean isPalindrome(String s) {
21            // The index of the first character in the string
22            int low = 0;
23            // The index of the last character in the string
24            int high = s.length() - 1;
25            while (low < high) {
26                if (s.charAt(low) != s.charAt(high))
27                    return false; // Not a palindrome
28                low++;
29                high--;
30            }
31            return true; // The string is a palindrome
32        }
33    }

Enter a string: noon
noon is a palindrome

Enter a string: moon
moon is not a palindrome

The `nextLine()` method in the `Scanner` class (line 11) reads a line into `s`, and then `isPalindrome(s)` checks whether `s` is a palindrome (line 13).

9.4 Case Study: Converting Hexadecimals to Decimals

This section presents a program that converts a hexadecimal number into a decimal number.

Section 5.7 gives a program that converts a decimal to a hexadecimal. How do you convert a hex number into a decimal?

Given a hexadecimal number \(h_nh_{n-1}h_{n-2} \ldots h_2h_1h_0\), the equivalent decimal value is

\[h_n \times 16^n + h_{n-1} \times 16^{n-1} + h_{n-2} \times 16^{n-2} + \ldots + h_2 \times 16^2 + h_1 \times 16^1 + h_0 \times 16^0\]

For example, the hex number \(AB8C\) is

\[10 \times 16^3 + 11 \times 16^2 + 8 \times 16^1 + 12 \times 16^0 = 43916\]

Our program will prompt the user to enter a hex number as a string and convert it into a decimal using the following method:

    public static int hexToDecimal(String hex)

A brute-force approach is to convert each hex character into a decimal number, multiply it by \(16^i\) for a hex digit at the \(i\)'s position, and then add all the items together to obtain the equivalent decimal value for the hex number.
Note that
\[ h_n \times 16^n + h_{n-1} \times 16^{n-1} + h_{n-2} \times 16^{n-2} + \ldots + h_1 \times 16^1 + h_0 \times 16^0 \]
\[ = (\ldots ((h_n \times 16 + h_{n-1}) \times 16 + h_{n-2}) \times 16 + \ldots + h_1) \times 16 + h_0 \]

This observation, known as the Horner’s algorithm, leads to the following efficient code for converting a hex string to a decimal number:

```java
int decimalValue = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < hex.length(); i++) {
    char hexChar = hex.charAt(i);
    decimalValue = decimalValue * 16 + hexCharToDecimal(hexChar);
}
```

Here is a trace of the algorithm for hex number `AB8C`:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i</th>
<th>hexChar</th>
<th>hexCharToDecimal(hexChar)</th>
<th>decimalValue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before the loop</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after the 1st iteration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after the 2nd iteration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after the 3rd iteration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after the 4th iteration</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listing 9.2 gives the complete program.

**LISTING 9.2 HexToDecimalConversion.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class HexToDecimalConversion {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        // Prompt the user to enter a string
        System.out.print("Enter a hex number: ");
        String hex = input.nextLine();

        System.out.println("The decimal value for hex number " + hex + " is " + hexToDecimal(hex.toUpperCase()));
    }

    public static int hexToDecimal(String hex) {
        int decimalValue = 0;
        for (int i = 0; i < hex.length(); i++) {
            char hexChar = hex.charAt(i);
            decimalValue = decimalValue * 16 + hexCharToDecimal(hexChar);
        }
        return decimalValue;
    }
}
```
The program reads a string from the console (line 11), and invokes the `hexToDecimal` method to convert a hex string to decimal number (line 14). The characters can be in either lowercase or uppercase. They are converted to uppercase before invoking the `hexToDecimal` method.

The `hexToDecimal` method is defined in lines 17–25 to return an integer. The length of the string is determined by invoking `hex.length()` in line 19.

The `hexCharToDecimal` method is defined in lines 27–32 to return a decimal value for a hex character. The character can be in either lowercase or uppercase. Recall that to subtract two characters is to subtract their Unicodes. For example, `'5' - '0'` is 5.

### 9.5 The Character Class

You can create an object for a character using the `Character` class. A `Character` object contains a character value.

Many methods in the Java API require an object argument. To enable the primitive data values to be treated as objects, Java provides a class for every primitive data type. These classes are `Character`, `Boolean`, `Byte`, `Short`, `Integer`, `Long`, `Float`, and `Double` for `char`, `boolean`, `byte`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, and `double`, respectively. These classes are called `wrapper classes` because each wraps or encapsulates a primitive type value in an object. All these classes are in the `java.lang` package, and they contain useful methods for processing primitive values. This section introduces the `Character` class. The other wrapper classes will be introduced in Chapter 10, Thinking in Objects.

The `Character` class has a constructor and several methods for determining a character’s category (uppercase, lowercase, digit, and so on) and for converting characters from uppercase to lowercase, and vice versa, as shown in Figure 9.10.

You can create a `Character` object from a `char` value. For example, the following statement creates a `Character` object for the character `a`.

```java
Character character = new Character('a');
```

The `charValue` method returns the character value wrapped in the `Character` object. The `compareTo` method compares this character with another character and returns an integer that is the difference between the Unicode of this character and the Unicode of the other character. The `equals` method returns `true` if and only if the two characters are the same. For example, suppose `charObject` is `new Character('b')`:

```java
charObject.compareTo(new Character('a')) returns 1
charObject.compareTo(new Character('b')) returns 0
charObject.compareTo(new Character('c')) returns -1
```
9.5 The **Character** Class

Most of the methods in the **Character** class are static methods. The **isDigit(char ch)** method returns **true** if the character is a digit, and the **isLetter(char ch)** method returns **true** if the character is a letter. The **isLetterOrDigit(char ch)** method returns **true** if the character is a letter or a digit. The **isLowerCase(char ch)** method returns **true** if the character is a lowercase letter, and the **isUpperCase(char ch)** method returns **true** if the character is an uppercase letter. The **toLowerCase(char ch)** method returns the lowercase letter for the character, and the **toUpperCase(char ch)** method returns the uppercase letter for the character.

Now let's write a program that prompts the user to enter a string and counts the number of occurrences of each letter in the string regardless of case.

Here are the steps to solve this problem:

1. Convert all the uppercase letters in the string to lowercase using the **toLowerCase** method in the **String** class.

2. Create an array, say **counts** of 26 **int** values, each of which counts the occurrences of a letter. That is, **counts[0]** counts the number of **a**, **counts[1]** counts the number of **b**, and so on.

3. For each character in the string, check whether it is a (lowercase) letter. If so, increment the corresponding count in the array.

Listing 9.3 gives the complete program.

**LISTING 9.3 CountEachLetter.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class CountEachLetter {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
```
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9 // Prompt the user to enter a string
10 System.out.print("Enter a string: ");
11 String s = input.nextLine();
12
13 // Invoke the countLetters method to count each letter
14 int[] counts = countLetters(s.toLowerCase());
15
16 // Display results
17 for (int i = 0; i < counts.length; i++) {
18     if (counts[i] != 0)
19         System.out.println((char)('a' + i) + " appears " +
20                 counts[i] + ((counts[i] == 1) ? " time" : " times"));
21 }
22 }
23
24 /** Count each letter in the string */
25 public static int[] countLetters(String s) {
26     int[] counts = new int[26];
27     for (int i = 0; i < s.length(); i++) {
28         if (Character.isLetter(s.charAt(i)))
29             counts[s.charAt(i) - 'a']++;
30     }
31     return counts;
32 }
33 }
34

Enter a string: ababax
a appears 3 times
b appears 3 times
x appears 1 time

The main method reads a line (line 11) and counts the number of occurrences of each letter in the string by invoking the countLetters method (line 14). Since the case of the letters is ignored, the program uses the toLowerCase method to convert the string into all lowercase and pass the new string to the countLetters method.

The countLetters method (lines 25–34) returns an array of 26 elements. Each element counts the number of occurrences of a letter in the string s. The method processes each character in the string. If the character is a letter, its corresponding count is increased by 1. For example, if the character (s.charAt(i)) is a, the corresponding count is counts[‘a’ - ‘a’] (i.e., counts[0]). If the character is b, the corresponding count is counts[‘b’ - ‘a’] (i.e., counts[1]), since the Unicode of b is 1 more than that of a. If the character is z, the corresponding count is counts[‘z’ - ‘a’] (i.e., counts[25]), since the Unicode of z is 25 more than that of a.

9.12 How do you determine whether a character is in lowercase or uppercase?
9.13 How do you determine whether a character is alphanumeric?
9.14 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String s = "Hi, Good Morning";
        System.out.println(m(s));
    }
}
```
public static int m(String s) {
    int count = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < s.length(); i++)
        if (Character.isUpperCase(s.charAt(i)))
            count++;
    return count;
}

9.6 The **StringBuilder** and **StringBuffer** Classes

*The StringBuilder and StringBuffer classes are similar to the String class except that the String class is immutable.*

In general, the **StringBuilder** and **StringBuffer** classes can be used wherever a string is used. **StringBuilder** and **StringBuffer** are more flexible than **String**. You can add, insert, or append new contents into **StringBuilder** and **StringBuffer** objects, whereas the value of a **String** object is fixed once the string is created.

The **StringBuilder** class is similar to **StringBuffer** except that the methods for modifying the buffer in **StringBuffer** are **synchronized**, which means that only one task is allowed to execute the methods. Use **StringBuffer** if the class might be accessed by multiple tasks concurrently. Concurrent programming will be introduced in Chapter 32. Using **StringBuilder** is more efficient if it is accessed by just a single task. The constructors and methods in **StringBuffer** and **StringBuilder** are almost the same. This section covers **StringBuilder**. You can replace **StringBuilder** in all occurrences in this section by **StringBuffer**. The program can compile and run without any other changes.

The **StringBuilder** class has three constructors and more than 30 methods for managing the builder and modifying strings in the builder. You can create an empty string builder or a string builder from a string using the constructors, as shown in Figure 9.11.

**Figure 9.11** The **StringBuilder** class contains the constructors for creating instances of **StringBuilder**.

### **StringBuilder** Constructors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>StringBuilder()</td>
<td>Constructs an empty string builder with capacity 16.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StringBuilder(capacity: int)</td>
<td>Constructs a string builder with the specified capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StringBuilder(s: String)</td>
<td>Constructs a string builder with the specified string.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 9.6.1 Modifying Strings in the **StringBuilder**

You can append new contents at the end of a string builder, insert new contents at a specified position in a string builder, and delete or replace characters in a string builder, using the methods listed in Figure 9.12.

The **StringBuilder** class provides several overloaded methods to append **boolean**, **char**, **char[]**, **double**, **float**, **int**, **long**, and **String** into a string builder. For example, the following code appends strings and characters into **stringBuilder** to form a new string, *Welcome to Java*.

```
StringBuilder stringBuilder = new StringBuilder();
stringBuilder.append("Welcome");
stringBuilder.append(' ');  // append
stringBuilder.append("to");
stringBuilder.append(' ');  // append
stringBuilder.append("Java");
```
The `StringBuilder` class also contains overloaded methods to insert `boolean`, `char`, `char array`, `double`, `float`, `int`, `long`, and `String` into a string builder. Consider the following code:

```java
stringBuilder.insert(11, "HTML and ");
```

Suppose `stringBuilder` contains `Welcome to Java` before the `insert` method is applied. This code inserts "HTML and " at position 11 in `stringBuilder` (just before the J). The new `stringBuilder` is `Welcome to HTML and Java`.

You can also delete characters from a string in the builder using the two `delete` methods, reverse the string using the `reverse` method, replace characters using the `replace` method, or set a new character in a string using the `setCharAt` method.

For example, suppose `stringBuilder` contains `Welcome to Java` before each of the following methods is applied:

```java
stringBuilder.delete(8, 11) changes the builder to Welcome Java.
stringBuilder.deleteCharAt(8) changes the builder to Welcome o Java.
stringBuilder.reverse() changes the builder to avaJ ot emocleW.
stringBuilder.replace(11, 15, "HTML") changes the builder to Welcome to HTML.
stringBuilder.setCharAt(0, 'w') sets the builder to welcome to Java.
```

All these modification methods except `setCharAt` do two things:

- Change the contents of the string builder
- Return the reference of the string builder

For example, the following statement

```java
StringBuilder stringBuilder1 = stringBuilder.reverse();
```
reverses the string in the builder and assigns the builder’s reference to `stringBuilder1`. Thus, `stringBuilder` and `stringBuilder1` both point to the same `StringBuilder` object. Recall that a value-returning method can be invoked as a statement, if you are not interested in the return value of the method. In this case, the return value is simply ignored. For example, in the following statement

```java
stringBuilder.reverse();
```
the return value is ignored.

**Tip**

If a string does not require any change, use `String` rather than `StringBuilder`. Java can perform some optimizations for `String`, such as sharing interned strings.

### 9.6.2 The `toString`, `capacity`, `length`, `setLength`, and `charAt` Methods

The `StringBuilder` class provides the additional methods for manipulating a string builder and obtaining its properties, as shown in Figure 9.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>toString()</code></td>
<td>Returns a string object from the string builder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capacity()</code></td>
<td>Returns the capacity of this string builder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>charAt(int)</code></td>
<td>Returns the character at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>length()</code></td>
<td>Returns the number of characters in this builder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>setLength(int)</code></td>
<td>Sets a new length in this builder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>substring(int)</code></td>
<td>Returns a substring starting at startIndex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>substring(int, int)</code></td>
<td>Returns a substring from startIndex to endIndex-1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>trimToSize()</code></td>
<td>Reduces the storage size used for the string builder.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 9.13** The `StringBuilder` class contains the methods for modifying string builders.

The `capacity()` method returns the current capacity of the string builder. The capacity is the number of characters the string builder is able to store without having to increase its size.

The `length()` method returns the number of characters actually stored in the string builder. The `setLength(newLength)` method sets the length of the string builder. If the `newLength` argument is less than the current length of the string builder, the string builder is truncated to contain exactly the number of characters given by the `newLength` argument. If the `newLength` argument is greater than or equal to the current length, sufficient null characters (\u0000) are appended to the string builder so that `length` becomes the `newLength` argument. The `newLength` argument must be greater than or equal to 0.

The `charAt(index)` method returns the character at a specific `index` in the string builder. The index is 0 based. The first character of a string builder is at index 0, the next at index 1, and so on. The `index` argument must be greater than or equal to 0, and less than the length of the string builder.

**Note**

The length of the string is always less than or equal to the capacity of the builder. The length is the actual size of the string stored in the builder, and the capacity is the current size of the builder. The builder’s capacity is automatically increased if more characters are added to exceed its capacity. Internally, a string builder is an array of characters, so...
the builder’s capacity is the size of the array. If the builder’s capacity is exceeded, the
array is replaced by a new array. The new array size is $2 \times (\text{the previous array size} + 1)$.

Tip

You can use `newStringBuilder(initialCapacity)` to create a `StringBuilder`
with a specified initial capacity. By carefully choosing the initial capacity, you can make
your program more efficient. If the capacity is always larger than the actual length of the
builder, the JVM will never need to reallocate memory for the builder. On the other hand, if
the capacity is too large, you will waste memory space. You can use the `trimToSize()`
method to reduce the capacity to the actual size.

9.6.3 Case Study: Ignoring Nonalphanumeric Characters When
Checking Palindromes

Listing 9.1, CheckPalindrome.java, considered all the characters in a string to check whether
it was a palindrome. Write a new program that ignores nonalphanumeric characters in checking
whether a string is a palindrome.

Here are the steps to solve the problem:

1. Filter the string by removing the nonalphanumeric characters. This can be done by cre-
   ating an empty string builder, adding each alphanumeric character in the string to a
   string builder, and returning the string from the string builder. You can use the
   `isLetterOrDigit(ch)` method in the `Character` class to check whether character
   `ch` is a letter or a digit.

2. Obtain a new string that is the reversal of the filtered string. Compare the reversed string
   with the filtered string using the `equals` method.

The complete program is shown in Listing 9.4.

LISTING 9.4 PalindromeIgnoreNonAlphanumeric.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class PalindromeIgnoreNonAlphanumeric {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Prompt the user to enter a string
        System.out.print("Enter a string: ");
        String s = input.nextLine();
        // Display result
        System.out.println("Ignoring nonalphanumeric characters, \nis "
                          + s + " a palindrome? " + isPalindrome(s));
    }
    public static boolean isPalindrome(String s) {
        // Create a new string by eliminating nonalphanumeric chars
        String s1 = filter(s);
        // Create a new string that is the reversal of s1
        String s2 = reverse(s1);
        // Check if the reversal is the same as the original string
```
The `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer` Classes

9.6 The `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer` Classes

```java
// Create a string builder
StringBuilder stringBuilder = new StringBuilder();

// Examine each char in the string to skip alphanumeric char
for (int i = 0; i < s.length(); i++) {
    if (Character.isLetterOrDigit(s.charAt(i))) {
        stringBuilder.append(s.charAt(i));
    }
}

// Return a new filtered string
return stringBuilder.toString();
```

```java
public static String reverse(String s) {
    StringBuilder stringBuilder = new StringBuilder(s);
    stringBuilder.reverse(); // Invoke reverse in StringBuilder
    return stringBuilder.toString();
}
```

The `filter(String s)` method (lines 31–44) examines each character in string `s` and copies it to a string builder if the character is a letter or a numeric character. The `filter` method returns the string in the builder. The `reverse(String s)` method (lines 47–51) creates a new string that reverses the specified string `s`. The `filter` and `reverse` methods both return a new string. The original string is not changed.

The program in Listing 9.1 checks whether a string is a palindrome by comparing pairs of characters from both ends of the string. Listing 9.4 uses the `reverse` method in the `StringBuilder` class to reverse the string, then compares whether the two strings are equal to determine whether the original string is a palindrome.

9.15 What is the difference between `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer`?
9.16 How do you create a string builder from a string? How do you return a string from a string builder?
9.17 Write three statements to reverse a string `s` using the `reverse` method in the `StringBuilder` class.
9.18 Write three statements to delete a substring from a string `s` of 20 characters, starting at index 4 and ending with index 10. Use the `delete` method in the `StringBuilder` class.
9.19 What is the internal storage for characters in a string and a string builder?
9.20 Suppose that \textit{s1} and \textit{s2} are given as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
StringBuilder s1 = new StringBuilder("Java");
StringBuilder s2 = new StringBuilder("HTML");
\end{verbatim}

Show the value of \textit{s1} after each of the following statements. Assume that the statements are independent.

\begin{enumerate}
    \item a. \textit{s1.append("is fun")};
    \item b. \textit{s1.append(s2)};
    \item c. \textit{s1.insert(2, "is fun")};
    \item d. \textit{s1.insert(1, s2)};
    \item e. \textit{s1.charAt(2)};
    \item f. \textit{s1.length()};
    \item g. \textit{s1.deleteCharAt(3)};
    \item h. \textit{s1.delete(1, 3)};
    \item i. \textit{s1.reverse()};
    \item j. \textit{s1.replace(1, 3, "Computer")};
    \item k. \textit{s1.substring(1, 3)};
    \item l. \textit{s1.substring(2)};
\end{enumerate}

9.21 Show the output of the following program:

\begin{verbatim}
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String s = "Java";
        StringBuilder builder = new StringBuilder(s);
        change(s, builder);

        System.out.println(s);
        System.out.println(builder);
    }

    private static void change(String s, StringBuilder builder) {
        s = s + " and HTML";
        builder.append(" and HTML");
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

9.7 Command-Line Arguments

The \texttt{main} method can receive string arguments from the command line.

Perhaps you have already noticed the unusual header for the \texttt{main} method, which has the parameter \texttt{args} of \texttt{String[]} type. It is clear that \texttt{args} is an array of strings. The \texttt{main} method is just like a regular method with a parameter. You can call a regular method by passing actual parameters. Can you pass arguments to \texttt{main}? Yes, of course you can. In the following examples, the \texttt{main} method in class \texttt{TestMain} is invoked by a method in \texttt{A}.

\begin{verbatim}
public class A {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String[] strings = {"New York", "Boston", "Atlanta"};
        TestMain.main(strings);
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
public class TestMain {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        for (int i = 0; i < args.length; i++)
            System.out.println(args[i]);
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

A \texttt{main} method is just a regular method. Furthermore, you can pass arguments from the command line.
9.7.1 Passing Strings to the main Method

You can pass strings to a main method from the command line when you run the program. The following command line, for example, starts the program TestMain with three strings: arg0, arg1, and arg2:

```
java TestMain arg0 arg1 arg2
```

arg0, arg1, and arg2 are strings, but they don’t have to appear in double quotes on the command line. The strings are separated by a space. A string that contains a space must be enclosed in double quotes. Consider the following command line:

```
java TestMain "First num" alpha 53
```

It starts the program with three strings: First num, alpha, and 53. Since First num is a string, it is enclosed in double quotes. Note that 53 is actually treated as a string. You can use "53" instead of 53 in the command line.

When the main method is invoked, the Java interpreter creates an array to hold the command-line arguments and pass the array reference to args. For example, if you invoke a program with n arguments, the Java interpreter creates an array like this one:

```
args = new String[n];
```

The Java interpreter then passes args to invoke the main method.

**Note**

If you run the program with no strings passed, the array is created with new String[0]. In this case, the array is empty with length 0. args references to this empty array. Therefore, args is not null, but args.length is 0.

9.7.2 Case Study: Calculator

Suppose you are to develop a program that performs arithmetic operations on integers. The program receives an expression in one string argument. The expression consists of an integer followed by an operator and another integer. For example, to add two integers, use this command:

```
java Calculator "2 + 3"
```

The program will display the following output:

```
2 + 3 = 5
```

Figure 9.14 shows sample runs of the program.

The strings passed to the main program are stored in args, which is an array of strings. In this case, we pass the expression as one string. Therefore, the array contains only one element in args[0] and args.length is 1.

Here are the steps in the program:

1. Use args.length to determine whether the expression has been provided as one argument in the command line. If not, terminate the program using System.exit(1).

2. Split the expression in the string args[0] into three tokens in tokens[0], tokens[1], and tokens[2].

3. Perform a binary arithmetic operation on the operands tokens[0] and tokens[2] using the operator in tokens[1].
The program is shown in Listing 9.5.

**Listing 9.5 Calculator.java**

```java
public class Calculator {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Check number of strings passed
        if (args.length != 1) {
            System.out.println("Usage: java Calculator \"operand1 operator operand2\"");
            System.exit(1);
        }

        // The result of the operation
        int result = 0;

        // Split string
        String[] tokens = args[0].split("");

        // Determine the operator
        switch (tokens[1].charAt(0)) {
            case '+': result = Integer.parseInt(tokens[0]) + Integer.parseInt(tokens[2]);
            break;
            case '-': result = Integer.parseInt(tokens[0]) - Integer.parseInt(tokens[2]);
            break;
            case '*': result = Integer.parseInt(tokens[0]) * Integer.parseInt(tokens[2]);
            break;
            case '/': result = Integer.parseInt(tokens[0]) / Integer.parseInt(tokens[2]);
            break;
        }

        // Display result
        System.out.println(tokens[0] + ' ' + tokens[1] + ' ' + tokens[2] + " = " + result);
    }
}
```

**Figure 9.14** The program takes an expression in one argument (operand1 operator operand2) from the command line and displays the expression and the result of the arithmetic operation.
The expression is passed as a string in one argument and it is split into three parts—
tokens[0], tokens[1], and tokens[2]—using the split method (line 15) with a space as a delimiter.

Integer.parseInt(tokens[0]) (line 19) converts a digital string into an integer. The string must consist of digits. If it doesn’t, the program will terminate abnormally.

For this program to work, the expression must be entered in the form of “operand1 operator operand2”. The operands and operator are separated by exactly one space. You can modify the program to accept the expressions in different forms (see Programming Exercise 9.28).

9.22 This book declares the main method as

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

Can it be replaced by one of the following lines?

- public static void main(String args[])
- public static void main(String[] x)
- public static void main(String x[])
- static void main(String x[])

9.23 Show the output of the following program when invoked using

1. java Test I have a dream
2. java Test “1 2 3”
3. java Test

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Number of strings is " + args.length);
        for (int i = 0; i < args.length; i++)
            System.out.println(args[i]);
    }
}
```

**Key Terms**

- interned string 337
- wrapper class 350

**Chapter Summary**

1. Strings are objects encapsulated in the String class. A string can be constructed using one of the 13 constructors or simply using a string literal. Java treats a string literal as a String object.

2. A String object is immutable; its contents cannot be changed. To improve efficiency and save memory, the JVM stores two literal strings that have the same character sequence in a unique object. This unique object is called an interned string object.

3. You can get the length of a string by invoking its length() method, retrieve a character at the specified index in the string using the charAt(index) method, and use the indexOf and lastIndexOf methods to find a character or a substring in a string.
4. You can use the `concat` method to concatenate two strings, or the plus (+) operator to concatenate two or more strings.

5. You can use the `substring` method to obtain a substring from the string.

6. You can use the `equals` and `compareTo` methods to compare strings. The `equals` method returns `true` if two strings are equal, and `false` if they are not equal. The `compareTo` method returns 0, a positive integer, or a negative integer, depending on whether one string is equal to, greater than, or less than the other string.

7. A regular expression (abbreviated regex) is a string that describes a pattern for matching a set of strings. You can match, replace, or split a string by specifying a pattern.

8. The `Character` class is a wrapper class for a single character. The `Character` class provides useful static methods to determine whether a character is a letter (`isLetter(char)`), a digit (`isDigit(char)`), uppercase (`isUpperCase(char)`), or lowercase (`isLowerCase(char)`).

9. The `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer` classes can be used to replace the `String` class. The `String` object is immutable, but you can add, insert, or append new contents into `StringBuilder` and `StringBuffer` objects. Use `String` if the string contents do not require any change, and use `StringBuilder` or `StringBuffer` if they might change.

10. You can pass strings to the `main` method from the command line. Strings passed to the `main` program are stored in `args`, which is an array of strings. The first string is represented by `args[0]`, and `args.length` is the number of strings passed.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 9.2–9.3

*9.1  (Check SSN) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a Social Security number in the format DDD-DD-DDDD, where D is a digit. The program displays `Valid SSN` for a correct Social Security number and `Invalid SSN` otherwise.

**9.2  (Check substrings) You can check whether a string is a substring of another string by using the `indexOf` method in the `String` class. Write your own method for this function. Write a program that prompts the user to enter two strings, and checks whether the first string is a substring of the second.

**9.3  (Check password) Some websites impose certain rules for passwords. Write a method that checks whether a string is a valid password. Suppose the password rules are as follows:

- A password must have at least eight characters.
- A password consists of only letters and digits.
- A password must contain at least two digits.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a password and displays `Valid Password` if the rules are followed or `Invalid Password` otherwise.
9.4 (Occurrences of a specified character) Write a method that finds the number of occurrences of a specified character in a string using the following header:

```java
public static int count(String str, char a)
```

For example, `count("Welcome", 'e')` returns 2. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string followed by a character and displays the number of occurrences of the character in the string.

**9.5 (Occurrences of each digit in a string) Write a method that counts the occurrences of each digit in a string using the following header:

```java
public static int[] count(String s)
```

The method counts how many times a digit appears in the string. The return value is an array of ten elements, each of which holds the count for a digit. For example, after executing `int[] counts = count("12203AB3"), counts[0]` is 1, `counts[1]` is 1, `counts[2]` is 2, and `counts[3]` is 2.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the number of occurrences of each digit in the string.

*9.6 (Count the letters in a string) Write a method that counts the number of letters in a string using the following header:

```java
public static int countLetters(String s)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the number of letters in the string.

*9.7 (Phone keypads) The international standard letter/number mapping found on the telephone is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ABC</td>
<td>DEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>GHI</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>PQRS</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TUV</td>
<td>WXYZ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write a method that returns a number, given an uppercase letter, as follows:

```java
public static int getNumber(char uppercaseLetter)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a phone number as a string. The input number may contain letters. The program translates a letter (upper- or lowercase) to a digit and leaves all other characters intact. Here is a sample run of the program:

Enter a string: 1-800-Flowers
1-800-3569377
**9.8** (Binary to decimal) Write a method that parses a binary number as a string into a decimal integer. The method header is:

```java
public static int binaryToDecimal(String binaryString)
```

For example, binary string 10001 is 17 \((1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2 + 1 = 17)\). Therefore, `binaryToDecimal("10001")` returns 17. Note that `Integer.parseInt("10001", 2)` parses a binary string to a decimal value. Do not use this method in this exercise.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a binary string and displays the corresponding decimal integer value.

**Section 9.4**

**9.9** (Binary to hex) Write a method that parses a binary number into a hex number. The method header is:

```java
public static String binaryToHex(String binaryValue)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a binary number and displays the corresponding hexadecimal value.

**9.10** (Decimal to binary) Write a method that parses a decimal number into a binary number as a string. The method header is:

```java
public static String decimalToBinary(int value)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a decimal integer value and displays the corresponding binary value.

**9.11** (Sort characters in a string) Write a method that returns a sorted string using the following header:

```java
public static String sort(String s)
```

For example, `sort("acb")` returns `abc`.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the sorted string.

**9.12** (Anagrams) Write a method that checks whether two words are anagrams. Two words are anagrams if they contain the same letters in any order. For example, `silent` and `listen` are anagrams. The header of the method is:

```java
public static boolean isAnagram(String s1, String s2)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two strings and, if they are anagrams, displays `two strings are anagrams`, and displays `two strings are not anagrams` if they are not anagrams.

**Section 9.5**

**9.13** (Pass a string to check palindromes) Rewrite Listing 9.1 by passing the string as a command-line argument.

**9.14** (Sum integers) Write two programs. The first program passes an unspecified number of integers as separate strings to the `main` method and displays their total. The
second program passes an unspecified number of integers delimited by one space in a string to the `main` method and displays their total. Name the two programs `Exercise9_14a` and `Exercise9_14b`, as shown in Figure 9.15.

![Figure 9.15](image)

**Figure 9.15** The program adds all the numbers passed from the command line.

**9.15** *(Find the number of uppercase letters in a string)* Write a program that passes a string to the `main` method and displays the number of uppercase letters in the string.

**Comprehensive**

**9.16** *(Implement the `String` class)* The `String` class is provided in the Java library. Provide your own implementation for the following methods (name the new class `MyString1`):

```java
public MyString1(char[] chars);
public char charAt(int index);
public int length();
public MyString1 substring(int begin, int end);
public MyString1 toLowerCase();
public boolean equals(MyString1 s);
public static MyString1 valueOf(int i);
```

**9.17** *(Guess the capitals)* Write a program that repeatedly prompts the user to enter a capital for a state. Upon receiving the user input, the program reports whether the answer is correct. Assume that 50 states and their capitals are stored in a two-dimensional array, as shown in Figure 9.16. The program prompts the user to answer all states’ capitals and displays the total correct count. The user’s answer is not case-sensitive.

![Figure 9.16](image)

**Figure 9.16** A two-dimensional array stores states and their capitals.

Here is a sample run:

What is the capital of Alabama? Montgomery
The correct answer should be Montgomery
What is the capital of Alaska? Juneau
Your answer is correct
What is the capital of Arizona? ...
...
**9.18** *(Implement the String class)* The String class is provided in the Java library. Provide your own implementation for the following methods (name the new class MyString2):

- `public MyString2(String s);`
- `public int compare(String s);`
- `public MyString2 substring(int begin);`
- `public MyString2 toUpperCase();`
- `public char[] toChars();`
- `public static MyString2 valueOf(boolean b);`

*9.19* *(Common prefix)* Write a method that returns the longest common prefix of two strings. For example, the longest common prefix of *distance* and *disinfection* is *dis*. The header of the method is:

- `public static String prefix(String s1, String s2)`

If the two strings don’t have a common prefix, the method returns an empty string. Write a `main` method that prompts the user to enter two strings and displays their longest common prefix.

9.20 *(Implement the Character class)* The Character class is provided in the Java library. Provide your own implementation for this class. Name the new class MyCharacter.

**9.21** *(New string split method)* The `split` method in the String class returns an array of strings consisting of the substrings split by the delimiters. However, the delimiters are not returned. Implement the following new method that returns an array of strings consisting of the substrings split by the matching delimiters, including the matching delimiters.

- `public static String[] split(String s, String regex)`

For example, `split("ab#12#453", ",#\")` returns *ab, #, 12, #, 453* in an array of `String`, and `split("a?b?gf#e", ",[?#]\")` returns *a, b, ?, b, gf, #, and e* in an array of `String`.

**9.22** *(Implement the StringBuilder class)* The StringBuilder class is provided in the Java library. Provide your own implementation for the following methods (name the new class MyStringBuilder1):

- `public MyStringBuilder1(String s);`
- `public MyStringBuilder1 append(MyStringBuilder1 s);`
- `public MyStringBuilder1 append(int i);`
- `public int length();`
- `public char charAt(int index);`
- `public MyStringBuilder1 toLowerCase();`
- `public MyStringBuilder1 substring(int begin, int end);`
- `public String toString();`

**9.23** *(Financial: credit card number validation)* Rewrite Programming Exercise 5.31 using a string input for the credit card number. Redesign the program using the following methods:

```java
/** Return true if the card number is valid */
public static boolean isValid(String cardNumber)

/** Get the result from Step 2 */
public static int sumOfDoubleEvenPlace(String cardNumber)
```
/** Return this number if it is a single digit; otherwise, */
public static int getDigit(int number)

/** Return sum of odd-place digits in number */
public static int sumOfOddPlace(String cardNumber)

**9.24 (Implement the StringBuilder class) The StringBuilder class is provided in the Java library. Provide your own implementation for the following methods (name the new class MyStringBuilder2):

public MyStringBuilder2();
public MyStringBuilder2(char[] chars);
public MyStringBuilder2(String s);
public MyStringBuilder2 insert(int offset, MyStringBuilder2 s);
public MyStringBuilder2 reverse();
public MyStringBuilder2 substring(int begin);
public MyStringBuilder2 toUpperCase();

**9.25 (Game: hangman) Write a hangman game that randomly generates a word and prompts the user to guess one letter at a time, as shown in the sample run. Each letter in the word is displayed as an asterisk. When the user makes a correct guess, the actual letter is then displayed. When the user finishes a word, display the number of misses and ask the user whether to continue to play with another word. Declare an array to store words, as follows:

// Add any words you wish in this array
String[] words = {"write", "that", ...};

(Guess) Enter a letter in word ******* > p
(Guess) Enter a letter in word p****** > r
(Guess) Enter a letter in word pr**r** > p
    p is already in the word
(Guess) Enter a letter in word pr**r** > o
(Guess) Enter a letter in word pro*r** > g
(Guess) Enter a letter in word progr** > n
    n is not in the word
(Guess) Enter a letter in word progr** > m
(Guess) Enter a letter in word progr*m > a
The word is program. You missed 1 time
Do you want to guess another word? Enter y or n>


9.27 (Bioinformatics: find genes) Biologists use a sequence of the letters A, C, T, and G to model a genome. A gene is a substring of a genome that starts after a triplet ATG and ends before a triplet TAG, TAA, or TGA. Furthermore, the length of a gene string is a multiple of 3, and the gene does not contain any of the triplets ATG, TAG, TAA, or TGA. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a genome and displays all genes in the genome. If no gene is found in the input sequence, display “no gene is found”. Here are the sample runs:

Enter a genome string: TTATGGATACCGCGTTAGTT
TTT
GGCGGT

VideoNote
Check ISBN-10
Chapter 9 Strings

Enter a genome string: TGTGTGTAT
no gene is found

*9.28 (Calculator) Revise Listing 9.5, Calculator.java, to accept an expression in which the operands and operator are separated by zero or more spaces. For example, 3+4 and 3 + 4 are acceptable expressions.

*9.29 (Business: check ISBN-13) ISBN-13 is a new standard for identifying books. It uses the 13 digits \(d_1d_2d_3d_4d_5d_6d_7d_8d_9d_{10}d_{11}d_{12}d_{13}\). The last digit, \(d_{13}\), is a checksum, which is calculated from the other digits using the following formula:

\[
10 - (d_1 + 3d_2 + d_3 + 3d_4 + d_5 + 3d_6 + d_7 + 3d_8 + d_9 + 3d_{10} + d_{11} + 3d_{12}) \mod 10
\]

If the checksum is 10, replace it with 0. Your program should read the input as a string. Here are sample runs:

Enter the first 12 digits of an ISBN-13 as a string: 978013213080
The ISBN-13 number is 9780132130806

Enter the first 12 digits of an ISBN-13 as a string: 978013213079
The ISBN-13 number is 9780132130790

*9.30 (Capitalize first letter of each word) Write the following method that returns a new string in which the first letter in each word is capitalized.

```java
public static void title(String s)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and invokes this method, and displays the return value from this method. Here is a sample run:

Enter a string: london england 2015
The new string is: London England 2015

Note that words may be separated by multiple blank spaces.

*9.31 (Swap case) Write the following method that returns a new string in which the uppercase letters are changed to lowercase and lowercase letters are changed to uppercase.

```java
public static String swapCase(String s)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and invokes this method, and displays the return value from this method. Here is a sample run:

Enter a string: I'm here
The new string is: I'M HERE
THINKING IN OBJECTS

Objectives

■ To create immutable objects from immutable classes to protect the contents of objects (§10.2).
■ To determine the scope of variables in the context of a class (§10.3).
■ To use the keyword this to refer to the calling object itself (§10.4).
■ To apply class abstraction to develop software (§10.5).
■ To explore the differences between the procedural paradigm and object-oriented paradigm (§10.6).
■ To develop classes for modeling composition relationships (§10.7).
■ To design programs using the object-oriented paradigm (§§10.8–10.10).
■ To design classes that follow the class-design guidelines (§10.11).
■ To create objects for primitive values using the wrapper classes (Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, Double, Character, and Boolean) (§10.12).
■ To simplify programming using automatic conversion between primitive types and wrapper class types (§10.13).
■ To use the BigInteger and BigDecimal classes for computing very large numbers with arbitrary precisions (§10.14).
10.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on class design and explores the differences between procedural programming and object-oriented programming.

The preceding two chapters introduced objects and classes. You learned how to define classes, create objects, and use objects from several classes in the Java API (e.g., Date, Random, String, StringBuilder, and Scanner). This book’s approach is to teach problem solving and fundamental programming techniques before object-oriented programming. This chapter shows how procedural and object-oriented programming differ. You will see the benefits of object-oriented programming and learn to use it effectively.

We will use several examples to illustrate the advantages of the object-oriented approach. The examples involve designing new classes and using them in applications. We first introduce some language features supporting these examples.

10.2 Immutable Objects and Classes

You can define immutable classes to create immutable objects. The contents of immutable objects cannot be changed.

Normally, you create an object and allow its contents to be changed later. However, occasionally it is desirable to create an object whose contents cannot be changed once the object has been created. We call such an object an immutable object and its class an immutable class. The String class, for example, is immutable. If you deleted the set method in the CircleWithPrivateDataFields class in Listing 8.9, the class would be immutable, because radius is private and cannot be changed without a set method.

If a class is immutable, then all its data fields must be private and it cannot contain public set methods for any data fields. A class with all private data fields and no mutators is not necessarily immutable. For example, the following Student class has all private data fields and no set methods, but it is not an immutable class.

```java
public class Student {
    private int id;
    private String name;
    private java.util.Date dateCreated;

    public Student(int ssn, String newName) {
        id = ssn;
        name = newName;
        dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
    }

    public int getId() {
        return id;
    }

    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }

    public java.util.Date getDateCreated() {
        return dateCreated;
    }
}
```

As shown in the following code, the data field dateCreated is returned using the getDateCreated() method. This is a reference to a Date object. Through this reference, the content for dateCreated can be changed.
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Student student = new Student(111223333, "John");
        java.util.Date dateCreated = student.getDateCreated();
        dateCreated.setTime(200000); // Now dateCreated field is changed!
    }
}

For a class to be immutable, it must meet the following requirements:

- All data fields must be private.
- There can’t be any mutator methods for data fields.
- No accessor methods can return a reference to a data field that is mutable.

Interested readers may refer to Supplement III.AB for an extended discussion on immutable objects.

10.1 If a class contains only private data fields and no set methods, is the class immutable?

10.2 If all the data fields in a class are private and primitive types, and the class doesn’t contain any set methods, is the class immutable?

10.3 Is the following class immutable?

    public class A {
        private int[] values;
        public int[] getValues() {
            return values;
        }
    }

10.3 The Scope of Variables

The scope of instance and static variables is the entire class, regardless of where the variables are declared.

Chapter 5, Methods, discussed local variables and their scope rules. Local variables are declared and used inside a method locally. This section discusses the scope rules of all the variables in the context of a class.

Instance and static variables in a class are referred to as the class’s variables or data fields. A variable defined inside a method is referred to as a local variable. The scope of a class’s variables is the entire class, regardless of where the variables are declared. A class’s variables and methods can appear in any order in the class, as shown in Figure 10.1a. The exception is when a data field is initialized based on a reference to another data field. In such cases, the

(a) The variable radius and method findArea() can be declared in any order.
(b) i has to be declared before j because j’s initial value is dependent on i.

Figure 10.1 Members of a class can be declared in any order, with one exception.

```java
public class Circle {
    public double findArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }

    private double radius = 1;
}

public class F {
    private int i;
    private int j = i + 1;
}
```
other data field must be declared first, as shown in Figure 10.1b. For consistency, this book declares data fields at the beginning of the class.

You can declare a class’s variable only once, but you can declare the same variable name in a method many times in different nonnesting blocks.

If a local variable has the same name as a class’s variable, the local variable takes precedence and the class’s variable with the same name is hidden. For example, in the following program, x is defined both as an instance variable and as a local variable in the method.

```java
public class F {
    private int x = 0; // Instance variable
    private int y = 0;

    public F() {
    }

    public void p() {
        int x = 1; // Local variable
        System.out.println("x = " + x);
        System.out.println("y = " + y);
    }
}
```

What is the printout for f.p(), where f is an instance of F? The printout for f.p() is 1 for x and 0 for y. Here is why:

- x is declared as a data field with the initial value of 0 in the class, but it is also declared in the method p() with an initial value of 1. The latter x is referenced in the System.out.println statement.
- y is declared outside the method p(), but y is accessible inside the method.

Tip

To avoid confusion and mistakes, do not use the names of instance or static variables as local variable names, except for method parameters.

10.4 What is the output of the following program?

```java
public class Test {
    private static int i = 0;
    private static int j = 0;

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int i = 2;
        int k = 3;

        {
            int j = 3;
            System.out.println("i + j is " + i + j);
        }

        k = i + j;
        System.out.println("k is " + k);
        System.out.println("j is " + j);
    }
}
```
10.4 The this Reference

The keyword this refers to the object itself. It can also be used inside a constructor to invoke another constructor of the same class.

The this keyword is the name of a reference that an object can use to refer to itself. You can use the this keyword to refer to the object’s instance members. For example, the following code in (a) uses this to reference the object’s radius and invokes its getArea() method explicitly. The this reference is normally omitted, as shown in (b). However, the this reference is needed to reference hidden data fields or invoke an overloaded constructor.

```java
public class Circle {
    private double radius;
    ...
    public double getArea() {
        return this.radius * this.radius * Math.PI;
    }
    public String toString() {
        return "radius: " + this.radius + "area: " + this.getArea();
    }
}
```

(a)

```java
public class Circle {
    private double radius;
    ...
    public double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }
    public String toString() {
        return "radius: " + radius + "area: " + getArea();
    }
}
```

(b)

### 10.4.1 Using this to Reference Hidden Data Fields

The this keyword can be used to reference a class’s hidden data fields. For example, a data-field name is often used as the parameter name in a set method for the data field. In this case, the data field is hidden in the set method. You need to reference the hidden data-field name in the method in order to set a new value to it. A hidden static variable can be accessed simply by using the ClassName.staticVariable reference. A hidden instance variable can be accessed by using the keyword this, as shown in Figure 10.2a.

```java
public class F {
    private int i = 5;
    private static double k = 0;
    public void setI(int i) {
        this.i = i;
    }
    public static void setK(double k) {
        F.k = k;
    }
    // Other methods omitted
}
```

(a)

```java
Suppose that f1 and f2 are two objects of F. Invoking f1.setI(10) is to execute this.i = 10, where this refers f1 Invoking f2.setI(45) is to execute this.i = 45, where this refers f2 Invoking F.setK(33) is to execute F.k = 33. setK is a static method
```

(b)

**Figure 10.2** The keyword this refers to the calling object that invokes the method.

The this keyword gives us a way to refer to the object that invokes an instance method. To invoke f1.setI(10), this.i = i is executed, which assigns the value of parameter i to the data field i of this calling object f1. The keyword this refers to the object that invokes
the instance method `setI`, as shown in Figure 10.2b. The line `F.k = k` means that the value in parameter `k` is assigned to the static data field `k` of the class, which is shared by all the objects of the class.

### 10.4.2 Using `this` to Invoke a Constructor

The `this` keyword can be used to invoke another constructor of the same class. For example, you can rewrite the `Circle` class as follows:

```java
public class Circle {
    private double radius;

    public Circle(double radius) {
        this.radius = radius;
    }

    public Circle() {
    }

    public void setP(int p) {
        p = p;
    }
}
```

The line `this(1.0)` in the second constructor invokes the first constructor with a `double` value argument.

**Note**
Java requires that the `this(arg-list)` statement appear first in the constructor before any other executable statements.

**Tip**
If a class has multiple constructors, it is better to implement them using `this(arg-list)` as much as possible. In general, a constructor with no or fewer arguments can invoke a constructor with more arguments using `this(arg-list)`. This syntax often simplifies coding and makes the class easier to read and to maintain.

### 10.5 Describe the role of the `this` keyword.

### 10.6 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
public class C {
    private int p;

    public C() {
        System.out.println("C's no-arg constructor invoked");
        this(0);
    }

    public C(int p) {
        p = p;
    }

    public void setP(int p) {
        p = p;
    }
}
```
10.5 Class Abstraction and Encapsulation

Class abstraction is the separation of class implementation from the use of a class. The details of implementation are encapsulated and hidden from the user. This is known as class encapsulation.

In Chapter 5, you learned about method abstraction and used it in stepwise refinement. Java provides many levels of abstraction, and class abstraction separates class implementation from how the class is used. The creator of a class describes the functions of the class and lets the user know how the class can be used. The collection of methods and fields that are accessible from outside the class, together with the description of how these members are expected to behave, serves as the class's contract. As shown in Figure 10.3, the user of the class does not need to know how the class is implemented. The details of implementation are encapsulated and hidden from the user. This is called class encapsulation. For example, you can create a Circle object and find the area of the circle without knowing how the area is computed. For this reason, a class is also known as an abstract data type (ADT).

![Figure 10.3](image)

Figure 10.3 Class abstraction separates class implementation from the use of the class.

Class abstraction and encapsulation are two sides of the same coin. Many real-life examples illustrate the concept of class abstraction. Consider, for instance, building a computer system. Your personal computer has many components—a CPU, memory, disk, motherboard, fan, and so on. Each component can be viewed as an object that has properties and methods. To get the components to work together, you need know only how each component is used and how it interacts with the others. You don’t need to know how the components work internally. The internal implementation is encapsulated and hidden from you. You can build a computer without knowing how a component is implemented.

The computer-system analogy precisely mirrors the object-oriented approach. Each component can be viewed as an object of the class for the component. For example, you might have a class that models all kinds of fans for use in a computer, with properties such as fan size and speed and methods such as start and stop. A specific fan is an instance of this class with specific property values.

As another example, consider getting a loan. A specific loan can be viewed as an object of a Loan class. The interest rate, loan amount, and loan period are its data properties, and...
computing the monthly payment and total payment are its methods. When you buy a car, a loan object is created by instantiating the class with your loan interest rate, loan amount, and loan period. You can then use the methods to find the monthly payment and total payment of your loan. As a user of the Loan class, you don’t need to know how these methods are implemented.

Listing 2.8, ComputeLoan.java, presented a program for computing loan payments. That program cannot be reused in other programs because the code for computing the payments is in the main method. One way to fix this problem is to define static methods for computing the monthly payment and total payment. However, this solution has limitations. Suppose you wish to associate a date with the loan. There is no good way to tie a date with a loan without using objects. The traditional procedural programming paradigm is action-driven, and data are separated from actions. The object-oriented programming paradigm focuses on objects, and actions are defined along with the data in objects. To tie a date with a loan, you can define a loan class with a date along with other of the loan’s properties as data fields. A loan object now contains data and actions for manipulating and processing data, and the loan data and actions are integrated in one object. Figure 10.4 shows the UML class diagram for the Loan class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-annualInterestRate: double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-numberOfYears: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-loanAmount: double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-loanDate: java.util.Date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Loan()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Loan(annualInterestRate: double, numberOfYears: int, loanAmount: double)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getAnnualInterestRate(): double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getNumberOfYears(): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getLoanAmount(): double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getLoanDate(): java.util.Date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setAnnualInterestRate(annualInterestRate: double): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setNumberOfYears(numberOfYears: int): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setLoanAmount(loanAmount: double): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getMonthlyPayment(): double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getTotalPayment(): double</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The annual interest rate of the loan (default: 2.5).
The number of years for the loan (default: 1).
The loan amount (default: 1000).
The date this loan was created.

Constructs a default Loan object.
Constructs a loan with specified interest rate, years, and loan amount.

Returns the annual interest rate of this loan.
Returns the number of the years of this loan.
Returns the amount of this loan.
Returns the date of the creation of this loan.
Sets a new annual interest rate for this loan.
Sets a new number of years for this loan.
Sets a new amount for this loan.

Returns the monthly payment for this loan.
Returns the total payment for this loan.

The UML diagram in Figure 10.4 serves as the contract for the Loan class. Throughout this book, you will play the roles of both class user and class developer. Remember that a class user can use the class without knowing how the class is implemented.

Assume that the Loan class is available. The program in Listing 10.1 uses that class.

**LISTING 10.1 TestLoanClass.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class TestLoanClass {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
```
// Create a Scanner
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

// Enter annual interest rate
System.out.print("Enter annual interest rate, for example, 8.25: ");
double annualInterestRate = input.nextDouble();

// Enter number of years
System.out.print("Enter number of years as an integer: ");
int numberOfYears = input.nextInt();

// Enter loan amount
System.out.print("Enter loan amount, for example, 120000.95: ");
double loanAmount = input.nextDouble();

// Create a Loan object
Loan loan = new Loan(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount);

// Display loan date, monthly payment, and total payment
System.out.printf("The loan was created on %s\n" +
"The monthly payment is %.2f\nThe total payment is %.2f\n",
loan.getLoanDate().toString(), loan.getMonthlyPayment(),
loan.getTotalPayment());

The main method reads the interest rate, the payment period (in years), and the loan amount; creates a Loan object; and then obtains the monthly payment (line 29) and the total payment (line 30) using the instance methods in the Loan class.

The Loan class can be implemented as in Listing 10.2.

**LISTING 10.2  Loan.java**

```java
public class Loan {
    private double annualInterestRate;
    private int numberOfYears;
    private double loanAmount;
    private java.util.Date loanDate;

    /** Default constructor */
    public Loan() {
        this(2.5, 1, 1000);
    }

    /** Construct a loan with specified annual interest rate,
    number of years, and loan amount */
```
public Loan(double annualInterestRate, int numberOfYears, double loanAmount) {
    this.annualInterestRate = annualInterestRate;
    this.numberOfYears = numberOfYears;
    this.loanAmount = loanAmount;
    loanDate = new java.util.Date();
}

/** Return annualInterestRate */
public double getAnnualInterestRate() {
    return annualInterestRate;
}

/** Set a new annualInterestRate */
public void setAnnualInterestRate(double annualInterestRate) {
    this.annualInterestRate = annualInterestRate;
}

/** Return numberOfYears */
public int getNumberOfYears() {
    return numberOfYears;
}

/** Set a new numberOfYears */
public void setNumberOfYears(int numberOfYears) {
    this.numberOfYears = numberOfYears;
}

/** Return loanAmount */
public double getLoanAmount() {
    return loanAmount;
}

/** Set a new loanAmount */
public void setLoanAmount(double loanAmount) {
    this.loanAmount = loanAmount;
}

/** Find monthly payment */
public double getMonthlyPayment() {
    double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;
    double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 -
    (1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12)));
    return monthlyPayment;
}

/** Find total payment */
public double getTotalPayment() {
    double totalPayment = getMonthlyPayment() * numberOfYears * 12;
    return totalPayment;
}

/** Return loan date */
public java.util.Date getLoanDate() {
    return loanDate;
}
From a class developer’s perspective, a class is designed for use by many different customers. In order to be useful in a wide range of applications, a class should provide a variety of ways for customization through constructors, properties, and methods.

The Loan class contains two constructors, four get methods, three set methods, and the methods for finding the monthly payment and the total payment. You can construct a Loan object by using the no-arg constructor or the constructor with three parameters: annual interest rate, number of years, and loan amount. When a loan object is created, its date is stored in the loanDate field. The getLoanDate method returns the date. The three get methods—getAnnualInterest, getNumberOfYears, and getLoanAmount—return the annual interest rate, payment years, and loan amount, respectively. All the data properties and methods in this class are tied to a specific instance of the Loan class. Therefore, they are instance variables and methods.

Important Pedagogical Tip
Use the UML diagram for the Loan class shown in Figure 10.4 to write a test program that uses the Loan class even though you don’t know how the Loan class is implemented. This has three benefits:

- It demonstrates that developing a class and using a class are two separate tasks.
- It enables you to skip the complex implementation of certain classes without interrupting the sequence of this book.
- It is easier to learn how to implement a class if you are familiar with it by using the class.

For all the class examples from now on, create an object from the class and try using its methods before turning your attention to its implementation.

10.8 If you redefine the Loan class in Listing 10.2 without set methods, is the class immutable?

10.6 Object-Oriented Thinking

The procedural paradigm focuses on designing methods. The object-oriented paradigm couples data and methods together into objects. Software design using the object-oriented paradigm focuses on objects and operations on objects.

Chapters 1–7 introduced fundamental programming techniques for problem solving using loops, methods, and arrays. Knowing these techniques lays a solid foundation for object-oriented programming. Classes provide more flexibility and modularity for building reusable software. This section improves the solution for a problem introduced in Chapter 3 using the object-oriented approach. From these improvements, you will gain insight into the differences between procedural and object-oriented programming and see the benefits of developing reusable code using objects and classes.

Listing 3.5, ComputeAndInterpretBMI.java, presented a program for computing body mass index. The code cannot be reused in other programs, because the code is in the main method. To make it reusable, define a static method to compute body mass index as follows:

```java
public static double getBMI(double weight, double height)
```

This method is useful for computing body mass index for a specified weight and height. However, it has limitations. Suppose you need to associate the weight and height with a person’s name and birth date. You could declare separate variables to store these values, but these values would not be tightly coupled. The ideal way to couple them is to create an object that contains them all. Since these values are tied to individual objects, they should be stored in instance data fields. You can define a class named BMI as shown in Figure 10.5.
Chapter 10  Thinking in Objects

Assume that the BMI class is available. Listing 10.3 gives a test program that uses this class.

**LISTING 10.3  UseBMIClass.java**

```
public class UseBMIClass {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        BMI bmi1 = new BMI("Kim Yang", 18, 145, 70);
        System.out.println("The BMI for " + bmi1.getName() + " is " + bmi1.getBMI() + " " + bmi1.getStatus());

        BMI bmi2 = new BMI("Susan King", 215, 70);
        System.out.println("The BMI for " + bmi2.getName() + " is " + bmi2.getBMI() + " " + bmi2.getStatus());
    }
}
```

The BMI for Kim Yang is 20.81 Normal
The BMI for Susan King is 30.85 Obese

Line 3 creates the object bmi1 for Kim Yang and line 7 creates the object bmi2 for Susan King. You can use the instance methods getName(), getBMI(), and getStatus() to return the BMI information in a BMI object.

The BMI class can be implemented as in Listing 10.4.

**LISTING 10.4  BMI.java**

```
public class BMI {
    private String name;
    private int age;
    private double weight; // in pounds
    private double height; // in inches
    public static final double KILOGRAMS_PER_POUND = 0.45359237;
```
The mathematical formula for computing the BMI using weight and height is given in Section 3.9. The instance method `getBMI()` returns the BMI. Since the weight and height are instance data fields in the object, the `getBMI()` method can use these properties to compute the BMI for the object.

The instance method `getStatus()` returns a string that interprets the BMI. The interpretation is also given in Section 3.9.

This example demonstrates the advantages of the object-oriented paradigm over the procedural paradigm. The procedural paradigm focuses on designing methods. The object-oriented paradigm couples data and methods together into objects. Software design using the object-oriented paradigm focuses on objects and operations on objects. The object-oriented approach

```java
public static final double METERS_PER_INCH = 0.0254;

public BMI(String name, int age, double weight, double height) {
    this.name = name;
    this.age = age;
    this.weight = weight;
    this.height = height;
}

public BMI(String name, double weight, double height) {
    this(name, 20, weight, height);
}

public double getBMI() {
    double bmi = weight * KILOGRAMS_PER_POUND /
        ((height * METERS_PER_INCH) * (height * METERS_PER_INCH));
    return Math.round(bmi * 100) / 100.0;
}

public String getStatus() {
    double bmi = getBMI();
    if (bmi < 18.5)
        return "Underweight";
    else if (bmi < 25)
        return "Normal";
    else if (bmi < 30)
        return "Overweight";
    else
        return "Obese";
}

public String getName() {
    return name;
}

public int getAge() {
    return age;
}

public double getWeight() {
    return weight;
}

public double getHeight() {
    return height;
}
```
combines the power of the procedural paradigm with an added dimension that integrates data with operations into objects.

In procedural programming, data and operations on the data are separate, and this methodology requires sending data to methods. Object-oriented programming places data and the operations that pertain to them in an object. This approach solves many of the problems inherent in procedural programming. The object-oriented programming approach organizes programs in a way that mirrors the real world, in which all objects are associated with both attributes and activities. Using objects improves software reusability and makes programs easier to develop and easier to maintain. Programming in Java involves thinking in terms of objects; a Java program can be viewed as a collection of cooperating objects.

10.9 Is the BMI class defined in Listing 10.4 immutable?

10.7 Object Composition

An object can contain another object. The relationship between the two is called composition.

In Listing 10.2, you defined the Loan class to contain a Date data field. The relationship between Loan and Date is composition. In Listing 10.4, you defined the BMI class to contain a String data field. The relationship between BMI and String is composition.

Composition is actually a special case of the aggregation relationship. Aggregation models has-a relationships and represents an ownership relationship between two objects. The owner object is called an aggregating object and its class an aggregating class. The subject object is called an aggregated object and its class an aggregated class.

An object may be owned by several other aggregating objects. If an object is exclusively owned by an aggregating object, the relationship between them is referred to as composition. For example, “a student has a name” is a composition relationship between the Student class and the Name class, whereas “a student has an address” is an aggregation relationship between the Student class and the Address class, because an address may be shared by several students. In UML notation, a filled diamond is attached to an aggregating class (e.g., Student) to denote the composition relationship with an aggregated class (e.g., Name), and an empty diamond is attached to an aggregating class (e.g., Student) to denote the aggregation relationship with an aggregated class (e.g., Address), as shown in Figure 10.6.

Each class involved in a relationship may specify a multiplicity. A multiplicity could be a number or an interval that specifies how many of the class’s objects are involved in the relationship. The character * means an unlimited number of objects, and the interval m..n means that the number of objects should be between m and n, inclusive. In Figure 10.6, each student has only one address, and each address may be shared by up to 3 students. Each student has one name, and a name is unique for each student.
An aggregation relationship is usually represented as a data field in the aggregating class. For example, the relationship in Figure 10.6 can be represented as follows:

```java
public class Name {
    ... 
}
```

Aggregated class

```java
public class Student {
    private Name name;
    private Address address;
    ...
}
```

Aggregating class

```java
public class Address {
    ...
}
```

Aggregated class

Aggregation may exist between objects of the same class. For example, a person may have a supervisor. This is illustrated in Figure 10.7.

![Figure 10.7](image)

**FIGURE 10.7** A person may have a supervisor.

In the relationship “a person has a supervisor,” as shown in Figure 10.7, a supervisor can be represented as a data field in the `Person` class, as follows:

```java
public class Person {
    // The type for the data is the class itself
    private Person supervisor;
    ...
}
```

If a person can have several supervisors, as shown in Figure 10.8a, you may use an array to store supervisors, as shown in Figure 10.8b.

![Figure 10.8](image)

**FIGURE 10.8** A person can have several supervisors.

**Check Point**

Since aggregation and composition relationships are represented using classes in the same way, many texts don’t differentiate them and call both compositions. We will do the same in this book for simplicity.

10.10 What is an aggregation relationship between two objects?

10.11 What is a composition relationship between two objects?
10.8 Case Study: Designing the Course Class

This section designs a class for modeling courses.

This book’s philosophy is teaching by example and learning by doing. The book provides a wide variety of examples to demonstrate object-oriented programming. This section and the next two offer additional examples on designing classes.

Suppose you need to process course information. Each course has a name and has students enrolled. You should be able to add/drop a student to/from the course. You can use a class to model the courses, as shown in Figure 10.9.

A Course object can be created using the constructor Course(String name) by passing a course name. You can add students to the course using the addStudent(String student) method, drop a student from the course using the dropStudent(String student) method, and return all the students in the course using the getStudents() method. Suppose the class is available; Listing 10.5 gives a test class that creates two courses and adds students to them.

LISTING 10.5 TestCourse.java

```java
public class TestCourse {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Course course1 = new Course("Data Structures");
        Course course2 = new Course("Database Systems");

        course1.addStudent("Peter Jones");
        course1.addStudent("Kim Smith");
        course1.addStudent("Anne Kennedy");

        course2.addStudent("Peter Jones");
        course2.addStudent("Steve Smith");

        System.out.println("Number of students in course1: "+course1.getNumberOfStudents());
        String[] students = course1.getStudents();
        for (int i = 0; i < course1.getNumberOfStudents(); i++)
            System.out.print(students[i] + ", ");
        System.out.println();

        System.out.println("Number of students in course2: ");
```
The **Course** class is implemented in Listing 10.6. It uses an array to store the students in the course. For simplicity, assume that the maximum course enrollment is 100. The array is created using `new String[100]` in line 3. The `addStudent` method (line 10) adds a student to the array. Whenever a new student is added to the course, `numberOfStudents` is increased (line 12). The `getStudents` method returns the array. The `dropStudent` method (line 27) is left as an exercise.

**LISTING 10.6 Course.java**

```java
public class Course {
    private String courseName;
    private String[] students = new String[100];
    private int numberOfStudents;

    public Course(String courseName) {
        this.courseName = courseName;
    }

    public void addStudent(String student) {
        students[numberOfStudents] = student;
        numberOfStudents++;
    }

    public String[] getStudents() {
        return students;
    }

    public int getNumberOfStudents() {
        return numberOfStudents;
    }

    public String getCourseName() {
        return courseName;
    }

    public void dropStudent(String student) {
        // Left as an exercise in Programming Exercise 10.9
    }
}
```

The array size is fixed to be 100 (line 3), so you cannot have more than 100 students in the course. You can improve the class by automatically increasing the array size in Programming Exercise 10.9.

When you create a **Course** object, an array object is created. A **Course** object contains a reference to the array. For simplicity, you can say that the **Course** object contains the array.

The user can create a **Course** object and manipulate it through the public methods `addStudent`, `dropStudent`, `getNumberOfStudents`, and `getStudents`. However, the
user doesn’t need to know how these methods are implemented. The Course class encapsulates the internal implementation. This example uses an array to store students, but you could use a different data structure to store students. The program that uses Course does not need to change as long as the contract of the public methods remains unchanged.

### 10.9 Case Study: Designing a Class for Stacks

This section designs a class for modeling stacks.

Recall that a stack is a data structure that holds data in a last-in, first-out fashion, as shown in Figure 10.10.

Stacks have many applications. For example, the compiler uses a stack to process method invocations. When a method is invoked, its parameters and local variables are pushed into a stack. When a method calls another method, the new method’s parameters and local variables are pushed into the stack. When a method finishes its work and returns to its caller, its associated space is released from the stack.

You can define a class to model stacks. For simplicity, assume the stack holds the int values. So name the stack class StackOfIntegers. The UML diagram for the class is shown in Figure 10.11.

Suppose that the class is available. The test program in Listing 10.7 uses the class to create a stack (line 3), store ten integers 0, 1, 2, . . . , and 9 (line 6), and displays them in reverse order (line 9).
LISTING 10.7 TestStackOfIntegers.java

```java
public class TestStackOfIntegers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        StackOfIntegers stack = new StackOfIntegers();
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
            stack.push(i);
        while (!stack.empty())
            System.out.print(stack.pop() + " ");
    }
}
```

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

How do you implement the `StackOfIntegers` class? The elements in the stack are stored in an array named `elements`. When you create a stack, the array is also created. The no-arg constructor creates an array with the default capacity of 16. The variable `size` counts the number of elements in the stack, and `size - 1` is the index of the element at the top of the stack, as shown in Figure 10.12. For an empty stack, `size` is 0.

```
    elements[capacity - 1]
      .
      .
    elements[size - 1]   |   top
      .
    elements[1]
    elements[0]  |   bottom

FIGURE 10.12 The StackOfIntegers class encapsulates the stack storage and provides the operations for manipulating the stack.
```

The `StackOfIntegers` class is implemented in Listing 10.8. The methods `empty()`, `peek()`, `pop()`, and `getSize()` are easy to implement. To implement `push(int value)`, assign `value` to `elements[size]` if `size < capacity` (line 24). If the stack is full (i.e., `size >= capacity`), create a new array of twice the current capacity (line 19), copy the contents of the current array to the new array (line 20), and assign the reference of the new array to the current array in the stack (line 21). Now you can add the new value to the array (line 24).

LISTING 10.8 StackOfIntegers.java

```java
public class StackOfIntegers {
    private int[] elements;
    private int size;
    public static final int DEFAULT_CAPACITY = 16;

    /** Construct a stack with the default capacity 16 */
    public StackOfIntegers() {
        this (DEFAULT_CAPACITY);
    }
}
```

max capacity 16
10.10 Case Study: Designing the GuessDate Class

You can define utility classes that contain static methods and static data.

Listing 3.3, GuessBirthday.java, and Listing 7.6, GuessBirthdayUsingArray.java, presented two programs for guessing birthdays. Both programs use the same data developed with the procedural paradigm. The majority of the code in these two programs is to define the five sets of data. You cannot reuse the code in these two programs, because the code is in the main method. To make the code reusable, design a class to encapsulate the data, as defined in Figure 10.13.

Note that getValue is defined as a static method because it is not dependent on a specific object of the GuessDate class. The GuessDate class encapsulates dates as a private member. The user of this class doesn’t need to know how dates is implemented or even that the dates field exists in the class. All that the user needs to know is how to use this method to access dates. Suppose this class is available. As shown in Section 3.4, there are five sets of dates. Invoking getValue(setNo, row, column) returns the date at the specified row and column in the given set. For example, getValue(1, 0, 0) returns 2.
The static array to hold dates.

Returns a date at the specified row and column in a given set.

FIGURE 10.13 The GuessDate class defines data for guessing birthdays.

Assume that the GuessDate class is available. Listing 10.9 is a test program that uses this class.

LISTING 10.9 UseGuessDateClass.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class UseGuessDateClass {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int date = 0; // Date to be determined
        int answer;

        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
            System.out.println("Is your birthday in Set" + (i + 1) + "?");
            for (int j = 0; j < 4; j++) {
                for (int k = 0; k < 4; k++)
                    System.out.print("  ");
                System.out.println();
            }

            System.out.print("Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: ");
            answer = input.nextInt();

            if (answer == 1)
                date += GuessDate.getValue(i, 0, 0);
        }

        System.out.println("Your birthday is " + date);
    }
}
```

Is your birthday in Set1?
1 3 5 7
9 11 13 15
17 19 21 23
25 27 29 31
Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: 0

Is your birthday in Set2?
2 3 6 7
10 11 14 15
18 19 22 23
26 27 30 31
Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: 1
Is your birthday in Set3?
4 5 6 7
12 13 14 15
20 21 22 23
28 29 30 31
Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: 0

Is your birthday in Set4?
8 9 10 11
12 13 14 15
24 25 26 27
28 29 30 31
Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: 1

Is your birthday in Set5?
16 17 18 19
20 21 22 23
24 25 26 27
28 29 30 31
Enter 0 for No and 1 for Yes: 1

Your birthday is 26

Since `getValue` is a static method, you don’t need to create an object in order to invoke it. `GuessDate.getValue(i, j, k)` (line 15) returns the date at row `j` and column `k` in Set `i`.

The `GuessDate` class can be implemented as in Listing 10.10.

**LISTING 10.10 GuessDate.java**

```java
public class GuessDate {

    private final static int[][][] dates = {
        {{ 1, 3, 5, 7} },
        {{ 9, 11, 13, 15} },
        {{17, 19, 21, 23} },
        {{25, 27, 29, 31} },
        {{ 2, 3, 6, 7} },
        {{10, 11, 14, 15} },
        {{18, 19, 22, 23} },
        {{26, 27, 30, 31} },
        {{ 4, 5, 6, 7} },
        {{12, 13, 14, 15} },
        {{20, 21, 22, 23} },
        {{28, 29, 30, 31} },
        {{ 8, 9, 10, 11} },
        {{12, 13, 14, 15} },
        {{24, 25, 26, 27} },
        {{28, 29, 30, 31} },
        {{16, 17, 18, 19} },
        {{20, 21, 22, 23} },
        {{24, 25, 26, 27} },
        {{28, 29, 30, 31} }};

    /** Prevent the user from creating objects from GuessDate */
    private GuessDate() {
    }

    /** Return a date at the specified row and column in a given set */
```
This class uses a three-dimensional array to store dates (lines 2–22). You could use a different data structure (i.e., five two-dimensional arrays for representing five sets of numbers). The implementation of the `getValue` method would change, but the program that uses `GuessDate` wouldn't need to change as long as the contract of the public method `getValue` remains unchanged. This shows the benefit of data encapsulation.

The class defines a private no-arg constructor (line 25) to prevent the user from creating objects for this class. Since all methods are static in this class, there is no need to create objects from this class.

10.12 Why is the no-arg constructor in the *Math* class defined private?

10.11 Class Design Guidelines

*Class design guidelines are helpful for designing sound classes.*

You have learned how to design classes from the preceding two examples and from many other examples in the preceding chapters. This section summarizes some of the guidelines.

10.11.1 Cohesion

A class should describe a single entity, and all the class operations should logically fit together to support a coherent purpose. You can use a class for students, for example, but you should not combine students and staff in the same class, because students and staff are different entities.

A single entity with many responsibilities can be broken into several classes to separate the responsibilities. The classes `String`, `StringBuilder`, and `StringBuffer` all deal with strings, for example, but have different responsibilities. The `String` class deals with immutable strings, the `StringBuilder` class is for creating mutable strings, and the `StringBuffer` class is similar to `StringBuilder` except that `StringBuffer` contains synchronized methods for updating strings.

10.11.2 Consistency

Follow standard Java programming style and naming conventions. Choose informative names for classes, data fields, and methods. A popular style is to place the data declaration before the constructor and place constructors before methods.

Make the names consistent. It is not a good practice to choose different names for similar operations. For example, the `length()` method returns the size of a `String`, a `StringBuilder`, and a `StringBuffer`. It would be inconsistent if different names were used for this method in these classes.

In general, you should consistently provide a public no-arg constructor for constructing a default instance. If a class does not support a no-arg constructor, document the reason. If no constructors are defined explicitly, a public default no-arg constructor with an empty body is assumed.

If you want to prevent users from creating an object for a class, you can declare a private constructor in the class, as is the case for the `Math` class and the `GuessDate` class.

10.11.3 Encapsulation

A class should use the `private` modifier to hide its data from direct access by clients. This makes the class easy to maintain.
Provide a **get** method only if you want the field to be readable, and provide a **set** method only if you want the field to be updateable. For example, the **Course** class provides a **get** method for **courseName**, but no **set** method, because the user is not allowed to change the course name once it is created.

### 10.11.4 Clarity

Cohesion, consistency, and encapsulation are good guidelines for achieving design clarity. Additionally, a class should have a clear contract that is easy to explain and easy to understand.

Users can incorporate classes in many different combinations, orders, and environments. Therefore, you should design a class that imposes no restrictions on how or when the user can use it, design the properties in a way that lets the user set them in any order and with any combination of values, and design methods that function independently of their order of occurrence. For example, the **Loan** class contains the properties **loanAmount**, **numberOfYears**, and **annualInterestRate**. The values of these properties can be set in any order.

Methods should be defined intuitively without causing confusion. For example, the **substring(int beginIndex, int endIndex)** method in the **String** class is somewhat confusing. The method returns a substring from **beginIndex** to **endIndex − 1**, rather than to **endIndex**. It would be more intuitive to return a substring from **beginIndex** to **endIndex**.

You should not declare a data field that can be derived from other data fields. For example, the following **Person** class has two data fields: **birthDate** and **age**. Since **age** can be derived from **birthDate**, **age** should not be declared as a data field.

```java
public class Person {
    private java.util.Date birthDate;
    private int age;

    ...
}
```

### 10.11.5 Completeness

Classes are designed for use by many different customers. In order to be useful in a wide range of applications, a class should provide a variety of ways for customization through properties and methods. For example, the **String** class contains more than 40 methods that are useful for a variety of applications.

### 10.11.6 Instance vs. Static

A variable or method that is dependent on a specific instance of the class must be an instance variable or method. A variable that is shared by all the instances of a class should be declared static. For example, the variable **numberOfObjects** in **CircleWithPrivateDataFields** in Listing 8.9 is shared by all the objects of the **CircleWithPrivateDataFields** class and therefore is declared static. A method that is not dependent on a specific instance should be defined as a static method. For instance, the **getNumberOfObjects** method in **CircleWithPrivateDataFields** is not tied to any specific instance and therefore is defined as a static method.

Always reference static variables and methods from a class name (rather than a reference variable) to improve readability and avoid errors.

Do not pass a parameter from a constructor to initialize a static data field. It is better to use a **set** method to change the static data field. Thus, the following class in (a) is better replaced by (b).

```java
BAD CODE
```
Instance and static are integral parts of object-oriented programming. A data field or method is either instance or static. Do not mistakenly overlook static data fields or methods. It is a common design error to define an instance method that should have been static. For example, the `factorial(int n)` method for computing the factorial of `n` should be defined static, because it is independent of any specific instance.

A constructor is always instance, because it is used to create a specific instance. A static variable or method can be invoked from an instance method, but an instance variable or method cannot be invoked from a static method.

### 10.13 Describe class design guidelines.

### 10.12 Processing Primitive Data Type Values as Objects

A primitive type value is not an object, but it can be wrapped in an object using a wrapper class in the Java API.

Owing to performance considerations, primitive data type values are not objects in Java. Because of the overhead of processing objects, the language’s performance would be adversely affected if primitive data type values were treated as objects. However, many Java methods require the use of objects as arguments. Java offers a convenient way to incorporate, or wrap, a primitive data type into an object (e.g., wrapping `int` into the `Integer` class, and wrapping `double` into the `Double` class). Recall that a `char` value can be wrapped into a `Character` object in Section 9.5. By using a wrapper class, you can process primitive data type values as objects. Java provides `Boolean`, `Character`, `Double`, `Float`, `Byte`, `Short`, `Integer`, and `Long` wrapper classes in the `java.lang` package for primitive data types. The `Boolean` class wraps a Boolean value `true` or `false`. This section uses `Integer` and `Double` as examples to introduce the numeric wrapper classes.

**Note**

Most wrapper class names for a primitive type are the same as the primitive data type name with the first letter capitalized. The exceptions are `Integer` and `Character`.

Numeric wrapper classes are very similar to each other. Each contains the methods `doubleValue()`, `floatValue()`, `intValue()`, `longValue()`, `shortValue()`, and `byteValue()`. These methods “convert” objects into primitive type values. The key features of `Integer` and `Double` are shown in Figure 10.14.

You can construct a wrapper object either from a primitive data type value or from a string representing the numeric value—for example, `new Double(5.0)`, `new Double("5.0")`, `new Integer(5)`, and `new Integer("5")`. common design error

```java
public class SomeThing {
  private int t2;
  private static int t2;
  public SomeThing(int t2) {
    ...
  }
}
```

(a)

```java
public class SomeThing {
  private int t1;
  private static int t2;
  public SomeThing(int t1) {
    ...
  }
  public static void setT2(int t2) {
    SomeThing.t2 = t2;
  }
}
```

(b)

The wrapper classes do not have no-arg constructors. The instances of all wrapper classes are immutable; this means that, once the objects are created, their internal values cannot be changed.

Each numeric wrapper class has the constants `MAX_VALUE` and `MIN_VALUE`. `MAX_VALUE` represents the maximum value of the corresponding primitive data type. For `Byte`, `Short`, `Integer`, and `Long`, `MIN_VALUE` represents the minimum `byte`, `short`, `int`, and `long` values. For `Float` and `Double`, `MIN_VALUE` represents the minimum positive `float` and `double` values. The following statements display the maximum integer (2,147,483,647), the minimum positive float (1.4E–45), and the maximum double floating-point number (1.79769313486231570e+308d).

```
System.out.println("The maximum integer is " + Integer.MAX_VALUE);
System.out.println("The minimum positive float is " + Float.MIN_VALUE);
System.out.println("The maximum double-precision floating-point number is " + Double.MAX_VALUE);
```

The wrapper classes contain the `compareTo` method for comparing two numbers and returns 1, 0, or -1, if this number is greater than, equal to, or less than the other number. For example,

```
new Double("12.4").intValue() returns 12;
new Integer("12.2").doubleValue() returns 12.0;
```

### FIGURE 10.14

The wrapper classes provide constructors, constants, and conversion methods for manipulating various data types.

### no no-arg constructor

### immutable

### constants

Each numeric wrapper class has the constants `MAX_VALUE` and `MIN_VALUE`. `MAX_VALUE` represents the maximum value of the corresponding primitive data type. For `Byte`, `Short`, `Integer`, and `Long`, `MIN_VALUE` represents the minimum `byte`, `short`, `int`, and `long` values. For `Float` and `Double`, `MIN_VALUE` represents the minimum positive `float` and `double` values.

### conversion methods

Each numeric wrapper class contains the methods `doubleValue()`, `floatValue()`, `intValue()`, `longValue()`, and `shortValue()` for returning a `double`, `float`, `int`, `long`, or `short` value for the wrapper object. For example,

```
new Double("12.4").intValue() returns 12;
new Integer("12.2").doubleValue() returns 12.0;
```

### compareTo method

Recall that the `String` class contains the `compareTo` method for comparing two strings. The numeric wrapper classes contain the `compareTo` method for comparing two numbers and returns 1, 0, or -1, if this number is greater than, equal to, or less than the other number. For example,
new Double("12.4").compareTo(new Double("12.3")) returns 1;
new Double("12.3").compareTo(new Double("12.3")) returns 0;
new Double("12.3").compareTo(new Double("12.51")) returns -1;

The numeric wrapper classes have a useful static method, `valueOf(String s)`. This method creates a new object initialized to the value represented by the specified string. For example,

```java
Double doubleObject = Double.valueOf("12.4");
Integer integerObject = Integer.valueOf("12");
```

You have used the `parseInt` method in the `Integer` class to parse a numeric string into an `int` value and the `parseDouble` method in the `Double` class to parse a numeric string into a `double` value. Each numeric wrapper class has two overloaded parsing methods to parse a numeric string into an appropriate numeric value based on 10 (decimal) or any specified radix (e.g., 2 for binary, 8 for octal, and 16 for hexadecimal). The following examples show how to use these methods.

```java
// These two methods are in the Byte class
public static byte parseByte(String s)
public static byte parseByte(String s, int radix)

// These two methods are in the Short class
public static short parseShort(String s)
public static short parseShort(String s, int radix)

// These two methods are in the Integer class
public static int parseInt(String s)
public static int parseInt(String s, int radix)

// These two methods are in the Long class
public static long parseLong(String s)
public static long parseLong(String s, int radix)

// These two methods are in the Float class
public static float parseFloat(String s)
public static float parseFloat(String s, int radix)

// These two methods are in the Double class
public static double parseDouble(String s)
public static double parseDouble(String s, int radix)
```

For example,

```java
Integer.parseInt("11", 2) returns 3;
Integer.parseInt("12", 8) returns 10;
Integer.parseInt("13", 10) returns 13;
Integer.parseInt("1A", 16) returns 26;
```

`Integer.parseInt("12", 2)` would raise a runtime exception because 12 is not a binary number.

Note that you can convert a decimal number into a hex number using the `format` method. For example,

```java
String.format("%x", 26) returns 1A;
```
10.14 Describe primitive-type wrapper classes.

10.15 Can each of the following statements be compiled?

a. Integer i = new Integer("23");
b. Integer i = new Integer(23);
c. Integer i = Integer.valueOf("23");
d. Integer i = Integer.parseInt("23", 8);
e. Double d = new Double();
f. Double d = Double.valueOf("23.45");
g. int i = (Integer.valueOf("23")).intValue();
h. double d = (Double.valueOf("23.4")).doubleValue();
i. int i = (Double.valueOf("23.4")).intValue();
j. String s = (Double.valueOf("23.4")).toString();

10.16 How do you convert an integer into a string? How do you convert a numeric string into an integer? How do you convert a double number into a string? How do you convert a numeric string into a double value?

10.17 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer x = new Integer(3);
        System.out.println(x.intValue());
        System.out.println(x.compareTo(new Integer(4)));
    }
}
```

10.18 What is the output of the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer.parseInt("10");
        System.out.println(Integer.parseInt("10", 10));
        System.out.println(Integer.parseInt("10", 16));
        System.out.println(Integer.parseInt("11"));
        System.out.println(Integer.parseInt("11", 10));
        System.out.println(Integer.parseInt("11", 16));
    }
}
```

10.13 Automatic Conversion between Primitive Types and Wrapper Class Types

A primitive type value can be automatically converted to an object using a wrapper class, and vice versa, depending on the context.

Converting a primitive value to a wrapper object is called boxing. The reverse conversion is called unboxing. Java allows primitive types and wrapper classes to be converted automatically. The compiler will automatically box a primitive value that appears in a context requiring an object, and will unbox an object that appears in a context requiring a primitive value. This is called autoboxing and autounboxing.
For instance, the following statement in (a) can be simplified as in (b) due to autoboxing.

```
(a) Integer intObject = new Integer(2);
(b) Integer intObject = 2;
```

Consider the following example:

```java
1  Integer[] intArray = {1, 2, 3};
2  System.out.println(intArray[0] + intArray[1] + intArray[2]);
```

In line 1, the primitive values 1, 2, and 3 are automatically boxed into objects `new Integer(1), new Integer(2),` and `new Integer(3).` In line 2, the objects `intArray[0], intArray[1],` and `intArray[2]` are automatically converted into `int` values that are added together.

**10.19** What are autoboxing and autounboxing? Are the following statements correct?

a. `Integer x = 3 + new Integer(5);`

b. `Integer x = 3;`

c. `Double x = 3;`

d. `Double x = 3.0;`

e. `int x = new Integer(3);`

f. `int x = new Integer(3) + new Integer(4);`

**10.20** Show the output of the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Double x = new Double(3.5);
        System.out.println(x.intValue());
        System.out.println(x.compareTo(4.5));
    }
}
```

**10.14 The BigInteger and BigDecimal Classes**

The `BigInteger` and `BigDecimal` classes can be used to represent integers or decimal numbers of any size and precision.

If you need to compute with very large integers or high-precision floating-point values, you can use the `BigInteger` and `BigDecimal` classes in the `java.math` package. Both are `immutable`. The largest integer of the `long` type is `Long.MAX_VALUE` (i.e., 9223372036854775807). An instance of `BigInteger` can represent an integer of any size. You can use `new BigInteger(String)` and `new BigDecimal(String)` to create an instance of `BigInteger` and `BigDecimal`, use the `add, subtract, multiple, divide,` and `remainder` methods to perform arithmetic operations, and use the `compareTo` method to compare two big numbers. For example, the following code creates two `BigInteger` objects and multiplies them.

```java
BigInteger a = new BigInteger("9223372036854775807");
BigInteger b = new BigInteger("2");
BigInteger c = a.multiply(b); // 9223372036854775807 * 2
System.out.println(c);
```

The output is 18446744073709551614.
There is no limit to the precision of a BigDecimal object. The divide method may throw an ArithmeticException if the result cannot be terminated. However, you can use the overloaded divide(BigDecimal d, int scale, int roundingMode) method to specify a scale and a rounding mode to avoid this exception, where scale is the maximum number of digits after the decimal point. For example, the following code creates two BigDecimal objects and performs division with scale 20 and rounding mode BigDecimal.ROUND_UP.

```java
BigDecimal a = new BigDecimal(1.0);
BigDecimal b = new BigDecimal(3);
BigDecimal c = a.divide(b, 20, BigDecimal.ROUND_UP);
System.out.println(c);
```

The output is 0.33333333333333333334.

Note that the factorial of an integer can be very large. Listing 10.11 gives a method that can return the factorial of any integer.

### Listing 10.11 LargeFactorial.java

```java
import java.math.*;

public class LargeFactorial {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("50! is \n" + factorial(50));
    }

    public static BigInteger factorial(long n) {
        BigInteger result = BigInteger.ONE;
        for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
            result = result.multiply(new BigInteger(i + ""));
        return result;
    }
}
```

50! is 30414093201713378043612608166064768844377641568960512000000000000000

BigInteger.ONE (line 9) is a constant defined in the BigInteger class. BigInteger.ONE is the same as new BigInteger("1").

A new result is obtained by invoking the multiply method (line 11).

### Check Point

10.21 What is the output of the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        java.math.BigInteger x = new java.math.BigInteger("3");
        java.math.BigInteger y = new java.math.BigInteger("7");
        x.add(y);
        System.out.println(x);
    }
}
```
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. Once it is created, an immutable object cannot be modified. To prevent users from modifying an object, you can define immutable classes.

2. The scope of instance and static variables is the entire class, regardless of where the variables are declared. Instance and static variables can be declared anywhere in the class. For consistency, they are declared at the beginning of the class in this book.

3. The keyword this can be used to refer to the calling object. It can also be used inside a constructor to invoke another constructor of the same class.

4. The procedural paradigm focuses on designing methods. The object-oriented paradigm couples data and methods together into objects. Software design using the object-oriented paradigm focuses on objects and operations on objects. The object-oriented approach combines the power of the procedural paradigm with an added dimension that integrates data with operations into objects.

5. Many Java methods require the use of objects as arguments. Java offers a convenient way to incorporate, or wrap, a primitive data type into an object (e.g., wrapping int into the Integer class, and wrapping double into the Double class).

6. Java can automatically convert a primitive type value to its corresponding wrapper object in the context and vice versa.

7. The BigInteger class is useful for computing and processing integers of any size. The BigDecimal class can be used to compute and process floating-point numbers with any arbitrary precision.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Sections 10.2–10.6

*10.1 (The Time class) Design a class named Time. The class contains:

- The data fields hour, minute, and second that represent a time.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a Time object for the current time. (The values of the data fields will represent the current time.)
Chapter 10 Thinking in Objects

- A constructor that constructs a Time object with a specified elapsed time since midnight, January 1, 1970, in milliseconds. (The values of the data fields will represent this time.)
- A constructor that constructs a Time object with the specified hour, minute, and second.
- Three get methods for the data fields hour, minute, and second, respectively.
- A method named setTime(long elapsedTime) that sets a new time for the object using the elapsed time. For example, if the elapsed time is 555550000 milliseconds, the hour is 10, the minute is 19, and the second is 10.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates two Time objects (using new Time() and new Time(555550000)) and displays their hour, minute, and second in the format hour:minute:second.

(Hint: The first two constructors will extract the hour, minute, and second from the elapsed time. For the no-arg constructor, the current time can be obtained using System.currentTimeMillis(), as shown in Listing 2.6, ShowCurrentTime.java.)

10.2 (The BMI class) Add the following new constructor in the BMI class:

```java
/** Construct a BMI with the specified name, age, weight, * feet, and inches */
public BMI(String name, int age, double weight, double feet, double inches)
```

10.3 (The MyInteger class) Design a class named MyInteger. The class contains:

- An int data field named value that stores the int value represented by this object.
- A constructor that creates a MyInteger object for the specified int value.
- A get method that returns the int value.
- The methods isEven(), isOdd(), and isPrime() that return true if the value in this object is even, odd, or prime, respectively.
- The static methods isEven(int), isOdd(int), and isPrime(int) that return true if the specified value is even, odd, or prime, respectively.
- The static methods isEven(MyInteger), isOdd(MyInteger), and isPrime(MyInteger) that return true if the specified value is even, odd, or prime, respectively.
- The methods equals(int) and equals(MyInteger) that return true if the value in this object is equal to the specified value.
- A static method parseInt(char[]) that converts an array of numeric characters to an int value.
- A static method parseInt(String) that converts a string into an int value.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a client program that tests all methods in the class.

10.4 (The MyPoint class) Design a class named MyPoint to represent a point with x- and y-coordinates. The class contains:

- The data fields x and y that represent the coordinates with get methods.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a point (0, 0).
- A constructor that constructs a point with specified coordinates.
- Two get methods for the data fields x and y, respectively.
A method named `distance` that returns the distance from this point to another point of the `MyPoint` type.

A method named `distance` that returns the distance from this point to another point with specified `x`- and `y`-coordinates.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates the two points \((0, 0)\) and \((10, 30.5)\) and displays the distance between them.

**Sections 10.7–10.11**

*10.5* (Displaying the prime factors) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a positive integer and displays all its smallest factors in decreasing order. For example, if the integer is \(120\), the smallest factors are displayed as \(5, 3, 2, 2, 2\). Use the `StackOfIntegers` class to store the factors (e.g., \(2, 2, 2, 3, 5\)) and retrieve and display them in reverse order.

*10.6* (Displaying the prime numbers) Write a program that displays all the prime numbers less than \(120\) in decreasing order. Use the `StackOfIntegers` class to store the prime numbers (e.g., \(2, 3, 5, \ldots\)) and retrieve and display them in reverse order.

**10.7** (Game: ATM machine) Use the `Account` class created in Programming Exercise 8.7 to simulate an ATM machine. Create ten accounts in an array with id \(0, 1, \ldots, 9\), and initial balance $100. The system prompts the user to enter an id. If the id is entered incorrectly, ask the user to enter a correct id. Once an id is accepted, the main menu is displayed as shown in the sample run. You can enter a choice 1 for viewing the current balance, 2 for withdrawing money, 3 for depositing money, and 4 for exiting the main menu. Once you exit, the system will prompt for an id again. Thus, once the system starts, it will not stop.
**10.8** *(Financial: the Tax class)* Programming Exercise 7.12 writes a program for computing taxes using arrays. Design a class named `Tax` to contain the following instance data fields:

- **int filingStatus**: One of the four tax-filing statuses: 0—single filer, 1—married filing jointly or qualifying widow(er), 2—married filing separately, and 3—head of household. Use the public static constants `SINGLE_FILER(0), MARRIED_JOINTLY_OR_QUALIFYING_WIDOW(ER) (1), MARRIED_SEPARATELY (2), HEAD_OF_HOUSEHOLD (3)` to represent the statuses.
- **int[][] brackets**: Stores the tax brackets for each filing status.
- **double[] rates**: Stores the tax rates for each bracket.
- **double taxableIncome**: Stores the taxable income.

Provide the `get` and `set` methods for each data field and the `getTax()` method that returns the tax. Also provide a no-arg constructor and the constructor `Tax(filingStatus, brackets, rates, taxableIncome)`.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that uses the `Tax` class to print the 2001 and 2009 tax tables for taxable income from $50,000 to $60,000 with intervals of $1,000 for all four statuses. The tax rates for the year 2009 were given in Table 3.2. The tax rates for 2001 are shown in Table 10.1.

**10.9** *(The Course class)* Revise the `Course` class as follows:

- The array size is fixed in Listing 10.6. Improve it to automatically increase the array size by creating a new larger array and copying the contents of the current array to it.
- Implement the `dropStudent` method.
- Add a new method named `clear()` that removes all students from the course.

Write a test program that creates a course, adds three students, removes one, and displays the students in the course.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tax rate</th>
<th>Single filers</th>
<th>Married filing jointly or qualifying widow(er)</th>
<th>Married filing separately</th>
<th>Head of household</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>Up to $27,050</td>
<td>Up to $45,200</td>
<td>Up to $22,600</td>
<td>Up to $36,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>$27,051–$65,550</td>
<td>$45,201–$109,250</td>
<td>$22,601–$54,625</td>
<td>$36,251–$93,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.5%</td>
<td>$65,551–$136,750</td>
<td>$109,251–$166,500</td>
<td>$54,626–$83,250</td>
<td>$93,651–$151,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>$297,351 or more</td>
<td>$297,351 or more</td>
<td>$148,676 or more</td>
<td>$297,351 or more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*10.10* (Game: The **GuessDate** class) Modify the **GuessDate** class in Listing 10.10. Instead of representing dates in a three-dimensional array, use five two-dimensional arrays to represent the five sets of numbers. Thus, you need to declare:

```java
private static int[][] set1 = {{1, 3, 5, 7}, ... };
private static int[][] set2 = {{2, 3, 6, 7}, ... };
private static int[][] set3 = {{4, 5, 6, 7}, ... };
private static int[][] set4 = {{8, 9, 10, 11}, ... };  
private static int[][] set5 = {{16, 17, 18, 19}, ... };"```

*10.11* (Geometry: The **Circle2D** class) Define the **Circle2D** class that contains:

- Two double data fields named x and y that specify the center of the circle with get methods.
- A data field radius with a get method.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default circle with (0,0) for (x, y) and 1 for radius.
- A constructor that creates a circle with the specified x, y, and radius.
- A method getArea() that returns the area of the circle.
- A method getPerimeter() that returns the perimeter of the circle.
- A method contains(double x, double y) that returns true if the specified point (x, y) is inside this circle (see Figure 10.15a).
- A method contains(Circle2D circle) that returns true if the specified circle is inside this circle (see Figure 10.15b).
- A method overlaps(Circle2D circle) that returns true if the specified circle overlaps with this circle (see Figure 10.15c).

![Figure 10.15](image)

**Figure 10.15** (a) A point is inside the circle. (b) A circle is inside another circle. (c) A circle overlaps another circle.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates a Circle2D object c1(new Circle2D(2, 2, 5.5)), displays its area and perimeter, and displays the result of c1.contains(3, 3), c1.contains(new Circle2D(4, 5, 10.5)), and c1.overlaps(new Circle2D(3, 5, 2.3)).
10.12 (Geometry: The Triangle2D class) Define the Triangle2D class that contains:

- Three points named \( p_1, p_2, \) and \( p_3 \) of the type MyPoint with get and set methods. MyPoint is defined in Exercise 10.4.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default triangle with the points \((0, 0), (1, 1), \) and \((2, 5)\).
- A constructor that creates a triangle with the specified points.
- A method getArea() that returns the area of the triangle.
- A method getPerimeter() that returns the perimeter of the triangle.
- A method contains(MyPoint p) that returns true if the specified point \( p \) is inside this triangle (see Figure 10.16a).
- A method contains(Triangle2D t) that returns true if the specified triangle is inside this triangle (see Figure 10.16b).
- A method overlaps(Triangle2D t) that returns true if the specified triangle overlaps with this triangle (see Figure 10.16c).

```
Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates a Triangle2D objects t1 using the constructor new Triangle2D(new MyPoint(2.5, 2), new MyPoint(4.2, 3), new MyPoint(5, 3.5)), displays its area and perimeter, and displays the result of t1.contains(3, 3), t1.contains(new Triangle2D(new MyPoint(2.9, 2), new MyPoint(4, 1), MyPoint(1, 3.4))), and t1.overlaps(new Triangle2D(new MyPoint(2, 5.5), new MyPoint(4, -3), MyPoint(2, 6.5))).

(Hint: For the formula to compute the area of a triangle, see Programming Exercise 2.15. Use the java.awt.geom.Line2D class in the Java API to implement the contains and overlaps methods. The Line2D class contains the methods for checking whether two line segments intersect and whether a line contains a point, and so on. Please see the Java API for more information on Line2D. To detect whether a point is inside a triangle, draw three dashed lines, as shown in Figure 10.17. If the point is inside a triangle, each dashed line should intersect a side only once. If a dashed line intersects a side twice, then the point must be outside the triangle.)
```

![Figure 10.16](image_url)

(a) A point is inside the triangle. (b) A triangle is inside another triangle. (c) A triangle overlaps another triangle.

![Figure 10.17](image_url)

(a) A point is inside the triangle. (b) A point is outside the triangle.
*10.13  (Geometry: the MyRectangle2D class) Define the MyRectangle2D class that contains:

- Two double data fields named x and y that specify the center of the rectangle with get and set methods. (Assume that the rectangle sides are parallel to x- or y- axes.)
- The data fields width and height with get and set methods.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default rectangle with (0, 0) for (x, y) and 1 for both width and height.
- A constructor that creates a rectangle with the specified x, y, width, and height.
- A method getArea() that returns the area of the rectangle.
- A method getPerimeter() that returns the perimeter of the rectangle.
- A method contains(double x, double y) that returns true if the specified point (x, y) is inside this rectangle (see Figure 10.18a).
- A method contains(MyRectangle2D r) that returns true if the specified rectangle is inside this rectangle (see Figure 10.18b).
- A method overlaps(MyRectangle2D r) that returns true if the specified rectangle overlaps with this rectangle (see Figure 10.18c).

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates a MyRectangle2D object r1 (new MyRectangle2D(2, 2, 5.5, 4.9)), displays its area and perimeter, and displays the result of r1.contains(3, 3), r1.contains(new MyRectangle2D(4, 5, 10.5, 3.2)), and r1.overlaps(new MyRectangle2D(3, 5, 2.3, 5.4)).

*10.14  (The MyDate class) Design a class named MyDate. The class contains:

- The data fields year, month, and day that represent a date. month is 0-based, i.e., 0 is for January.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a MyDate object for the current date.
- A constructor that constructs a MyDate object with a specified elapsed time since midnight, January 1, 1970, in milliseconds.
- A constructor that constructs a MyDate object with the specified year, month, and day.
- Three get methods for the data fields year, month, and day, respectively.
- A method named setDate(long elapsedTime) that sets a new date for the object using the elapsed time.

Draw the UML diagram for the class and then implement the class. Write a test program that creates two MyDate objects (using new MyDate() and new MyDate(34355555133101L)) and displays their year, month, and day.

(Hint: The first two constructors will extract the year, month, and day from the elapsed time. For example, if the elapsed time is 561555550000 milliseconds, the year is...
1987, the month is 9, and the day is 18. You may use the GregorianCalendar class discussed in Programming Exercise 8.5 to simplify coding.)

*10.15 (Geometry: finding the bounding rectangle) A bounding rectangle is the minimum rectangle that encloses a set of points in a two-dimensional plane, as shown in Figure 10.18d. Write a method that returns a bounding rectangle for a set of points in a two-dimensional plane, as follows:

```java
public static MyRectangle2D getRectangle(double[][] points)
```

The Rectangle2D class is defined in Exercise 10.13. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter five points and displays the bounding rectangle’s center, width, and height. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter five points: 1.0 2.5 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
The bounding rectangle's center (5.0, 6.25), width 8.0, height 7.5
```

Sections 10.12–10.14

*10.16 (Divisible by 2 or 3) Find the first ten numbers with 50 decimal digits that are divisible by 2 or 3.

*10.17 (Square numbers) Find the first ten square numbers that are greater than Long.MAX_VALUE. A square number is a number in the form of \( n^2 \).

*10.18 (Large prime numbers) Write a program that finds five prime numbers larger than Long.MAX_VALUE.

*10.19 (Mersenne prime) A prime number is called a Mersenne prime if it can be written in the form \( 2^p - 1 \) for some positive integer \( p \). Write a program that finds all Mersenne primes with \( p \leq 100 \) and displays the output as shown below. (Hint: You have to use BigInteger to store the number, because it is too big to be stored in long. Your program may take several hours to run.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( 2^p - 1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*10.20 (Approximate e) Programming Exercise 4.26 approximates \( e \) using the following series:

\[
e = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \ldots + \frac{1}{i!}
\]

In order to get better precision, use BigDecimal with 25 digits of precision in the computation. Write a program that displays the \( e \) value for \( i = 100, 200, \ldots, \) and 1000.

*10.21 (Divisible by 5 or 6) Find the first ten numbers (greater than Long.MAX_VALUE) that are divisible by 5 or 6.
INHERITANCE AND POLYMORPHISM

Objectives

■ To define a subclass from a superclass through inheritance (§11.2).
■ To invoke the superclass’s constructors and methods using the super keyword (§11.3).
■ To override instance methods in the subclass (§11.4).
■ To distinguish differences between overriding and overloading (§11.5).
■ To explore the toString() method in the Object class (§11.6).
■ To discover polymorphism and dynamic binding (§§11.7–11.8).
■ To describe casting and explain why explicit downcasting is necessary (§11.9).
■ To explore the equals method in the Object class (§11.10).
■ To store, retrieve, and manipulate objects in an ArrayList (§11.11).
■ To implement a Stack class using ArrayList (§11.12).
■ To enable data and methods in a superclass accessible from subclasses using the protected visibility modifier (§11.13).
■ To prevent class extending and method overriding using the final modifier (§11.14).
11.1 Introduction

Object-oriented programming allows you to define new classes from existing classes. This is called inheritance.

As discussed earlier in the book, the procedural paradigm focuses on designing methods and the object-oriented paradigm couples data and methods together into objects. Software design using the object-oriented paradigm focuses on objects and operations on objects. The object-oriented approach combines the power of the procedural paradigm with an added dimension that integrates data with operations into objects.

Inheritance is an important and powerful feature for reusing software. Suppose you need to define classes to model circles, rectangles, and triangles. These classes have many common features. What is the best way to design these classes so as to avoid redundancy and make the system easy to comprehend and easy to maintain? The answer is to use inheritance.

11.2 Superclasses and Subclasses

Inheritance enables you to define a general class (e.g., a superclass) and later extend it to more specialized classes (e.g., subclasses).

You use a class to model objects of the same type. Different classes may have some common properties and behaviors, which can be generalized in a class that can be shared by other classes. You can define a specialized class that extends the generalized class. The specialized classes inherit the properties and methods from the general class.

Consider geometric objects. Suppose you want to design the classes to model geometric objects such as circles and rectangles. Geometric objects have many common properties and behaviors. They can be drawn in a certain color and be filled or unfilled. Thus a general class GeometricObject can be used to model all geometric objects. This class contains the properties color and filled and their appropriate get and set methods. Assume that this class also contains the dateCreated property and the getDateCreated() and toString() methods. The toString() method returns a string representation of the object. Since a circle is a special type of geometric object, it shares common properties and methods with other geometric objects. Thus it makes sense to define the Circle class that extends the GeometricObject class. Likewise, Rectangle can also be defined as a subclass of GeometricObject. Figure 11.1 shows the relationship among these classes. A triangular arrow pointing to the superclass is used to denote the inheritance relationship between the two classes involved.

In Java terminology, a class C1 extended from another class C2 is called a subclass, and C2 is called a superclass. A superclass is also referred to as a parent class or a base class, and a subclass as a child class, an extended class, or a derived class. A subclass inherits accessible data fields and methods from its superclass and may also add new data fields and methods.

The Circle class inherits all accessible data fields and methods from the GeometricObject class. In addition, it has a new data field, radius, and its associated get and set methods. The Circle class also contains the getArea(), getPerimeter(), and getDiameter() methods for returning the area, perimeter, and diameter of the circle.

The Rectangle class inherits all accessible data fields and methods from the GeometricObject class. In addition, it has the data fields width and height and their associated get and set methods. It also contains the getArea() and getPerimeter() methods for returning the area and perimeter of the rectangle.

The GeometricObject, Circle, and Rectangle classes are shown in Listings 11.1, 11.2, and 11.3.

Note
To avoid a naming conflict with the improved GeometricObject, Circle, and Rectangle classes introduced in Chapter 15, we’ll name these classes...
11.2 Superclasses and Subclasses

SimpleGeometricObject, CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject, and RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject in this chapter. For simplicity, we will still refer to them in the text as GeometricObject, Circle, and Rectangle classes. The best way to avoid naming conflicts is to place these classes in different packages. However, for simplicity and consistency, all classes in this book are placed in the default package.

**LISTING 11.1** SimpleGeometricObject.java

```java
public class SimpleGeometricObject {
    private String color = "white";
    private boolean filled;
    private java.util.Date dateCreated;

    /** Construct a default geometric object */
    public SimpleGeometricObject() {
        dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
    }
}
```

data fields

constructor
date constructed

**Figure 11.1** The GeometricObject class is the superclass for Circle and Rectangle.

---

**TABLE 11.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GeometricObject</th>
<th>Circle</th>
<th>Rectangle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-color: String</td>
<td>-radius: double</td>
<td>-width: double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-filled: boolean</td>
<td></td>
<td>-height: double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dateCreated: java.util.Date</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+GeometricObject()          +Circle()          +Rectangle()
+GeometricObject(color: String, filled: boolean) +Circle(radius: double) +Rectangle(width: double, height: double)
+getColor(): String        +getRadius(): double +getWidth(): double
+setColor(color: String): void +setRadius(radius: double): void +getHeight(): double
+isFilled(): boolean      +getArea(): double   +getArea(): double
+setFilled(filled: boolean): void +getPerimeter(): double +getPerimeter(): double
+getDateCreated(): java.util.Date +getDiameter(): double +getDiameter(): double
+toString(): String

The color of the object (default: white).
Indicates whether the object is filled with a color (default: false).
The date when the object was created.

Creates a GeometricObject.
Creates a GeometricObject with the specified color and filled values.
Returns the color.
Sets a new color.
Returns the filled property.
Sets a new filled property.
Returns the dateCreated.
Returns a string representation of this object.
/** Construct a geometric object with the specified color * and filled value */
public SimpleGeometricObject(String color, boolean filled) {
    dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
    this.color = color;
    this.filled = filled;
}

/** Return color */
public String getColor() {
    return color;
}

/** Set a new color */
public void setColor(String color) {
    this.color = color;
}

/** Return filled. Since filled is boolean, its get method is named isFilled */
public boolean isFilled() {
    return filled;
}

/** Set a new filled */
public void setFilled(boolean filled) {
    this.filled = filled;
}

/** Get dateCreated */
public java.util.Date getDateCreated() {
    return dateCreated;
}

/** Return a string representation of this object */
public String toString() {
    return "created on " + dateCreated + "\ncolor: " + color + " and filled: " + filled;
}

Listing 11.2  CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject.java

public class CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject
    extends SimpleGeometricObject {
    private double radius;

    public CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject() {
    }

    public CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(double radius) {
        this.radius = radius;
    }

    public CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(double radius,
        String color, boolean filled) {
        this.radius = radius;
        setColor(color);
The `Circle` class (Listing 11.2) extends the `GeometricObject` class (Listing 11.1) using the following syntax:

```java
public class Circle extends GeometricObject
```

The keyword `extends` (lines 1–2) tells the compiler that the `Circle` class extends the `GeometricObject` class, thus inheriting the methods `getColor`, `setColor`, `isFilled`, `setFilled`, and `toString`.

The overloaded constructor `Circle(double radius, String color, boolean filled)` is implemented by invoking the `setColor` and `setFilled` methods to set the `color` and `filled` properties (lines 12–17). These two public methods are defined in the base class `GeometricObject` and are inherited in `Circle`, so they can be used in the derived class.

You might attempt to use the data fields `color` and `filled` directly in the constructor as follows:

```java
public CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(
    double radius, String color, boolean filled) {
```

...
This is wrong, because the private data fields color and filled in the GeometricObject class cannot be accessed in any class other than in the GeometricObject class itself. The only way to read and modify color and filled is through their get and set methods.

The Rectangle class (Listing 11.3) extends the GeometricObject class (Listing 11.1) using the following syntax:

```
public class Rectangle extends GeometricObject
```

The keyword extends (lines 1–2) tells the compiler that the Rectangle class extends the GeometricObject class, thus inheriting the methods getColor, setColor, isFilled, setFilled, and toString.

### Listing 11.3 RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject.java

```java
public class RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject {
    private double width;
    private double height;

    public RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject() {
    }

    public RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject(
            double width, double height) {
        this.width = width;
        this.height = height;
    }

    public RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject(
            double width, double height, String color, boolean filled) {
        this.width = width;
        this.height = height;
        setColor(color);
        setFilled(filled);
    }

    /** Return width */
    public double getWidth() {
        return width;
    }

    /** Set a new width */
    public void setWidth(double width) {
        this.width = width;
    }
```
```java
/** Return height */
public double getHeight() {
    return height;
}
/** Set a new height */
public void setHeight(double height) {
    this.height = height;
}
/** Return area */
public double getArea() {
    return width * height;
}
/** Return perimeter */
public double getPerimeter() {
    return 2 * (width + height);
}
}

The code in Listing 11.4 creates objects of Circle and Rectangle and invokes the methods on these objects. The toString() method is inherited from the GeometricObject class and is invoked from a Circle object (line 5) and a Rectangle object (line 13).

**LISTING 11.4 TestCircleRectangle.java**

```java
public class TestCircleRectangle {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject circle =
            new CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(1);
        System.out.println("A circle "+ circle.toString());
        System.out.println("The color is "+ circle.getColor());
        System.out.println("The radius is "+ circle.getRadius());
        System.out.println("The area is "+ circle.getArea());
        System.out.println("The diameter is "+ circle.getDiameter());

        RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject rectangle =
            new RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject(2, 4);
        System.out.println("\nA rectangle "+ rectangle.toString());
        System.out.println("The area is "+ rectangle.getArea());
        System.out.println("The perimeter is "+
            rectangle.getPerimeter());
    }
}
```

A circle created on Thu Feb 10 19:54:25 EST 2011
- color: white and filled: false
- The color is white
- The radius is 1.0
- The area is 3.141592653589793
- The diameter is 2.0

A rectangle created on Thu Feb 10 19:54:25 EST 2011
- color: white and filled: false
- The area is 8.0
- The perimeter is 12.0
Note the following points regarding inheritance:

- Contrary to the conventional interpretation, a subclass is not a subset of its superclass. In fact, a subclass usually contains more information and methods than its superclass.

- Private data fields in a superclass are not accessible outside the class. Therefore, they cannot be used directly in a subclass. They can, however, be accessed/mutated through public accessors/mutators if defined in the superclass.

- Not all is-a relationships should be modeled using inheritance. For example, a square is a rectangle, but you should not extend a `Square` class from a `Rectangle` class, because the `width` and `height` properties are not appropriate for a square. Instead, you should define a `Square` class to extend the `GeometricObject` class and define the `side` property for the side of a square.

- Inheritance is used to model the is-a relationship. Do not blindly extend a class just for the sake of reusing methods. For example, it makes no sense for a `Tree` class to extend a `Person` class, even though they share common properties such as height and weight. A subclass and its superclass must have the is-a relationship.

- Some programming languages allow you to derive a subclass from several classes. This capability is known as multiple inheritance. Java, however, does not allow multiple inheritance. A Java class may inherit directly from only one superclass. This restriction is known as single inheritance. If you use the `extends` keyword to define a subclass, it allows only one parent class. Nevertheless, multiple inheritance can be achieved through interfaces, which will be introduced in Section 15.4.

11.1 True or false? A subclass is a subset of a superclass.

11.2 What keyword do you use to define a subclass?

11.3 What is single inheritance? What is multiple inheritance? Does Java support multiple inheritance?

11.3 Using the `super` Keyword

The keyword `super` refers to the superclass and can be used to invoke the superclass’s methods and constructors.

A subclass inherits accessible data fields and methods from its superclass. Does it inherit constructors? Can the superclass’s constructors be invoked from a subclass? This section addresses these questions and their ramifications.

Section 10.4, The `this` Reference, introduced the use of the keyword `this` to reference the calling object. The keyword `super` refers to the superclass of the class in which `super` appears. It can be used in two ways:

- To call a superclass constructor.
- To call a superclass method.

11.3.1 Calling Superclass Constructors

A constructor is used to construct an instance of a class. Unlike properties and methods, the constructors of a superclass are not inherited by a subclass. They can only be invoked from the constructors of the subclasses using the keyword `super`. 
11.3 Using the `super` Keyword

The syntax to call a superclass’s constructor is:

```java
super(), or super(parameters);
```

The statement `super()` invokes the no-arg constructor of its superclass, and the statement `super(arguments)` invokes the superclass constructor that matches the `arguments`. The statement `super()` or `super(arguments)` must appear in the first line of the subclass’s constructor; this is the only way to explicitly invoke a superclass constructor. For example, the constructor in lines 12–17 in Listing 11.2 can be replaced by the following code:

```java
public CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(double radius, String color, boolean filled) {
    super(color, filled);
    this.radius = radius;
}
```

**Caution**

You must use the keyword `super` to call the superclass constructor, and the call must be the first statement in the constructor. Invoking a superclass constructor’s name in a subclass causes a syntax error.

### 11.3.2 Constructor Chaining

A constructor may invoke an overloaded constructor or its superclass constructor. If neither is invoked explicitly, the compiler automatically puts `super()` as the first statement in the constructor. For example:

```java
public ClassName() {
    // some statements
}

public ClassName(double d) {
    // some statements
}

public ClassName() {
    super();
    // some statements
}

public ClassName(double d) {
    super();
    // some statements
}
```

In any case, constructing an instance of a class invokes the constructors of all the superclasses along the inheritance chain. When constructing an object of a subclass, the subclass constructor first invokes its superclass constructor before performing its own tasks. If the superclass is derived from another class, the superclass constructor invokes its parent-class constructor before performing its own tasks. This process continues until the last constructor along the inheritance hierarchy is called. This is called **constructor chaining**.

Consider the following code:

```java
1 public class Faculty extends Employee {
2    public static void main(String[] args) {
3        new Faculty();
4    }
5
6    public Faculty() {
```
The program produces the preceding output. Why? Let us discuss the reason. In line 3, new Faculty() invokes Faculty's no-arg constructor. Since Faculty is a subclass of Employee, Employee's no-arg constructor is invoked before any statements in Faculty's constructor are executed. Employee's no-arg constructor invokes Employee's second constructor (line 12). Since Employee is a subclass of Person, Person's no-arg constructor is invoked before any statements in Employee's second constructor are executed. This process is illustrated in the following figure.

Caution
If a class is designed to be extended, it is better to provide a no-arg constructor to avoid programming errors. Consider the following code:

```java
public class Apple extends Fruit {
    }

class Fruit {
    public Fruit(String name) {
        System.out.println("Fruit's constructor is invoked");
    }
}
```
Since no constructor is explicitly defined in Apple, Apple’s default no-arg constructor is defined implicitly. Since Apple is a subclass of Fruit, Apple’s default constructor automatically invokes Fruit’s no-arg constructor. However, Fruit does not have a no-arg constructor, because Fruit has an explicit constructor defined. Therefore, the program cannot be compiled.

**Design Guide**
If possible, you should provide a no-arg constructor for every class to make the class easy to extend and to avoid errors.

### 11.3.3 Calling Superclass Methods

The keyword `super` can also be used to reference a method other than the constructor in the superclass. The syntax is:

```java
super.method(parameters);
```

You could rewrite the `printCircle()` method in the `Circle` class as follows:

```java
public void printCircle() {
    System.out.println("The circle is created " +
        super.getDateCreated() + " and the radius is " + radius);
}
```

It is not necessary to put `super` before `getDateCreated()` in this case, however, because `getDateCreated()` is a method in the `GeometricObject` class and is inherited by the `Circle` class. Nevertheless, in some cases, as shown in the next section, the keyword `super` is needed.

### 11.4 What is the printout of running the class C in (a)? What problem arises in compiling the program in (b)?

```java
class A {
    public A() {
        System.out.println("A's no-arg constructor is invoked");
    }
}
class B extends A {
}
public class C {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B b = new B();
    }
}
```

(a)

```java
class A {
    public A(int x) {
    }
}
class B extends A {
    public B() {
    }
}
public class C {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B b = new B();
    }
}
```

(b)

### 11.5 How does a subclass invoke its superclass’s constructor?

### 11.6 True or false? When invoking a constructor from a subclass, its superclass’s no-arg constructor is always invoked.
11.4 Overriding Methods

To override a method, the method must be defined in the subclass using the same signature and the same return type as in its superclass.

A subclass inherits methods from a superclass. Sometimes it is necessary for the subclass to modify the implementation of a method defined in the superclass. This is referred to as method overriding.

The `toString` method in the `GeometricObject` class (lines 46–49 in Listing 11.1) returns the string representation of a geometric object. This method can be overridden to return the string representation of a circle. To override it, add the following new method in the `Circle` class in Listing 11.2.

```java
1 public class CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject
2   extends SimpleGeometricObject {
3     // Other methods are omitted
4     
5     // Override the toString method defined in the superclass
6     public String toString() {
7         return super.toString() + \nradius is " + radius;
8     }
9 }
```

The `toString()` method is defined in the `GeometricObject` class and modified in the `Circle` class. Both methods can be used in the `Circle` class. To invoke the `toString` method defined in the `GeometricObject` class from the `Circle` class, use `super.toString()` (line 7).

Can a subclass of `Circle` access the `toString` method defined in the `GeometricObject` class using syntax such as `super.super.toString()`? No. This is a syntax error.

Several points are worth noting:

- An instance method can be overridden only if it is accessible. Thus a private method cannot be overridden, because it is not accessible outside its own class. If a method defined in a subclass is private in its superclass, the two methods are completely unrelated.

- Like an instance method, a static method can be inherited. However, a static method cannot be overridden. If a static method defined in the superclass is redefined in a subclass, the method defined in the superclass is hidden. The hidden static methods can be invoked using the syntax `SuperClassName.staticMethodName`.

11.5 Overriding vs. Overloading

Overloading means to define multiple methods with the same name but different signatures. Overriding means to provide a new implementation for a method in the subclass.

You learned about overloading methods in Section 5.8. To override a method, the method must be defined in the subclass using the same signature and the same return type.
Let us use an example to show the differences between overriding and overloading. In (a) below, the method \texttt{p(double i)} in class \texttt{A} overrides the same method defined in class \texttt{B}. In (b), however, the class \texttt{A} has two overloaded methods: \texttt{p(double i)} and \texttt{p(int i)}. The method \texttt{p(double i)} is inherited from \texttt{B}.

When you run the \texttt{Test} class in (a), both \texttt{a.p(10)} and \texttt{a.p(10.0)} invoke the \texttt{p(double i)} method defined in class \texttt{A} to display \texttt{10.0}. When you run the \texttt{Test} class in (b), \texttt{a.p(10)} invokes the \texttt{p(int i)} method defined in class \texttt{A} to display \texttt{10}, and \texttt{a.p(10.0)} invokes the \texttt{p(double i)} method defined in class \texttt{B} to display \texttt{20.0}.

Note the following:

- Overridden methods are in different classes related by inheritance; overloaded methods can be either in the same class or different classes related by inheritance.
- Overridden methods have the same signature and return type; overloaded methods have the same name but a different parameter list.

To avoid mistakes, you can use a special Java syntax, called \texttt{override annotation}, to place \texttt{@Override} before the method in the subclass. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
public class CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject {
    // Other methods are omitted
    @Override
    public String toString() {
        return super.toString() + 
        \"radius is \" + radius;
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

This annotation denotes that the annotated method is required to override a method in the superclass. If a method with this annotation does not override its superclass’s method, the compiler will report an error. For example, if \texttt{toString} is mistyped as \texttt{tostring}, a compile error is reported. If the override annotation isn’t used, the compile won’t report an error. Using annotation avoids mistakes.
11.11 Identify the problems in the following code:

```java
public class Circle {
    private double radius;

    public Circle(double radius) {
        radius = radius;
    }

    public double getRadius() {
        return radius;
    }

    public double getArea() {
        return radius * radius * Math.PI;
    }
}

class B extends Circle {
    private double length;

    B(double radius, double length) {
        Circle(radius);
        length = length;
    }

    @Override
    public double getArea() {
        return getArea() * length;
    }
}
```

11.12 Explain the difference between method overloading and method overriding.

11.13 If a method in a subclass has the same signature as a method in its superclass with the same return type, is the method overridden or overloaded?

11.14 If a method in a subclass has the same signature as a method in its superclass with a different return type, will this be a problem?

11.15 If a method in a subclass has the same name as a method in its superclass with different parameter types, is the method overridden or overloaded?

11.16 What is the benefit of using the `@Override` annotation?

11.6 The Object Class and Its `toString()` Method

Every class in Java is descended from the `java.lang.Object` class.

If no inheritance is specified when a class is defined, the superclass of the class is `Object` by default. For example, the following two class definitions are the same:

```java
public class ClassName {
    ...
}
```

Equivalent

```java
public class ClassName extends Object {
    ...
}
```

Classes such as `String`, `StringBuilder`, `Loan`, and `GeometricObject` are implicitly subclasses of `Object` (as are all the main classes you have seen in this book so far). It is
important to be familiar with the methods provided by the `Object` class so that you can use them in your classes. This section introduces the `toString` method in the `Object` class.

The signature of the `toString()` method is:

```java
public String toString()
```

Invoking `toString()` on an object returns a string that describes the object. By default, it returns a string consisting of a class name of which the object is an instance, an at sign (@), and the object’s memory address in hexadecimal. For example, consider the following code for the `Loan` class defined in Listing 10.2:

```java
Loan loan = new Loan();
System.out.println(loan.toString());
```

The output for this code displays something like `Loan@15037e5`. This message is not very helpful or informative. Usually you should override the `toString` method so that it returns a descriptive string representation of the object. For example, the `toString` method in the `Object` class was overridden in the `GeometricObject` class in lines 46–49 in Listing 11.1 as follows:

```java
public String toString() {
    return "created on " + dateCreated + "\ncolor: " + color + " and filled: " + filled;
}
```

### Note

You can also pass an object to invoke `System.out.println(object)` or `System.out.println(object.toString())`. This is equivalent to invoking `System.out.println(object.tostring())`. Thus, you could replace `System.out.println(loan.toString())` with `System.out.println(loan)`. 

#### 11.7 Polymorphism

Polymorphism means that a variable of a supertype can refer to a subtype object.

The three pillars of object-oriented programming are encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism. You have already learned the first two. This section introduces polymorphism.

First, let us define two useful terms: subtype and supertype. A class defines a type. A type defined by a subclass is called a subtype, and a type defined by its superclass is called a supertype. Therefore, you can say that `Circle` is a subtype of `GeometricObject` and `GeometricObject` is a supertype for `Circle`.

The inheritance relationship enables a subclass to inherit features from its superclass with additional new features. A subclass is a specialization of its superclass; every instance of a subclass is also an instance of its superclass, but not vice versa. For example, every circle is a geometric object, but not every geometric object is a circle. Therefore, you can always pass an instance of a subclass to a parameter of its superclass type. Consider the code in Listing 11.5.

### Listing 11.5 PolymorphismDemo.java

```java
public class PolymorphismDemo {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
```
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The method `displayObject` (line 12) takes a parameter of the `GeometricObject` type. You can invoke `displayObject` by passing any instance of `GeometricObject` (e.g., `new CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(1, "red", false)` and `new RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject(1, 1, "black", true)` in lines 5–8). An object of a subclass can be used wherever its superclass object is used. This is commonly known as polymorphism (from a Greek word meaning “many forms”). In simple terms, polymorphism means that a variable of a supertype can refer to a subtype object.

11.8 Dynamic Binding

A method can be implemented in several classes along the inheritance chain. The JVM decides which method is invoked at runtime.

A method can be defined in a superclass and overridden in its subclass. For example, the `toString()` method is defined in the `Object` class and overridden in `GeometricObject`. Consider the following code:

```java
Object o = new GeometricObject();
System.out.println(o.toString());
```

Which `toString()` method is invoked by `o`? To answer this question, we first introduce two terms: declared type and actual type. A variable must be declared a type. The type that declares a variable is called the variable’s declared type. Here `o`’s declared type is `Object`. A variable of a reference type can hold a null value or a reference to an instance of the declared type. The instance may be created using the constructor of the declared type or its subtype. The actual type of the variable is the actual class for the object referenced by the variable. Here `o`’s actual type is `GeometricObject`, because `o` references an object created using `new GeometricObject()`. Which `toString()` method is invoked by `o` is determined by `o`’s actual type. This is known as dynamic binding.

Dynamic binding works as follows: Suppose an object `o` is an instance of classes `C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_{n-1}`, and `C_n`, where `C_1` is a subclass of `C_2`, `C_2` is a subclass of `C_3`, \ldots, and `C_{n-1}` is a subclass of `C_n`, as shown in Figure 11.2. That is, `C_n` is the most general class, and `C_1` is the most specific class. In Java, `C_n` is the `Object` class. If `o` invokes a method `p`, the JVM searches for the implementation of the method `p` in `C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_{n-1}`, and `C_n`, in this order, until it is found. Once an implementation is found, the search stops and the first-found implementation is invoked.
Listing 11.6 gives an example to demonstrate dynamic binding.

LISTING 11.6 DynamicBindingDemo.java

```java
public class DynamicBindingDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        m(new GraduateStudent());
        m(new Student());
        m(new Person());
        m(new Object());
    }
    public static void m(Object x) {
        System.out.println(x.toString());
    }
}

class GraduateStudent extends Student {
}
class Student extends Person {
    @Override
    public String toString() {
        return "Student";
    }
}
class Person extends Object {
    @Override
    public String toString() {
        return "Person";
    }
}
```

Method `m` (line 9) takes a parameter of the `Object` type. You can invoke `m` with any object (e.g., `new GraduateStudent()`, `new Student()`, `new Person()`, and `new Object()`) in lines 3–6).

When the method `m(Object x)` is executed, the argument `x`’s `toString` method is invoked. `x` may be an instance of `GraduateStudent`, `Student`, `Person`, or `Object`. The classes `GraduateStudent`, `Student`, `Person`, and `Object` have their own implementations of the `toString` method. Which implementation is used will be determined by `x`’s actual type at runtime. Invoking `m(new GraduateStudent())` (line 3) causes the `toString` method defined in the `Student` class to be invoked.

Invoking `m(new Student())` (line 4) causes the `toString` method defined in the `Student` class to be invoked; invoking `m(new Person())` (line 5) causes the `toString`
method defined in the Person class to be invoked; and invoking m(new Object()) (line 6) causes the toString method defined in the Object class to be invoked.

Matching a method signature and binding a method implementation are two separate issues. The declared type of the reference variable decides which method to match at compile time. The compiler finds a matching method according to the parameter type, number of parameters, and order of the parameters at compile time. A method may be implemented in several classes along the inheritance chain. The JVM dynamically binds the implementation of the method at runtime, decided by the actual type of the variable.

11.17 What is polymorphism? What is dynamic binding?

11.18 Describe the difference between method matching and method binding.

11.19 Can you assign new int[50], new Integer[50], new String[50], or new Object[50], into a variable of Object[] type?

11.20 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer[] list1 = {12, 24, 55, 1};
        Double[] list2 = {12.4, 24.0, 55.2, 1.0};
        int[] list3 = {1, 2, 3};
        printArray(list1);
        printArray(list2);
        printArray(list3);
    }
}
```

11.21 Show the output of the following code:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new Person().printPerson();
        new Student().printPerson();
    }
}
```

```java
class Student extends Person {
    @Override
    public String getInfo() {
        return "Student";
    }
}
```

```java
class Person {
    public String getInfo() {
        return "Person";
    }
}
```

```java
public void printPerson() {
    System.out.println(getInfo());
}
```

(a)
11.22 Show the output of following program:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new A(3);
    }
}

class A extends B {
    public A(int t) {
        System.out.println("A's constructor is invoked");
    }
}

class B {
    public B() {
        System.out.println("B's constructor is invoked");
    }
}
```

Is the no-arg constructor of Object invoked when `new A(3)` is invoked?

### 11.9 Casting Objects and the `instanceof` Operator

One object reference can be typecast into another object reference. This is called casting object.

In the preceding section, the statement

```java
m(new Student());
```

assigns the object `new Student()` to a parameter of the `Object` type. This statement is equivalent to

```java
Object o = new Student(); // Implicit casting
m(o);
```

The statement `Object o = new Student()`, known as implicit casting, is legal because an instance of `Student` is an instance of `Object`.

Suppose you want to assign the object reference `o` to a variable of the `Student` type using the following statement:

```java
Student b = o;
```

In this case a compile error would occur. Why does the statement `Object o = new Student()` work but `Student b = o` doesn’t? The reason is that a `Student` object is always an instance of `Object`, but an `Object` is not necessarily an instance of `Student`. Even though you can see that `o` is really a `Student` object, the compiler is not clever enough to know it. To tell the compiler that `o` is a `Student` object, use explicit casting. The syntax is similar to the one used for casting among primitive data types. Enclose the target object type in parentheses and place it before the object to be cast, as follows:

```java
Student b = (Student)o; // Explicit casting
```

It is always possible to cast an instance of a subclass to a variable of a superclass (known as upcasting), because an instance of a subclass is always an instance of its superclass. When casting an instance of a superclass to a variable of its subclass (known as downcasting), explicit casting must be used to confirm your intention to the compiler with the
cast notation. For the casting to be successful, you must make sure that the object to be cast is an instance of the subclass. If the superclass object is not an instance of the subclass, a runtime `ClassCastException` occurs. For example, if an object is not an instance of `Student`, it cannot be cast into a variable of `Student`. It is a good practice, therefore, to ensure that the object is an instance of another object before attempting a casting. This can be accomplished by using the `instanceof` operator. Consider the following code:

```java
Object myObject = new Circle();
... // Some lines of code
/** Perform casting if myObject is an instance of Circle */
if (myObject instanceof Circle) {
    System.out.println("The circle diameter is " +
            ((Circle)myObject).getDiameter());
    ...
}
```

You may be wondering why casting is necessary. The variable `myObject` is declared `Object`. The declared type decides which method to match at compile time. Using `myObject.getDiameter()` would cause a compile error, because the `Object` class does not have the `getDiameter` method. The compiler cannot find a match for `myObject.getDiameter()`. Therefore, it is necessary to cast `myObject` into the `Circle` type to tell the compiler that `myObject` is also an instance of `Circle`.

Why not define `myObject` as a `Circle` type in the first place? To enable generic programming, it is a good practice to define a variable with a supertype, which can accept a value of any subtype.

Listing 11.7 demonstrates polymorphism and casting. The program creates two objects (lines 5–6), a circle and a rectangle, and invokes the `displayObject` method to display them (lines 9–10). The `displayObject` method displays the area and diameter if the object is a circle (line 15), and the area if the object is a rectangle (lines 21–22).

```
LISTING 11.7 CastingDemo.java
1 public class CastingDemo {
2     /** Main method */
3     public static void main(String[] args) {
4         // Create and initialize two objects
5         Object object1 = new CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(1);
6         Object object2 = new RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject(1, 1);
7         // Display circle and rectangle
8         displayObject(object1);
9         displayObject(object2);
10    }
11 }
```
11.9 Casting Objects and the \textbf{\texttt{instanceof}} Operator

```java
/** A method for displaying an object */
public static void displayObject(Object object) {
    if (object instanceof CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject) {
        System.out.println("The circle area is " +
            ((CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject)object).getArea());
        System.out.println("The circle diameter is " +
            ((CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject)object).getDiameter());
    }
    else if (object instanceof RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject) {
        System.out.println("The rectangle area is " +
            ((RectangleFromSimpleGeometricObject)object).getArea());
    }
}
```

The circle area is 3.141592653589793
The circle diameter is 2.0
The rectangle area is 1.0

The \textit{displayObject(Object object)} method is an example of generic programming. It can be invoked by passing any instance of \texttt{Object}.

The program uses implicit casting to assign a \texttt{Circle} object to \texttt{object1} and a \texttt{Rectangle} object to \texttt{object2} (lines 5–6), then invokes the \textit{displayObject} method to display the information on these objects (lines 9–10).

In the \textit{displayObject} method (lines 14–26), explicit casting is used to cast the object to \texttt{Circle} if the object is an instance of \texttt{Circle}, and the methods \texttt{getArea} and \texttt{getDiameter} are used to display the area and diameter of the circle.

Casting can be done only when the source object is an instance of the target class. The program uses the \texttt{instanceof} operator to ensure that the source object is an instance of the target class before performing a casting (line 15).

Explicit casting to \texttt{Circle} (lines 17, 19) and to \texttt{Rectangle} (line 24) is necessary because the \texttt{getArea} and \texttt{getDiameter} methods are not available in the \texttt{Object} class.

\textbf{Caution}

The object member access operator (\texttt{.}) precedes the casting operator. Use parentheses to ensure that casting is done before the \texttt{.} operator, as in

\begin{verbatim}
    ((Circle)object).getArea());
\end{verbatim}

Casting a primitive type value is different from casting an object reference. Casting a primitive type value returns a new value. For example:

```java
int age = 45;
byte newAge = (int)age; // A new value is assigned to newAge
```

However, casting an object reference does not create a new object. For example:

```java
Object o = new Circle();
Circle c = (Circle)o; // No new object is created
```

Now reference variables \texttt{o} and \texttt{c} point to the same object.
11.23 Indicate true or false for the following statements:
- You can always successfully cast an instance of a subclass to a superclass.
- You can always successfully cast an instance of a superclass to a subclass.

11.24 For the `GeometricObject` and `Circle` classes in Listings 11.1 and 11.2, answer the following questions:

a. Are the following Boolean expressions true or false?
   ```java
   Circle circle = new Circle(1);
   GeometricObject object1 = new GeometricObject();
   (circle instanceof GeometricObject)
   (object1 instanceof GeometricObject)
   (circle instanceof Circle)
   (object1 instanceof Circle)
   ```

b. Can the following statements be compiled?
   ```java
   Circle circle = new Circle(5);
   GeometricObject object = circle;
   ```

c. Can the following statements be compiled?
   ```java
   GeometricObject object = new GeometricObject();
   Circle circle = (Circle)object;
   ```

11.25 Suppose that `Fruit`, `Apple`, `Orange`, `GoldenDelicious`, and `McIntosh` are defined in the following inheritance hierarchy:

![Inheritance Hierarchy Diagram]

Assume that the following code is given:
```java
Fruit fruit = new GoldenDelicious();
Orange orange = new Orange();
```

Answer the following questions:

a. Is `fruit instanceof Fruit`?
b. Is `fruit instanceof Orange`?
c. Is `fruit instanceof Apple`?
d. Is `fruit instanceof GoldenDelicious`?
e. Is `fruit instanceof McIntosh`?
f. Is `orange instanceof Orange`?
g. Is orange instanceof Fruit?

h. Is orange instanceof Apple?

i. Suppose the method makeAppleCider is defined in the Apple class. Can fruit invoke this method? Can orange invoke this method?

j. Suppose the method makeOrangeJuice is defined in the Orange class. Can orange invoke this method? Can fruit invoke this method?

k. Is the statement Orange p = new Apple() legal?

l. Is the statement McIntosh p = new Apple() legal?

m. Is the statement Apple p = new McIntosh() legal?

11.26 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Object fruit = new Fruit();
        Object apple = (Apple)fruit;
    }
}
class Apple extends Fruit {
}
class Fruit {
}
```

11.10 The Object’s equals Method

Like the toString() method, the equals(Object) method is another method defined in the Object class.

Another method defined in the Object class that is often used is the equals method. Its signature is

```java
public boolean equals(Object o)
```

This method tests whether two objects are equal. The syntax for invoking it is:

```java
object1.equals(object2);
```

The default implementation of the equals method in the Object class is:

```java
public boolean equals(Object obj) {
    return (this == obj);
}
```

This implementation checks whether two reference variables point to the same object using the == operator. You should override this method in your custom class to test whether two distinct objects have the same content.

The equals method is overridden in many classes in the Java API, such as java.lang.String and java.util.Date, to compare whether the contents of two objects are equal. You have already used the equals method to compare two strings in Section 9.2, The String Class. The equals method in the String class is inherited from the Object class and is overridden in the String class to test whether two strings are identical in content.
You can override the `equals` method in the `Circle` class to compare whether two circles are equal based on their radius as follows:

```java
public boolean equals(Object o) {
    if (o instanceof Circle) {
        return radius == ((Circle)o).radius;
    }
    else
        return false;
}
```

**Note**
The `==` comparison operator is used for comparing two primitive data type values or for determining whether two objects have the same references. The `equals` method is intended to test whether two objects have the same contents, provided that the method is overridden in the defining class of the objects. The `==` operator is stronger than the `equals` method, in that the `==` operator checks whether the two reference variables refer to the same object.

**Caution**
Using the signature `equals(SomeClassName obj)` (e.g., `equals(Circle c)`) to override the `equals` method in a subclass is a common mistake. You should use `equals(Object obj)`. See CheckPoint Question 11.28.

### CheckPoint

**11.27** Does every object have a `toString` method and an `equals` method? Where do they come from? How are they used? Is it appropriate to override these methods?

**11.28** When overriding the `equals` method, a common mistake is mistyping its signature in the subclass. For example, the `equals` method is incorrectly written as `equals(Circle circle)`, as shown in (a) in following the code; instead, it should be `equals(Object circle)`, as shown in (b). Show the output of running class `Test` with the `Circle` class in (a) and in (b), respectively.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Object circle1 = new Circle();
        Object circle2 = new Circle();
        System.out.println(circle1.equals(circle2));
    }
}
```

(a)

```java
class Circle {
    double radius;

    public boolean equals(Circle circle) {
        return this.radius == circle.radius;
    }
}
```

(b)

```java
class Circle {
    double radius;

    public boolean equals(Object circle) {
        return this.radius == ((Circle)circle).radius;
    }
}
```

### 11.11 The ArrayList Class

An `ArrayList` object can be used to store a list of objects.

Now we are ready to introduce a very useful class for storing objects. You can create an array to store objects. But, once the array is created, its size is fixed. Java provides the `ArrayList` class.
class, which can be used to store an unlimited number of objects. Figure 11.3 shows some methods in `ArrayList`.

```java
import java.util.ArrayList;

class TestArrayList {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<String> cities = new ArrayList<String>();
        ArrayList<java.util.Date> dates = new ArrayList<java.util.Date>();
    }
}
```

`ArrayList` is known as a generic class with a generic type `E`. You can specify a concrete type to replace `E` when creating an `ArrayList`. For example, the following statement creates an `ArrayList` and assigns its reference to variable `cities`. This `ArrayList` object can be used to store strings.

```
ArrayList<String> cities = new ArrayList<String>();
```

The following statement creates an `ArrayList` and assigns its reference to variable `dates`. This `ArrayList` object can be used to store dates.

```
ArrayList<java.util.Date> dates = new ArrayList<java.util.Date>();
```

In JDK 7, the statement

```
ArrayList<AConcreteType> list = new ArrayList<AConcreteType>();
```

can be simplified by

```
ArrayList<AConcreteType> list = new ArrayList<>();
```

The concrete type is no longer required in the constructor thanks to a feature called type inference. The compiler is able to infer the type from the variable declaration. More discussions on generics including how to define custom generic classes and methods will be introduced in Chapter 21, Generics.

Listing 11.8 gives an example of using `ArrayList` to store objects.
```java
public class TestArrayList {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a list to store cities
        ArrayList<String> cityList = new ArrayList<String>();
        // Add some cities in the list
        cityList.add("London");
        cityList.add("Denver");
        cityList.add("Paris");
        cityList.add("Miami");
        cityList.add("Seoul");
        cityList.add("Tokyo");
        System.out.println("List size? " + cityList.size());
        System.out.println("Is Miami in the list? " + cityList.contains("Miami"));
        System.out.println("The location of Denver in the list? " + cityList.indexOf("Denver"));
        System.out.println("Is the list empty? " + cityList.isEmpty()); // Print false
        // Insert a new city at index 2
        cityList.add(2, "Xian");
        System.out.println("Contains [London, Denver, Xian, Paris, Miami, Seoul, Tokyo]";
        // Remove a city from the list
        cityList.remove("Miami");
        // Remove a city at index 1
        cityList.remove(1);
        System.out.println("Contains [London, Xian, Paris, Seoul, Tokyo]";
        // Display the contents in the list
        System.out.println(cityList.toString());
        // Display the contents in the list in reverse order
        for (int i = cityList.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--)
            System.out.println(cityList.get(i) + " ");
        // Create a list to store two circles
        ArrayList<CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject> list = new ArrayList<CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject>();
        // Add two circles
        list.add(new CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(2));
        list.add(new CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject(3));
        // Display the area of the first circle in the list
        System.out.println("The area of the circle? " + ((CircleFromSimpleGeometricObject)list.get(0)).getArea());
    }
}
```
List size? 6
Is Miami in the list? True
The location of Denver in the list? 1
Is the list empty? false
[London, Xian, Paris, Seoul, Tokyo]
Tokyo Seoul Paris Xian London
The area of the circle? 12.566370614359172

Since the **ArrayList** is in the **java.util** package, it is imported in line 1. The program creates an **ArrayList** of strings using its no-arg constructor and assigns the reference to **cityList** (line 6). The **add** method (lines 9–19) adds strings to the end of list. So, after

```java
cityList.add("London")
```

(line 9), the list contains

```
[London]
```

After **cityList.add("Denver")** (line 11), the list contains

```
[London, Denver]
```

After adding **Paris, Miami, Seoul**, and **Tokyo** (lines 13–19), the list contains

```
```

Invoking **size()** (line 22) returns the size of the list, which is currently 6. Invoking **contains("Miami")** (line 24) checks whether the object is in the list. In this case, it returns **true**, since **Miami** is in the list. Invoking **indexOf("Denver")** (line 26) returns the index of **Denver** in the list, which is 1. If **Denver** were not in the list, it would return -1. The **isEmpty()** method (line 28) checks whether the list is empty. It returns **false**, since the list is not empty.

The statement **cityList.add(2, "Xian")** (line 31) inserts an object into the list at the specified index. After this statement, the list becomes

```
[London, Denver, Xian, Paris, Miami, Seoul, Tokyo]
```

The statement **cityList.remove("Miami")** (line 35) removes the object from the list. After this statement, the list becomes

```
```

The statement **cityList.remove(1)** (line 39) removes the object at the specified index from the list. After this statement, the list becomes

```
[London, Xian, Paris, Seoul, Tokyo]
```

The statement in line 43 is same as

```java
System.out.println(cityList);
```

The **toString()** method returns a string representation of the list in the form of 

```
[e0.toString(), e1.toString(), ..., ek.toString()]
```

where **e0, e1, ..., ek** are the elements in the list.

The **get(index)** method (line 47) returns the object at the specified index.

**ArrayList** objects can be used like arrays, but there are many differences. Table 11.1 lists their similarities and differences.

Once an array is created, its size is fixed. You can access an array element using the square-bracket notation (e.g., **a[index]**). When an **ArrayList** is created, its size is 0.
TABLE 11.1 Differences and Similarities between Arrays and ArrayList

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Array</th>
<th>ArrayList</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating an array/ArrayList</td>
<td>String[] a = new String[10]</td>
<td>ArrayList&lt;String&gt; list = new ArrayList&lt;&gt;();</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessing an element</td>
<td>a[index]</td>
<td>list.get(index);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Updating an element</td>
<td>a[index] = &quot;London&quot;;</td>
<td>list.set(index, &quot;London&quot;);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returning size</td>
<td>a.length</td>
<td>list.size();</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adding a new element</td>
<td>list.add(&quot;London&quot;);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inserting a new element</td>
<td>list.add(index, &quot;London&quot;;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removing an element</td>
<td>list.remove(index);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removing an element</td>
<td>list.remove(Object);</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removing all elements</td>
<td>list.clear();</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You cannot use the get and set methods if the element is not in the list. It is easy to add, insert, and remove elements in a list, but it is rather complex to add, insert, and remove elements in an array. You have to write code to manipulate the array in order to perform these operations.

Suppose you want to create an ArrayList for storing integers. Can you use the following code to create a list?

ArrayList<int> list = new ArrayList<int>();

No. This will not work because the elements stored in an ArrayList must be of an object type. You cannot use a primitive data type such as int to replace a generic type. However, you can create an ArrayList for storing Integer objects as follows:

ArrayList<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();

Listing 11.9 gives a program that prompts the user to enter a sequence of numbers and displays the distinct numbers in the sequence. Assume that the input ends with 0 and 0 is not counted as a number in the sequence.

LISTING 11.9 DistinctNumbers.java

```java
1 import java.util.ArrayList;
2 import java.util.Scanner;
3
4 public class DistinctNumbers {
5   public static void main(String[] args) {
6     ArrayList<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();
7     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
8     System.out.print("Enter integers (input ends with 0): ");
9     int value;
10    do {
11      value = input.nextInt(); // Read a value from the input
12      if (!list.contains(value) && value != 0) {
13        list.add(value); // Add the value if it is not in the list
14      } while (value != 0);
15   }
16 }
```
11.11 The *ArrayList* Class

```
18 // Display the distinct numbers
19  for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++)
20      System.out.print(list.get(i) + " ");
21 }
22 }
```

Enter numbers (input ends with 0): 1 2 3 2 1 6 3 4 5 4 5 1 2 3 0
The distinct numbers are: 1 2 3 6 4 5

The program creates an *ArrayList* for *Integer* objects (line 6) and repeatedly reads a value in the loop (lines 12–17). For each value, if it is not in the list (line 15), add it to the list (line 16). You can rewrite this program using an array to store the elements rather than using an *ArrayList*. However, it is simpler to implement this program using an *ArrayList* for two reasons.

- First, the size of an *ArrayList* is flexible so you don’t have to specify its size in advance. When creating an array, its size must be specified.
- Second, *ArrayList* contains many useful methods. For example, you can test whether an element is in the list using the *contains* method. If you use an array, you have to write additional code to implement this method.

11.29 How do you do the following?

a. Create an *ArrayList* for storing double values?

b. Append an object to a list?

c. Insert an object at the beginning of a list?

d. Find the number of objects in a list?

e. Remove a given object from a list?

f. Remove the last object from the list?

g. Check whether a given object is in a list?

h. Retrieve an object at a specified index from a list?

11.30 Identify the errors in the following code.

```java
ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
list.add("Denver");
list.add("Austin");
list.add(new java.util.Date());
String city = list.get(0);
list.set(3, "Dallas");
System.out.println(list.get(3));
```

11.31 Suppose the *ArrayList* list contains duplicate elements. Does the following code correctly remove the element from the array list? If not, correct the code.

```
for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++)
    list.remove(element);
```

11.32 Explain why the following code displays [1, 3] rather than [2, 3].

```java
ArrayList<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();
list.add(1);
```
11.12 Case Study: A Custom Stack Class

This section designs a stack class for holding objects.

Section 10.9 presented a stack class for storing `int` values. This section introduces a stack class to store objects. You can use an `ArrayList` to implement `Stack`, as shown in Listing 11.10. The UML diagram for the class is shown in Figure 11.4.

```
import java.util.ArrayList;

public class MyStack {
    private ArrayList<Object> list = new ArrayList<Object>();

    public boolean isEmpty() {
        return list.isEmpty();
    }

    public int getSize() {
        return list.size();
    }

    public Object peek() {
        return list.get(getSize() - 1);
    }

    public Object pop() {
        Object o = list.get(getSize() - 1);
        list.remove(getSize() - 1);
        return o;
    }

    public void push(Object o) {
        list.add(o);
    }
}
```

**Figure 11.4** The MyStack class encapsulates the stack storage and provides the operations for manipulating the stack.
An array list is created to store the elements in the stack (line 4). The \texttt{isEmpty()} method (lines 6–8) returns \texttt{list.isEmpty()}. The \texttt{getSize()} method (lines 10–12) returns \texttt{list.size()}. The \texttt{peek()} method (lines 14–16) retrieves the element at the top of the stack without removing it. The end of the list is the top of the stack. The \texttt{pop()} method (lines 18–22) removes the top element from the stack and returns it. The \texttt{push(Object element)} method (lines 24–26) adds the specified element to the stack. The \texttt{toString()} method (lines 28–31) defined in the \texttt{Object} class is overridden to display the contents of the stack by invoking \texttt{list.toString()}. The \texttt{toString()} method implemented in \texttt{ArrayList} returns a string representation of all the elements in an array list.

Design Guide

In Listing 11.10, \texttt{MyStack} contains \texttt{ArrayList}. The relationship between \texttt{MyStack} and \texttt{ArrayList} is \textit{composition}. While inheritance models an \textit{is-a} relationship, composition models a \textit{has-a} relationship. You could also implement \texttt{MyStack} as a subclass of \texttt{ArrayList} (see Programming Exercise 11.4). Using composition is better, however, because it enables you to define a completely new stack class without inheriting the unnecessary and inappropriate methods from \texttt{ArrayList}.

### 11.13 The \textbf{protected} Data and Methods

A \textit{protected} member of a class can be accessed from a subclass.

So far you have used the \texttt{private} and \texttt{public} keywords to specify whether data fields and methods can be accessed from outside of the class. Private members can be accessed only from inside of the class, and public members can be accessed from any other classes.

Often it is desirable to allow subclasses to access data fields or methods defined in the superclass, but not to allow nonsubclasses to access these data fields and methods. To accomplish this, you can use the \texttt{protected} keyword. This way you can access protected data fields or methods in a superclass from its subclasses.

The modifiers \texttt{private}, \texttt{protected}, and \texttt{public} are known as \textit{visibility} or \textit{accessibility modifiers} because they specify how classes and class members are accessed. The visibility of these modifiers increases in this order:

Visibility increases

\begin{align*}
\text{private}, \text{default (no modifier)}, \text{protected}, \text{public}
\end{align*}

Table 11.2 summarizes the accessibility of the members in a class. Figure 11.5 illustrates how a public, protected, default, and private datum or method in class \texttt{C1} can be accessed from a class \texttt{C2} in the same package, from a subclass \texttt{C3} in the same package, from a subclass \texttt{C4} in a different package, and from a class \texttt{C5} in a different package.

Use the \texttt{private} modifier to hide the members of the class completely so that they cannot be accessed directly from outside the class. Use no modifiers (the default) in order to allow the members of the class to be accessed directly from any class within the same package but not from other packages. Use the \texttt{protected} modifier to enable the members of the class to be accessed by the subclasses in any package or classes in the same package. Use the \texttt{public} modifier to enable the members of the class to be accessed by any class.

Your class can be used in two ways: (1) for creating instances of the class and (2) for defining subclasses by extending the class. Make the members \texttt{private} if they are not intended
for use from outside the class. Make the members public if they are intended for the users of the class. Make the fields or methods protected if they are intended for the extenders of the class but not for the users of the class.

The private and protected modifiers can be used only for members of the class. The public modifier and the default modifier (i.e., no modifier) can be used on members of the class as well as on the class. A class with no modifier (i.e., not a public class) is not accessible by classes from other packages.

### Note
A subclass may override a protected method defined in its superclass and change its visibility to public. However, a subclass cannot weaken the accessibility of a method defined in the superclass. For example, if a method is defined as public in the superclass, it must be defined as public in the subclass.
11.33 What modifier should you use on a class so that a class in the same package can access it, but a class in a different package cannot access it?

11.34 What modifier should you use so that a class in a different package cannot access the class, but its subclasses in any package can access it?

11.35 In the following code, the classes A and B are in the same package. If the question marks in (a) are replaced by blanks, can class B be compiled? If the question marks are replaced by private, can class B be compiled? If the question marks are replaced by protected, can class B be compiled?

```java
package p1;

public class A {
    int i;
    void m() {
        ...
    }
}

package p1;

public class B extends A {
    public void m1(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(i);
        m();
    }
}
```

(a) (b)

11.36 In the following code, the classes A and B are in different packages. If the question marks in (a) are replaced by blanks, can class B be compiled? If the question marks are replaced by private, can class B be compiled? If the question marks are replaced by protected, can class B be compiled?

```java
package p1;

public class A {
    int i;
    void m() {
        ...
    }
}

package p2;

public class B extends A {
    public void m1(String[] args) {
        System.out.println(i);
        m();
    }
}
```

(a) (b)

11.14 Preventing Extending and Overriding

Neither a final class nor a final method can be extended. A final data field is a constant.

You may occasionally want to prevent classes from being extended. In such cases, use the final modifier to indicate that a class is final and cannot be a parent class. The Math class is a final class. The String, StringBuilder, and StringBuffer classes are also final classes. For example, the following class A is final and cannot be extended:

```java
public final class A {
    // Data fields, constructors, and methods omitted
}
```
You also can define a method to be final; a final method cannot be overridden by its sub-
classes. For example, the following method \texttt{m} is final and cannot be overridden:

```java
public class Test {
    // Data fields, constructors, and methods omitted
    public final void m() {
        // Do something
    }
}
```

\textbf{Note}

The modifiers \texttt{public, protected, private, static, abstract,} and \texttt{final} are
used on classes and class members (data and methods), except that the \texttt{final} modi-
fier can also be used on local variables in a method. A \texttt{final} local variable is a constant
inside a method.

11.37 How do you prevent a class from being extended? How do you prevent a method
from being overridden?

11.38 Indicate true or false for the following statements:

a. A protected datum or method can be accessed by any class in the same package.

b. A protected datum or method can be accessed by any class in different packages.

c. A protected datum or method can be accessed by its subclasses in any package.

d. A final class can have instances.

e. A final class can be extended.

f. A final method can be overridden.

\textbf{Key Terms}

- actual type 422
- casting objects 425
- constructor chaining 415
- declared type 422
- dynamic binding 422
- inheritance 408
- instanceof 426
- is-a relationship 437
- method overriding 419
- multiple inheritance 414
- override 419
- polymorphism 422
- protected 437
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- subtype 421
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\textbf{Chapter Summary}

1. You can define a new class from an existing class. This is known as class \textit{inheritance}.
The new class is called a \textit{subclass, child class,} or \textit{extended class}. The existing class is
called a \textit{superclass, parent class,} or \textit{base class}. 
2. A constructor is used to construct an instance of a class. Unlike properties and methods, the constructors of a superclass are not inherited in the subclass. They can be invoked only from the constructors of the subclasses, using the keyword `super`.

3. A constructor may invoke an overloaded constructor or its superclass’s constructor. The call must be the first statement in the constructor. If none of them is invoked explicitly, the compiler puts `super()` as the first statement in the constructor, which invokes the superclass’s no-arg constructor.

4. To override a method, the method must be defined in the subclass using the same signature and the same return type as in its superclass.

5. An instance method can be overridden only if it is accessible. Thus, a private method cannot be overridden because it is not accessible outside its own class. If a method defined in a subclass is private in its superclass, the two methods are completely unrelated.

6. Like an instance method, a static method can be inherited. However, a static method cannot be overridden. If a static method defined in the superclass is redefined in a subclass, the method defined in the superclass is hidden.

7. Every class in Java is descended from the `java.lang.Object` class. If no superclass is specified when a class is defined, its superclass is `Object`.

8. If a method’s parameter type is a superclass (e.g., `Object`), you may pass an object to this method of any of the parameter’s subclasses (e.g., `Circle` or `String`). This is known as polymorphism.

9. It is always possible to cast an instance of a subclass to a variable of a superclass, because an instance of a subclass is always an instance of its superclass. When casting an instance of a superclass to a variable of its subclass, explicit casting must be used to confirm your intention to the compiler with the `(SubclassName)` cast notation.

10. A class defines a type. A type defined by a subclass is called a subtype and a type defined by its superclass is called a supertype.

11. When invoking an instance method from a reference variable, the actual type of the variable decides which implementation of the method is used at runtime. This is known as dynamic binding.

12. You can use `obj instanceof AClass` to test whether an object is an instance of a class.

13. You can use the `ArrayList` class to create an object to store a list of objects.

14. You can use the `protected` modifier to prevent the data and methods from being accessed by nonsubclasses from a different package.

15. You can use the `final` modifier to indicate that a class is final and cannot be extended and to indicate that a method is final and cannot be overridden.
Chapter 11  Inheritance and Polymorphism

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Programming Exercises

Sections 11.2–11.4
11.1 (The Triangle class) Design a class named Triangle that extends GeometricObject. The class contains:

- Three double data fields named side1, side2, and side3 with default values 1.0 to denote three sides of the triangle.
- A no-arg constructor that creates a default triangle.
- A constructor that creates a triangle with the specified side1, side2, and side3.
- The accessor methods for all three data fields.
- A method named getArea() that returns the area of this triangle.
- A method named getPerimeter() that returns the perimeter of this triangle.
- A method named toString() that returns a string description for the triangle.

For the formula to compute the area of a triangle, see Programming Exercise 2.15. The toString() method is implemented as follows:

```
return "Triangle: side1 = " + side1 + " side2 = " + side2 + " side3 = " + side3;
```

Draw the UML diagrams for the classes Triangle and GeometricObject and implement the classes. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter three sides of the triangle, a color, and a Boolean value to indicate whether the triangle is filled. The program should create a Triangle object with these sides and set the color and filled properties using the input. The program should display the area, perimeter, color, and true or false to indicate whether it is filled or not.

Sections 11.5–11.14
11.2 (The Person, Student, Employee, Faculty, and Staff classes) Design a class named Person and its two subclasses named Student and Employee. Make Faculty and Staff subclasses of Employee. A person has a name, address, phone number, and email address. A student has a class status (freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior). Define the status as a constant. An employee has an office, salary, and date hired. Use the MyDate class defined in Programming Exercise 10.14 to create an object for date hired. A faculty member has office hours and a rank. A staff member has a title. Override the toString method in each class to display the class name and the person’s name.

Draw the UML diagram for the classes and implement them. Write a test program that creates a Person, Student, Employee, Faculty, and Staff, and invokes their toString() methods.

11.3 (Subclasses of Account) In Programming Exercise 8.7, the Account class was defined to model a bank account. An account has the properties account number, balance, annual interest rate, and date created, and methods to deposit and withdraw funds. Create two subclasses for checking and saving accounts. A checking account has an overdraft limit, but a savings account cannot be overdrawn.
Draw the UML diagram for the classes and then implement them. Write a test program that creates objects of `Account`, `SavingsAccount`, and `CheckingAccount` and invokes their `toString()` methods.

**11.4** *(Maximum element in `ArrayList`)* Write the following method that returns the maximum value in an `ArrayList` of integers. The method returns `null` if the list is `null` or the list size is `0`.

```java
public static Integer max(ArrayList<Integer> list)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a sequence of numbers ending with `0`, and invokes this method to return the largest number in the input.

**11.5** *(The `Course` class)* Rewrite the `Course` class in Listing 10.6. Use an `ArrayList` to replace an array to store students. You should not change the original contract of the `Course` class (i.e., the definition of the constructors and methods should not be changed).

**11.6** *(Use `ArrayList`)* Write a program that creates an `ArrayList` and adds a `Loan` object, a `Date` object, a string, a `JFrame` object, and a `Circle` object to the list, and use a loop to display all the elements in the list by invoking the object’s `toString()` method.

**11.7** *(Shuffle `ArrayList`)* Write the following method that shuffles the elements in an `ArrayList` of integers.

```java
public static void shuffle(ArrayList<Integer> list)
```

**11.8** *(New `Account` class)* An `Account` class was specified in Programming Exercise 8.7. Design a new `Account` class as follows:

- Add a new data field `name` of the `String` type to store the name of the customer.
- Add a new constructor that constructs an account with the specified name, id, and balance.
- Add a new data field named `transactions` whose type is `ArrayList` that stores the transaction for the accounts. Each transaction is an instance of the `Transaction` class. The `Transaction` class is defined as shown in Figure 11.6.

**Figure 11.6** The `Transaction` class describes a transaction for a bank account.
Chapter 11  Inheritance and Polymorphism

- Modify the `withdraw` and `deposit` methods to add a transaction to the `transactions` array list.
- All other properties and methods are the same as in Programming Exercise 8.7.

Write a test program that creates an `Account` with annual interest rate 1.5%, balance 1000, id 1122, and name `George`. Deposit $30, $40, and $50 to the account and withdraw $5, $4, and $2 from the account. Print an account summary that shows account holder name, interest rate, balance, and all transactions.

*11.9  (Largest rows and columns) Write a program that randomly fills in 0s and 1s into an n-by-n matrix, prints the matrix, and finds the rows and columns with the most 1s. (Hint: Use two `ArrayList`s to store the row and column indices with the most 1s.) Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the array size n: 4 Enter
The random array is
0011
0011
1101
1010
The largest row index: 2
The largest column index: 2, 3
```

11.10  (Implement `MyStack` using inheritance) In Listing 11.10, `MyStack` is implemented using composition. Define a new stack class that extends `ArrayList`. Draw the UML diagram for the classes and then implement `MyStack`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter five strings and displays them in reverse order.

11.11  (Sort `ArrayList`) Write the following method that sorts an `ArrayList` of numbers:

```java
public static void sort(ArrayList<Integer> list)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter 5 numbers, stores them in an array list, and displays them in increasing order.

11.12  (Sum `ArrayList`) Write the following method that returns the sum of all numbers in an `ArrayList`:

```java
public static double sum(ArrayList<Double> list)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter 5 numbers, stores them in an array list, and displays their sum.
GUI Basics

Objectives

■ To distinguish between Swing and AWT (§12.2).
■ To describe the Java GUI API hierarchy (§12.3).
■ To create user interfaces using frames, panels, and simple GUI components (§12.4).
■ To understand the role of layout managers and use the `FlowLayout`, `GridLayout`, and `BorderLayout` managers to lay out components in a container (§12.5).
■ To use `JPanel` to group components in a subcontainer (§12.6).
■ To create objects for colors using the `Color` class (§12.7).
■ To create objects for fonts using the `Font` class (§12.8).
■ To apply common features such as borders, tool tips, fonts, and colors on Swing components (§12.9).
■ To decorate the border of GUI components (§12.9).
■ To create image icons using the `ImageIcon` class (§12.10).
■ To create and use buttons using the `JButton` class (§12.11).
■ To create and use check boxes using the `JCheckBox` class (§12.12).
■ To create and use radio buttons using the `JRadioButton` class (§12.13).
■ To create and use labels using the `JLabel` class (§12.14).
■ To create and use text fields using the `JTextField` class (§12.15).
12.1 Introduction

Java GUI is an excellent pedagogical tool for learning object-oriented programming.

The design of the API for Java GUI programming is an excellent example of how the object-oriented principle is applied. This chapter serves two purposes. First, it presents the basics of Java GUI programming. Second, it uses GUI to demonstrate OOP. Specifically, this chapter introduces the framework of the Java GUI API and discusses GUI components and their relationships, containers and layout managers, colors, fonts, borders, image icons, and tool tips. It also introduces some of the most frequently used GUI components.

12.2 Swing vs. AWT

AWT GUI components are replaced by more versatile and stable Swing GUI components.

We used simple GUI examples to demonstrate OOP in Section 8.6.3, Displaying GUI Components. We used the GUI components such as JButton, JLabel, JTextField, JRadioButton, and JComboBox. Why do the GUI component classes have the prefix J? Instead of JButton, why not name it simply Button? In fact, there is a class already named Button in the java.awt package.

When Java was introduced, the GUI classes were bundled in a library known as the Abstract Windows Toolkit (AWT). AWT is fine for developing simple graphical user interfaces, but not for developing comprehensive GUI projects. In addition, AWT is prone to platform-specific bugs. The AWT user-interface components were replaced by a more robust, versatile, and flexible library known as Swing components. Swing components are painted directly on canvases using Java code, except for components that are subclasses of java.awt.Window or java.awt.Panel, which must be drawn using native GUI on a specific platform. Swing components depend less on the target platform and use less of the native GUI resource. For this reason, Swing components that don’t rely on native GUI are referred to as lightweight components, and AWT components are referred to as heavyweight components.

To distinguish new Swing component classes from their AWT counterparts, the Swing GUI component classes are named with a prefixed J. Although AWT components are still supported in Java, it is better to learn how to program using Swing components, because the AWT user-interface components will eventually fade away. This book uses Swing GUI components exclusively.

12.1 Why are the Swing GUI classes named with the prefix J?

12.2 Explain the difference between AWT GUI components and Swing GUI components.

12.3 The Java GUI API

The GUI API contains classes that can be classified into three groups: component classes, container classes, and helper classes.

The hierarchical relationships of the Java GUI API are shown in Figure 12.1. Recall that the triangular arrow denotes the inheritance relationship, the diamond denotes the composition relationship, and the filled diamond denotes the exclusive composition relationship. The object composition relationship was introduced in Section 10.7.

The subclasses of Component are called component classes for creating the user interface. The classes, such as JFrame, JPanel, and JApplet, are called container classes used to contain other components. The classes, such as Graphics, Color, Font, FontMetrics, and Dimension, are called helper classes used to support GUI components.
12.3 The Java GUI API

Figure 12.1 Java GUI programming utilizes the classes shown in this hierarchical diagram.

Note
The JFrame, JApplet, JDialog, and JComponent classes and their subclasses are grouped in the javax.swing package. Applet is in the java.applet class. All the other classes in Figure 12.1 are grouped in the java.awt package.

12.3.1 Component Classes
An instance of Component can be displayed on the screen. Component is the root class of all the user-interface classes including container classes, and JComponent is the root class of all the lightweight Swing components. Both Component and JComponent are abstract classes (abstract classes will be introduced in Chapter 15). For now, all you need to know is that abstract classes are the same as classes except that you cannot create instances using the new operator. For example, you cannot use new JComponent() to create an instance of JComponent. However, you can use the constructors of concrete subclasses of JComponent to create JComponent instances. It is important to become familiar with the class inheritance hierarchy. For example, the following statements all display true:

```java
JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
System.out.println(jbtOK instanceof JButton);
System.out.println(jbtOK instanceof JComponent);
System.out.println(jbtOK instanceof Container);
System.out.println(jbtOK instanceof Component);
System.out.println(jbtOK instanceof Object);
```

12.3.2 Container Classes
An instance of Container can hold instances of Component. A container is called a top-level container if it can be displayed without being embedded in another container. Window, Frame, Dialog, JFrame, and JDialog are top-level containers. Window, Panel, Applet, Frame, and Dialog are the container classes for AWT components. To work with Swing components, use Container, JFrame, JDialog, JApplet, and JComponent, as described in Table 12.1.
### Table 12.1  GUI Container Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Container Class</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.Container</td>
<td>is used to hold components. Frames, panels, and applets are its subclasses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javax.swing.JFrame</td>
<td>is a top-level container for holding other Swing user-interface components in Java GUI applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javax.swing.JPanel</td>
<td>is an invisible container for grouping user-interface components. Panels can be nested. You can place panels inside another panel. JPanel is also often used as a canvas to draw graphics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javax.swing.JApplet</td>
<td>is a base class for creating a Java applet using Swing components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javax.swing.JDialog</td>
<td>is a popup window generally used as a temporary window to receive additional information from the user or to provide notification to the user.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 12.3.3 GUI Helper Classes

The helper classes, such as Graphics, Color, Font, FontMetrics, Dimension, and LayoutManager, are not subclasses of Component. They are used to describe the properties of GUI components, such as graphics context, colors, fonts, and dimension, as described in Table 12.2.

### Table 12.2  GUI Helper Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helper Class</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.Graphics</td>
<td>is an abstract class that provides the methods for drawing strings, lines, and simple shapes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.Color</td>
<td>deals with the colors of GUI components. For example, you can specify background or foreground colors in components like JFrame and JPanel, or you can specify colors of lines, shapes, and strings in drawings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.Font</td>
<td>specifies fonts for the text and drawings on GUI components. For example, you can specify the font type (e.g., SansSerif), style (e.g., bold), and size (e.g., 24 points) for the text on a button.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.FontMetrics</td>
<td>is an abstract class used to get the properties of the fonts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.Dimension</td>
<td>encapsulates the width and height of a component (in integer precision) in a single object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java.awt.LayoutManager</td>
<td>specifies how components are arranged in a container.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Note

The helper classes are in the java.awt package. The Swing components do not replace all the classes in the AWT, only the AWT GUI component classes (e.g., Button, TextField, TextArea). The AWT helper classes are still useful in GUI programming.

#### Check Point

12.3 Which class is the root of the Java GUI component classes? Is a container class a subclass of Component? Which class is the root of the Swing GUI component classes?

12.4 Which of the following statements have syntax errors?

```java
Component c1 = new Component();
JComponent c2 = new JComponent();
Component c3 = new JButton();
JComponent c4 = new JButton();
```
12.4 Frames

A frame is a window for holding other GUI components.

To create a user interface, you need to create either a frame or an applet to hold the user-interface components. This section introduces frames. Creating Java applets will be introduced in Chapter 18.

12.4.1 Creating a Frame

To create a frame, use the `JFrame` class, as shown in Figure 12.2.

```java
import javax.swing.JFrame;

public class MyFrame {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    JFrame frame = new JFrame("MyFrame"); // Create a frame
    frame.setSize(400, 300); // Set the frame size
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center a frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true); // Display the frame
  }
}
```

The program in Listing 12.1 creates a frame.

Figure 12.2

The `JFrame` class is used to create a window for displaying GUI components.

The frame is not displayed until the `frame.setVisible(true)` method is invoked. 
`frame.setSize(400, 300)` specifies that the frame is 400 pixels wide and 300 pixels high. If the setSize method is not used, the frame will be sized to display just the title bar. Since the `setSize` and `setVisible` methods are both defined in the `Component` class, they are inherited by the `JFrame` class. Later you will see that these methods are also useful in many other subclasses of `Component`.

When you run the `MyFrame` program, a window will be displayed on the screen (see Figure 12.3a).

Invoking `frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null)` (line 7) centers the frame on the screen. Invoking `frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE)` (line 8) tells the program to terminate when the frame is closed. If this statement is not used, the program does not terminate when the frame is closed. In that case, you have to stop the program by pressing `Ctrl+C` at the DOS prompt window in Windows or stop the process by using the kill command.
in UNIX. If you run the program from an IDE such as Eclipse or NetBeans, you need to click the red **Terminate** button in the Console pane to stop the program.

Note: Recall that a pixel is the smallest unit of space available for drawing on the screen. You can think of a pixel as a small rectangle and think of the screen as paved with pixels. The *resolution* specifies the number of pixels in horizontal and vertical dimensions of the screen. The more pixels the screen has, the higher the screen’s resolution. The higher the resolution, the finer the detail you can see.

**Note**: You should invoke the `setSize(w, h)` method before invoking `setLocationRelativeTo(null)` to center the frame.

### 12.4.2 Adding Components to a Frame

The frame shown in Figure 12.3a is empty. Using the `add` method, you can add components to the frame, as shown in Listing 12.2.

#### Listing 12.2  MyFrameWithComponents.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class MyFrameWithComponents {

  public static void main(String[] args) {

    // Add a button to the frame
    JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
    frame.add(jbtOK);

    // Set size
    frame.setSize(400, 300);

    // Exit upon closing window
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);

    // Center the frame
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);

    // Set visible
    frame.setVisible(true);
  }
}
```

Each `JFrame` contains a *content pane*, which is an instance of `java.awt.Container`. The GUI components such as buttons are placed in the content pane in a frame. In earlier versions of Java, you had to use the `getContentPane` method in the `JFrame` class to return the content pane of the frame, then invoke the content pane’s `add` method to place a component in the content pane, as follows:

```java
java.awt.Container container = frame.getContentPane();
container.add(jbtOK);
```
This was cumbersome. Versions of Java since Java 5 allow you to place components in the content pane by invoking a frame’s `add` method, as follows:

```java
frame.add(jbtOK);
```

This feature is called **content-pane delegation**. Strictly speaking, a component is added to the content pane of a frame. For simplicity, we say that a component is added to a frame.

In Listing 12.2, an object of `JButton` was created using `new JButton("OK")`, and this object was added to the content pane of the frame (line 9).

The `add(Component comp)` method defined in the `Container` class adds an instance of `Component` to the container. Since `JButton` is a subclass of `Component`, an instance of `JButton` is also an instance of `Component`. To remove a component from a container, use the `remove` method. The following statement removes the button from the container:

```java
container.remove(jbtOK);
```

When you run the program `MyFrameWithComponents`, the window will be displayed as in Figure 12.3b. The button is always centered in the frame and occupies the entire frame no matter how you resize it. This is because components are put in the frame by the content pane’s layout manager, and the default layout manager for the content pane places the button in the center. In the next section, you will use several different layout managers to place components in the desired locations.

### 12.5 Layout Managers

Each container contains a layout manager, which is an object responsible for laying out the GUI components in the container.

In many other window systems, the user-interface components are arranged by using hard-coded pixel measurements. For example, when placing a button at location `(10, 10)` in a window using hard-coded pixel measurements, the user interface might look fine on one system but be unusable on another. Java’s **layout managers** provide a level of abstraction that automatically maps your user interface on all window systems.

The Java GUI components are placed in containers, where they are arranged by the container’s layout manager. In the preceding program, you did not specify where to place the OK button in the frame, but Java knows where to place it, because the layout manager works behind the scenes to place components in the correct locations. A layout manager is created using a layout manager class.

Layout managers are set in containers using the `setLayout(aLayoutManager)` method. For example, you can use the following statements to create an instance of `XLayout` and set it in a container:

```java
LayoutManager layoutManager = new XLayout();
container.setLayout(layoutManager);
```

This section introduces three basic layout managers: `FlowLayout`, `GridLayout`, and `BorderLayout`.
12.5.1 FlowLayout

FlowLayout is the simplest layout manager. The components are arranged in the container from left to right in the order in which they were added. When one row is filled, a new row is started. You can specify the way the components are aligned by using one of three constants: FlowLayout.RIGHT, FlowLayout.CENTER, or FlowLayout.LEFT. You can also specify the gap between components in pixels. The class diagram for FlowLayout is shown in Figure 12.4.

Listing 12.3 gives a program that demonstrates flow layout. The program adds three labels and text fields to the frame with a FlowLayout manager, as shown in Figure 12.5.

```
import javax.swing.JLabel;
import javax.swing.JTextField;
import javax.swing.JFrame;
import java.awt.FlowLayout;

public class ShowFlowLayout extends JFrame {

    public ShowFlowLayout() {
        // Set FlowLayout, aligned left with horizontal gap 10
        // and vertical gap 20 between components
        setLayout(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT, 10, 20));

        // Add labels and text fields to the frame
        add(new JLabel("First Name"));
        add(new JTextField(8));
        add(new JLabel("MI"));
        add(new JTextField(1));
        add(new JLabel("Last Name"));
        add(new JTextField(8));
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ShowFlowLayout frame = new ShowFlowLayout();
        frame.setTitle("ShowFlowLayout");
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
    }
}
```
12.5 Layout Managers

```java
26      frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
27      frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
28      frame.setVisible(true);
29  }
30 }
```

This example creates a program using a style different from the programs in the preceding section, where frames were created using the `JFrame` class. This example creates a class named `ShowFlowLayout` that extends the `JFrame` class (line 6). The `main` method in this program creates an instance of `ShowFlowLayout` (line 23). The constructor of `ShowFlowLayout` constructs and places the components in the frame. This is the preferred style of creating GUI applications—for three reasons:

- Creating a GUI application means creating a frame, so it is natural to define a frame to extend `JFrame`.
- The frame may be further extended to add new components or functions.
- The class can be easily reused. For example, you can create multiple frames by creating multiple instances of the class.

Using one style consistently makes programs easy to read. From now on, most of the GUI main classes will extend the `JFrame` class. The constructor of the main class constructs the user interface. The `main` method creates an instance of the main class and then displays the frame.

Will the program work if line 23 is replaced by the following code?

```java
    JFrame frame = new ShowFlowLayout();
```

Yes. The program will still work because `ShowFlowLayout` is a subclass of `JFrame` and the methods `setTitle`, `setSize`, `setLocationRelativeTo`, `setDefaultCloseOperation`, and `setVisible` (lines 24–28) are all available in the `JFrame` class.

In this example, the `FlowLayout` manager is used to place components in a frame. If you resize the frame, the components are automatically rearranged to fit. In Figure 12.5a, the first row has three components, but in Figure 12.5b, the first row has four components, because the width has been increased.

If you replace the `setLayout` statement (line 10) with `setLayout(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.RIGHT, 0, 0))`, all the rows of buttons will be right aligned with no gaps.

An anonymous `FlowLayout` object was created in the statement (line 10):

```java
    setLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT, 10, 20));
```

which is equivalent to:

```java
    FlowLayout layout = new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT, 10, 20);
    setLayout(layout);
```

![Figure 12.5](image.png) The components are added by the `FlowLayout` manager to fill in the rows in the container one after another.
This code creates an explicit reference to the object `layout` of the `FlowLayout` class. The explicit reference is not necessary, because the object is not directly referenced in the `ShowFlowLayout` class.

Suppose you add the same button to the frame ten times; will ten buttons appear in the frame? No, a GUI component such as a button can be added to only one container and only once in a container. Adding a button to a container multiple times is the same as adding it once.

**Note**

GUI components cannot be shared by containers, because only one GUI component can appear in only one container at a time. Therefore, the relationship between a component and a container is the composition denoted by a filled diamond, as shown in Figure 12.1.

**Caution**

Do not forget to put the `new` operator before a layout manager class when setting a layout style—for example, `setLayout(new FlowLayout())`.

**Note**

The constructor `ShowFlowLayout()` does not explicitly invoke the constructor `JFrame()`, but the constructor `JFrame()` is invoked implicitly. See Section 11.3.2, Constructor Chaining.

### 12.5.2 GridLayout

The `GridLayout` manager arranges components in a grid (matrix) formation. The components are placed in the grid from left to right, starting with the first row, then the second, and so on, in the order in which they are added. The class diagram for `GridLayout` is shown in Figure 12.6.

You can specify the number of rows and columns in the grid. The basic rules are as follows:

- The number of rows or the number of columns can be zero, but not for both. If one is zero and the other is nonzero, the nonzero dimension is fixed, while the zero dimension is determined dynamically by the layout manager. For example, if you specify zero rows and three columns for a grid that has ten components, `GridLayout` creates three fixed columns of four rows, with the last row containing one component. If you specify three rows and zero columns for a grid that has ten components, `GridLayout` creates three fixed rows of four columns, with the last row containing two components.
If both the number of rows and the number of columns are nonzero, the number of rows is the dominating parameter; that is, the number of rows is fixed, and the layout manager dynamically calculates the number of columns. For example, if you specify three rows and three columns for a grid that has ten components, GridLayout creates three fixed rows of four columns, with the last row containing two components.

Listing 12.4 gives a program that demonstrates grid layout. The program is similar to the one in Listing 12.3, except that it adds three labels and three text fields to the frame of GridLayout instead of FlowLayout, as shown in Figure 12.7.

```java
import javax.swing.JLabel;
import javax.swing.JTextField;
import javax.swing.JFrame;
import java.awt.GridLayout;

public class ShowGridLayout extends JFrame {
  public ShowGridLayout() {
    // Set GridLayout, 3 rows, 2 columns, and gaps 5 between
    // components horizontally and vertically
    setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 2, 5, 5));

    // Add labels and text fields to the frame
    add(new JLabel("First Name"));
    add(new JTextField(8));
    add(new JLabel("MI"));
    add(new JTextField(1));
    add(new JLabel("Last Name"));
    add(new JTextField(8));
  }

  /** Main method */
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    ShowGridLayout frame = new ShowGridLayout();
    frame.setTitle("ShowGridLayout");
    frame.setSize(200, 125);
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
  }
}
```

If you resize the frame, the layout of the components remains unchanged (i.e., the number of rows and columns does not change, and the gaps don’t change either).

All components are given equal size in the container of GridLayout.

Replacing the setLayout statement (line 10) with setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 10)) would still yield three rows and two columns. The columns parameter is ignored.
because the `rows` parameter is nonzero. The actual number of columns is calculated by the layout manager.

What would happen if the `setLayout` statement (line 10) were replaced with `setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 2))` or with `setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2))`? Please try it yourself.

**Note**
In `FlowLayout` and `GridLayout`, the order in which the components are added to the container is important. The order determines the location of the components in the container.

### 12.5.3 BorderLayout

The `BorderLayout` manager divides a container into five areas: East, South, West, North, and Center. Components are added to a `BorderLayout` by using `add(Component, index)`, where `index` is a constant `BorderLayout.EAST`, `BorderLayout.SOUTH`, `BorderLayout.WEST`, `BorderLayout.NORTH`, or `BorderLayout.CENTER`. The class diagram for `BorderLayout` is shown in Figure 12.8.

![Figure 12.8](image)

The horizontal gap between the components (default: 0).
The vertical gap between the components (default: 0).

The `get` and `set` methods for these data fields are provided in the class, but omitted in the UML diagram for brevity.

The components are laid out according to their preferred sizes and their placement in the container. The North and South components can stretch horizontally; the East and West components can stretch vertically; the Center component can stretch both horizontally and vertically to fill any empty space.

Listing 12.5 gives a program that demonstrates border layout. The program adds five buttons labeled `East`, `South`, `West`, `North`, and `Center` to the frame with a `BorderLayout` manager, as shown in Figure 12.9.

![Figure 12.9](image)

**Listing 12.5** ShowBorderLayout.java

```java
1  import javax.swing.JButton;
2  import javax.swing.JFrame;
3  import java.awt.BorderLayout;
```
public class ShowBorderLayout extends JFrame {
    public ShowBorderLayout() {
        // Set BorderLayout with horizontal gap 5 and vertical gap 10
        setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 10));
        // Add buttons to the frame
        add(new JButton("East"), BorderLayout.EAST);
        add(new JButton("South"), BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        add(new JButton("West"), BorderLayout.WEST);
        add(new JButton("North"), BorderLayout.NORTH);
        add(new JButton("Center"), BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ShowBorderLayout frame = new ShowBorderLayout();
        frame.setTitle("ShowBorderLayout");
        frame.setSize(300, 200);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

The buttons are added to the frame (lines 11–15). Note that the add method for BorderLayout is different from the one for FlowLayout and GridLayout. With BorderLayout, you specify where to put the components.

It is unnecessary to place components to occupy all the areas. If you remove the East button from the program and rerun it, you will see that the Center button stretches rightward to occupy the East area.

Note
BorderLayout interprets the absence of an index specification as BorderLayout.CENTER. For example, add(component) is the same as add(Component, BorderLayout.CENTER). If you add two components to a container of BorderLayout, as follows,

    container.add(component1);
    container.add(component2);

only the last component is displayed.

12.5.4 Properties of Layout Managers
Layout managers have properties that can be changed dynamically.

- FlowLayout has alignment, hgap, and vgap properties. You can use the setAlignment, setHgap, and setVgap methods to specify the alignment and the horizontal and vertical gaps.
- GridLayout has the rows, columns, hgap, and vgap properties. You can use the setRows, setColumns, setHgap, and setVgap methods to specify the number of rows, the number of columns, and the horizontal and vertical gaps.
- BorderLayout has the hgap and vgap properties. You can use the setHgap and setVgap methods to specify the horizontal and vertical gaps.

In the preceding sections an anonymous layout manager is used because the properties of a layout manager do not change once it is created. If you have to change the properties of a layout manager dynamically, the layout manager must be explicitly referenced by a variable. You
can then change the properties of the layout manager through the variable. For example, the following code creates a layout manager and sets its properties:

```java
// Create a layout manager
FlowLayout flowLayout = new FlowLayout();

// Set layout properties
flowLayout.setAlignment(FlowLayout.RIGHT);
flowLayout.setHgap(10);
flowLayout.setVgap(20);
```

12.6 Will the program work if `ShowFlowLayout` in line 23 in Listing 12.3 is replaced by `JFrame`?

Will the program work if `ShowGridLayout` in line 23 in Listing 12.4 is replaced by `JFrame`?

Will the program work if `ShowBorderLayout` line 20 in Listing 12.5 is replaced by `JFrame`?

12.7 Why do you need to use layout managers? What is the default layout manager for a frame? How do you add a component to a frame?

12.8 Describe `FlowLayout`. How do you create a `FlowLayout` manager? How do you add a component to a `FlowLayout` container? Is there a limit to the number of components that can be added to a `FlowLayout` container? What are the properties for setting the horizontal and vertical gaps between the components in the container? Can you specify alignment?

12.9 Describe `GridLayout`. How do you create a `GridLayout` manager? How do you add a component to a `GridLayout` container? Is there a limit to the number of components that can be added to a `GridLayout` container? What are the properties for setting the horizontal and vertical gaps between the components in the container?

12.10 Describe `BorderLayout`. How do you create a `BorderLayout` manager? How do you add a component to a `BorderLayout` container? What are the properties for setting the horizontal and vertical gaps between the components in the container?

12.11 The following program is supposed to display a button in a frame, but nothing is displayed. What is the problem?

```java
public class Test extends javax.swing.JFrame {
  public Test() {
    add(new javax.swing.JButton("OK"));
  }
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    javax.swing.JFrame frame = new javax.swing(JFrame);
    frame.setSize(100, 200);
    frame.setVisible(true);
  }
}
```

12.6 Using Panels as Subcontainers

A container can be placed inside another container. Panels can be used as subcontainers to group GUI components to achieve the desired layout.

Suppose that you want to place ten buttons and a text field in a frame. The buttons are placed in grid formation, but the text field is placed on a separate row. It is difficult to achieve the desired look by placing all the components in a single container. With Java GUI programming, you can divide a window into panels. Panels act as subcontainers to group user-interface components. You add the buttons in one panel, then add the panel to the frame.
The Swing version of panel is `JPanel`. You can use `new JPanel()` to create a panel with a default `FlowLayout` manager or `new JPanel(LayoutManager)` to create a panel with the specified layout manager. Use the `add(Component)` method to add a component to the panel. For example, the following code creates a panel and adds a button to it:

```java
JPanel p = new JPanel();
p.add(new JButton("OK"));
```

Panels can be placed inside a frame or inside another panel. The following statement places panel `p` in frame `f`:

```java
f.add(p);
```

Listing 12.6 gives an example that demonstrates using panels as subcontainers. The program creates a user interface for a microwave oven, as shown in Figure 12.10.

```
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestPanels extends JFrame {

    public TestPanels() {

        // Create panel p1 for the buttons and set GridLayout
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
        p1.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 3));

        // Add buttons to the panel
        for (int i = 1; i <= 9; i++) {
            p1.add(new JButton("" + i));
        }
        p1.add(new JButton("" + 0));
        p1.add(new JButton("Start"));
        p1.add(new JButton("Stop"));

        // Create panel p2 to hold a text field and p1
        JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new BorderLayout());
        p2.add(new JTextField("Time to be displayed here"),
               BorderLayout.NORTH);
        p2.add(p1, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Add contents to the frame
        add(p2, BorderLayout.EAST);
        add(new JButton("Food to be placed here"),
            BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
}
```

Figure 12.10 The program uses panels to organize components.

**Listing 12.6 TestPanels.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestPanels extends JFrame {

    public TestPanels() {

        // Create panel p1 for the buttons and set GridLayout
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
        p1.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 3));

        // Add buttons to the panel
        for (int i = 1; i <= 9; i++) {
            p1.add(new JButton("" + i));
        }
        p1.add(new JButton("" + 0));
        p1.add(new JButton("Start"));
        p1.add(new JButton("Stop"));

        // Create panel p2 to hold a text field and p1
        JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new BorderLayout());
        p2.add(new JTextField("Time to be displayed here"),
               BorderLayout.NORTH);
        p2.add(p1, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Add contents to the frame
        add(p2, BorderLayout.EAST);
        add(new JButton("Food to be placed here"),
            BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
}
```
/** Main method */

public static void main(String[] args) {
    TestPanels frame = new TestPanels();
    frame.setTitle("The Front View of a Microwave Oven");
    frame.setSize(400, 250);
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

The `setLayout` method is defined in `java.awt.Container`. Since `JPanel` is a subclass of `Container`, you can use `setLayout` to set a new layout manager in the panel (line 8). Lines 7–8 can be replaced by `JPanel p1 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(4, 3))`.

To achieve the desired layout, the program uses panel `p1` of `GridLayout` to group the number buttons, the `Stop` button, and the `Start` button, and panel `p2` of `BorderLayout` to hold a text field in the north and `p1` in the center. The button representing the food is placed in the center of the frame, and `p2` is placed in the east of the frame.

The statement (lines 21–22)

    p2.add(new JTextField("Time to be displayed here"),
          BorderLayout.NORTH);

creates an instance of `JTextField` and adds it to `p2`. `JTextField` is a GUI component that can be used for user input as well as to display values.

**Note**

It is worthwhile to note that the `Container` class is the superclass for GUI component classes, such as `JButton`. Every GUI component is a container. In theory, you could use the `setLayout` method to set the layout in a button and add components to a button, because all the public methods in the `Container` class are inherited by `JButton`, but for practical reasons you should not use buttons as containers.

12.12 How do you create a panel with a specified layout manager?

12.13 What is the default layout manager for a `JPanel`? How do you add a component to a `JPanel`?

12.14 Can you use the `setTitle` method in a panel? What is the purpose of using a panel?

12.15 Since a GUI component class such as `JButton` is a subclass of `Container`, can you add components to a button?

### 12.7 The Color Class

Each GUI component has background and foreground colors. Colors are objects created from the `Color` class.

You can set colors for GUI components by using the `java.awt.Color` class. Colors are made of red, green, and blue components, each represented by an `int` value that describes its intensity, ranging from 0 (darkest shade) to 255 (lightest shade). This is known as the RGB model.

You can create a color using the following constructor:

    public Color(int r, int g, int b);

in which `r`, `g`, and `b` specify a color by its red, green, and blue components. For example,

    Color color = new Color(128, 100, 100);

**Note**

The arguments `r`, `g`, `b` are between 0 and 255. If a value beyond this range is passed to the argument, an `IllegalArgumentException` will occur.
You can use the `setBackground(Color c)` and `setForeground(Color c)` methods defined in the `java.awt.Component` class to set a component's background and foreground colors. Here is an example of setting the background and foreground of a button:

```java
JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
jbtOK.setBackground(color);
jbtOK.setForeground(new Color(100, 1, 1));
```

Alternatively, you can use one of the 13 standard colors (BLACK, BLUE, CYAN, DARK_GRAY, GRAY, GREEN, LIGHT_GRAY, MAGENTA, ORANGE, PINK, RED, WHITE, and YELLOW) defined as constants in `java.awt.Color`. The following code, for instance, sets the foreground color of a button to red:

```java
jbtOK.setForeground(Color.RED);
```

12.16 How do you create a color? What is wrong about creating a `Color` using `new Color(400, 200, 300)`? Which of two colors is darker, `new Color(10, 0, 0)` or `new Color(200, 0, 0)`?

12.17 How do you create a `Color` object with a random color?

12.18 How do you set a button object `jbtOK` with blue background?

12.8 The Font Class

Each GUI component has the font property. Fonts are objects created from the `Font` class.

You can create a font using the `java.awt.Font` class and set fonts for the components using the `setFont` method in the `Component` class.

The constructor for `Font` is:

```java
public Font(String name, int style, int size);
```

You can choose a font name from SansSerif, Serif, Monospaced, Dialog, and DialogInput, choose a style from Font.PLAIN (0), Font.BOLD (1), Font.ITALIC (2), and Font.BOLD + Font.ITALIC (3), and specify a font size of any positive integer. For example, the following statements create two fonts and set one font to a button.

```java
Font font1 = new Font("SansSerif", Font.BOLD, 16);
Font font2 = new Font("Serif", Font.BOLD + Font.ITALIC, 12);
```

```java
JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
jbtOK.setFont(font1);
```

Tip

If your system supports other fonts, such as “Times New Roman,” you can use the font to create a `Font` object. To find the fonts available on your system, you need to obtain an instance of `java.awt.GraphicsEnvironment` using its static method `getLocalGraphicsEnvironment()`. `GraphicsEnvironment` is an abstract class that describes the graphics environment on a particular system. You can use its `getAllFonts()` method to obtain all the available fonts on the system and its `getAvailableFontFamilyNames()` method to obtain the names of all the available fonts. For example, the following statements print all the available font names in the system:

```java
GraphicsEnvironment e =
    GraphicsEnvironment.getLocalGraphicsEnvironment();
String[] fontnames = e.getAvailableFontFamilyNames();
for (int i = 0; i < fontnames.length; i++)
    System.out.println(fontnames[i]);
```
12.19 How do you create a Font object with font name Courier, size 20, and style bold?

12.20 How do you find all available fonts on your system?

12.9 Common Features of Swing GUI Components

GUI components have common features. They are defined in the superclasses Component, Container, and JComponent.

So far in this chapter you have used several GUI components (e.g., JFrame, Container, JPanel, JButton, JLabel, and JTextField). Many more GUI components will be introduced in this book. It is important to understand the common features of Swing GUI components. The Component class is the root for all GUI components and containers. All Swing GUI components (except JFrame, JApplet, and JDialog) are subclasses of JComponent, as shown in Figure 12.1. Figure 12.11 lists some frequently used methods in Component, Container, and JComponent for manipulating properties such as font, color, mouse cursor, size, tool tip text, and border.

A tool tip is text displayed on a component when you move the mouse onto the component. It is often used to describe the function of a component.

### Figure 12.11
All the Swing GUI components inherit the public methods from Component, Container, and JComponent.
You can set a border for any object of the `JComponent` class. Swing has several types of borders. To create a titled border, use `new TitledBorder(String title)`. To create a line border, use `new LineBorder(Color color, int width)`, where `width` specifies the thickness of the line.

Listing 12.7 is an example to demonstrate Swing common features. The example creates a panel `p1` to hold three buttons (line 8) and a panel `p2` to hold two labels (line 26), as shown in Figure 12.12. The background of the button `jbtLeft` is set to white (line 12) and the foreground of the button `jbtCenter` is set to green (line 13). The tool tip of the button `jbtRight` is set in line 14. Titled borders are set on panels `p1` and `p2` (lines 18, 37) and line borders are set on the labels (lines 33–34).

![Image of Swing GUI Components]

**Figure 12.12** The font, color, border, and tool tip text are set in the message panel.

The mouse cursor is set to the cross-hair shape in `p1` (line 19). The `Cursor` class contains the constants for specifying the cursor shape such as `DEFAULT_CURSOR` ( ), `CROSSHAIR_CURSOR` ( ), `HAND_CURSOR` ( ), `MOVE_CURSOR` ( ), `TEXT_CURSOR` ( ), and so on. A `Cursor` object for the cross-hair cursor is created using `new Cursor(Cursor.CROSSHAIR_CURSOR)` (line 19) and this cursor is set for `p1`. Note that the default mouse cursor is still used in `p2`, because the program does not explicitly set a mouse cursor for `p2`.

**Listing 12.7 TestSwingCommonFeatures.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class TestSwingCommonFeatures extends JFrame {
    public TestSwingCommonFeatures() {
        // Create a panel to group three buttons
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT, 2, 2));
        JButton jbtLeft = new JButton("Left");
        JButton jbtCenter = new JButton("Center");
        JButton jbtRight = new JButton("Right");
        jbtLeft.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
        jbtCenter.setForeground(Color.GREEN);
        jbtRight.setToolTipText("This is the Right button");
        p1.add(jbtLeft);
        p1.add(jbtCenter);
        p1.add(jbtRight);
        p1.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Three Buttons"));
        p1.setCursor(new Cursor(Cursor.CROSSHAIR_CURSOR));
        // Create a font and a line border
        Font largeFont = new Font("TimesRoman", Font.BOLD, 20);
        Border lineBorder = new LineBorder(Color.BLACK, 2);
```
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24 // Create a panel to group two labels
25 JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(1, 2, 5, 5));
26 JLabel jlblRed = new JLabel("Red");
27 JLabel jlblOrange = new JLabel("Orange");

29 jlblRed.setForeground(Color.RED);
30 jlblOrange.setForeground(Color.ORANGE);
31 jlblRed.setFont(largeFont);
32 jlblOrange.setFont(largeFont);
33 jlblRed.setBorder(lineBorder);
34 jlblOrange.setBorder(lineBorder);
35 p2.add(jlblRed);
36 p2.add(jlblOrange);
37 p2.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Two Labels"));

39 // Add two panels to the frame
40 setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1, 5, 5));
41 add(p1);
42 add(p2);
43 }
44
45 public static void main(String[] args) {
46 // Create a frame and set its properties
47 JFrame frame = new TestSwingCommonFeatures();
48 frame.setTitle("TestSwingCommonFeatures");
49 frame.setSize(300, 150);
50 frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
51 frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
52 frame.setVisible(true);
53 }
54 }

Note
The same property may have different default values in different components. For example, the visible property in JFrame is false by default, but it is true in every instance of JComponent (e.g. JButton and JLabel) by default. To display a JFrame, you have to invoke setVisible(true) to set the visible property true, but you don’t have to set this property for a JButton or a JLabel, because it is already true. To make a JButton or a JLabel invisible, you can invoke setVisible(false). Please run the program and see the effect after inserting the following two statements in line 38:

jbtLeft.setVisible(false);
jlblRed.setVisible(false);

Check Point
12.21 How do you set background color, foreground color, font, and tool tip text on a Swing GUI component?

MyProgrammingLab
12.22 Why is the tool tip text not displayed in the following code?

1 import javax.swing.*;
2 3 public class Test extends JFrame {
4  private JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
5 6 public static void main(String[] args) {
7  // Create a frame and set its properties
8  JFrame frame = new Test();
9  frame.setTitle("Logic Error");
10  frame.setSize(200, 100);
11  frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
12.10 Image Icons

Image icons can be displayed in many GUI components. Image icons are objects created using the `ImageIcon` class.

An icon is a fixed-size picture; typically it is small and used to decorate components. Images are normally stored in image files. Java currently supports three image formats: GIF (Graphics Interchange Format), JPEG (Joint Photographic Experts Group), and PNG (Portable Network Graphics). The image file names for these types end with `.gif`, `.jpg`, and `.png`, respectively. If you have a bitmap file or image files in other formats, you can use image-processing utilities to convert them into the GIF, JPEG, or PNG format for use in Java.

To display an image icon, first create an `ImageIcon` object using `new javax.swing.ImageIcon(filename)`. For example, the following statement creates an icon from an image file `us.gif` in the `image` directory under the current class path:

```java
ImageIcon icon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
```

`image/us.gif` is located in `c:\book\image\us.gif`. The back slash (`\`) is the Windows file path notation. In UNIX, the forward slash (`/`) should be used. In Java, the forward slash (`/`) is used to denote a relative file path under the Java classpath (e.g., `image/us.gif`, as in this example).

12.23 Show the output of the following code:

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
        System.out.println(jbtOK.isVisible());
        JFrame frame = new JFrame();
        System.out.println(frame.isVisible());
    }
}
```

12.24 What happens if you add a button to a container several times, as shown below? Does it cause syntax errors? Does it cause runtime errors?

```java
JButton jbt = new JButton();
JPanel panel = new JPanel();
panel.add(jbt);
panel.add(jbt);
panel.add(jbt);
```

Tip

File names are not case sensitive in Windows but are case sensitive in UNIX. To enable your programs to run on all platforms, name all the image files consistently, using lowercase.
An image icon can be displayed in a label or a button using `new JLabel(imageIcon)` or `new JButton(imageIcon)`. Listing 12.8 demonstrates displaying icons in labels and buttons. The example creates two labels and two buttons with icons, as shown in Figure 12.13.

![Image Icons in Labels and Buttons](image.png)

**Figure 12.13** The image icons are displayed in labels and buttons.

**Listing 12.8 TestImageIcon.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class TestImageIcon extends JFrame {

    private ImageIcon usIcon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
    private ImageIcon myIcon = new ImageIcon("image/my.jpg");
    private ImageIcon frIcon = new ImageIcon("image/fr.gif");
    private ImageIcon ukIcon = new ImageIcon("image/uk.gif");

    public TestImageIcon() {
        setLayout(new GridLayout(1, 4, 5, 5));
        add(new JLabel(usIcon));
        add(new JLabel(myIcon));
        add(new JButton(frIcon));
        add(new JButton(ukIcon));
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TestImageIcon frame = new TestImageIcon();
        frame.setTitle("TestImageIcon");
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

**Note**

Borders and icons can be shared. Thus, you can create a border or icon and use it to set the `border` or `icon` property for any GUI component. For example, the following statements set a border `b` for the panels `p1` and `p2`:

```java
p1.setBorder(b);
p2.setBorder(b);
```

The following statements set an icon in the buttons `jbt1` and `jbt2`:

```java
jbt1.setIcon(icon);
jbt2.setIcon(icon);
```
Tip

A splash screen is an image that is displayed while the application is starting up. If your program takes a long time to load, you may display a splash screen to alert the user. For example, the following command:

```
java -splash:image/us.gif TestImageIcon
```

displays an image while the program TestImageIcon is being loaded.

12.25 How do you create an ImageIcon from the file image/us.gif in the class directory?

12.26 Will the following code display three buttons? Will the buttons display the same icon?

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class Test extends JFrame {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a frame and set its properties
        JFrame frame = new Test();
        frame.setTitle("ButtonIcons");
        frame.setSize(200, 100);
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    public Test() {
        ImageIcon usIcon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
        JButton jbt1 = new JButton(usIcon);
        JButton jbt2 = new JButton(usIcon);
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
        p1.add(jbt1);
        JPanel p2 = new JPanel();
        p2.add(jbt2);
        JPanel p3 = new JPanel();
        p2.add(jbt1);
        add(p1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
        add(p2, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        add(p3, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
}
```

12.27 Can a border or an icon be shared by GUI components?

12.11 JButton

To create a push button, use the JButton class.

We have used JButton in the examples to demonstrate the basics of GUI programming. This section will introduce more features of JButton. The following sections will introduce GUI components JCheckBox, JRadioButton, JLabel, JTextField, and JPasswordField. More GUI components such as JTextArea, JComboBox, JList, JScrollBar, and JSlider will be introduced in Chapter 17. The relationship of these classes is pictured in Figure 12.14.
A button is a component that triggers an action when clicked. Swing provides regular buttons, toggle buttons, check box buttons, and radio buttons. The common features of these buttons are defined in `javax.swing.AbstractButton`, as shown in Figure 12.15.

**AbstractButton** defines common features of different types of buttons.

**Figure 12.14** These Swing GUI components are frequently used to create user interfaces.

Throughout this book, the prefixes `jbt`, `jchk`, `jrb`, `jbl`, `jtf`, `jpf`, `jta`, `jcbo`, `jlst`, `jscb`, and `jsld` are used to name reference variables for `JButton`, `JCheckBox`, `JRadioButton`, `JLabel`, `JTextField`, `JPasswordField`, `JTextArea`, `JComboBox`, `JList`, `JScrollBar`, and `JSlider`.

The action command of this button.

The button's text (i.e., the text label on the button).

The button’s default icon. This icon is also used as the “pressed” and “disabled” icon if there is no pressed icon set explicitly.

The pressed icon (displayed when the button is pressed).

The rollover icon (displayed when the mouse is over the button).

The mnemonic key value of this button. You can select the button by pressing the ALT key and the mnemonic key at the same time.

The horizontal alignment of the icon and text (default: CENTER).

The horizontal text position relative to the icon (default: RIGHT).

The vertical alignment of the icon and text (default: CENTER).

The vertical text position relative to the icon (default: CENTER).

Indicates whether the border of the button is painted. By default, a regular button's border is painted, but the borders for a check box and a radio button are not painted.

The gap between the text and the icon on the button.

The state of the button. True if the check box or radio button is selected, false if not.
**JButton** inherits **AbstractButton** and provides several constructors to create buttons, as shown in Figure 12.16.

![Figure 12.16](image)

### Figure 12.16
**JButton** defines a regular push button.

#### 12.11.1 Icons, Pressed Icons, and Rollover Icons

A button has a default icon, a pressed icon, and a rollover icon. Normally you use the default icon, because the other icons are for special effects. A pressed icon is displayed when a button is pressed, and a rollover icon is displayed when the mouse is over the button but not pressed. For example, Listing 12.9 displays the U.S. flag as a regular icon, the Canadian flag as a pressed icon, and the British flag as a rollover icon, as shown in Figure 12.17.

**Listing 12.9**  TestButtonIcons.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestButtonIcons extends JFrame {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a frame and set its properties
        JFrame frame = new TestButtonIcons();
        frame.setTitle("ButtonIcons");
        frame.setSize(200, 100);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    public TestButtonIcons() {
        ImageIcon usIcon = new ImageIcon("image/usIcon.gif");
        ImageIcon caIcon = new ImageIcon("image/caIcon.gif");
        ImageIcon ukIcon = new ImageIcon("image/ukIcon.gif");

        JButton jbt = new JButton("Click it", usIcon);
        jbt.setPressedIcon(caIcon);
        jbt.setRolloverIcon(ukIcon);

        add(jbt);
    }
}
```

![Figure 12.17](image)

(a) Default icon  (b) Pressed icon  (c) Rollover icon

**Figure 12.17** A button can have several types of icons.
12.11.2 Alignments

Horizontal alignment specifies how the icon and text are placed horizontally on a button. You can set the horizontal alignment using `setHorizontalAlignment(int)` with one of the five constants `LEADING`, `LEFT`, `CENTER`, `RIGHT`, or `TRAILING`, as shown in Figure 12.18. At present, `LEADING` and `LEFT` are the same, and `TRAILING` and `RIGHT` are the same. Future implementation may distinguish them. The default horizontal alignment is `AbstractButton.CENTER`.

![Figure 12.18](image)

You can specify how the icon and text are placed on a button horizontally.

Vertical alignment specifies how the icon and text are placed vertically on a button. You can set the vertical alignment using `setVerticalAlignment(int)` with one of the three constants `TOP`, `CENTER`, or `BOTTOM`, as shown in Figure 12.19. The default vertical alignment is `AbstractButton.CENTER`.

![Figure 12.19](image)

You can specify how the icon and text are placed on a button vertically.

12.11.3 Text Positions

Horizontal text position specifies the horizontal position of the text relative to the icon. You can set the horizontal text position using `setHorizontalTextPosition(int)` with one of the five constants `LEADING`, `LEFT`, `CENTER`, `RIGHT`, or `TRAILING`, as shown in Figure 12.20. At present, `LEADING` and `LEFT` are the same, and `TRAILING` and `RIGHT` are the same. Future implementation may distinguish them. The default horizontal text position is `AbstractButton.RIGHT`.

![Figure 12.20](image)

You can specify the horizontal position of the text relative to the icon.

Vertical text position specifies the vertical position of the text relative to the icon. You can set the vertical text position using `setVerticalTextPosition(int)` with one of the three...
constants **TOP, CENTER, or BOTTOM**, as shown in Figure 12.21. The default vertical text position is `AbstractButton.CENTER`.

![Text positioned top](image1) ![Text centered vertically](image2) ![Text positioned bottom](image3)

**Figure 12.21** You can specify the vertical position of the text relative to the icon.

12.28 How do you create a button with the text OK? How do you change text on a button? How do you set an icon, a pressed icon, and a rollover icon in a button?

12.29 Given a `JButton` object `jbtOK`, write statements to set the button’s foreground to `red`, background to `yellow`, mnemonic to `K`, tool tip text to `Click OK to proceed`, horizontal alignment to `RIGHT`, vertical alignment to `BOTTOM`, horizontal text position to `LEFT`, vertical text position to `TOP`, and icon text gap to 5.

12.30 List at least five properties defined in the `AbstractButton` class.

12.12 **JCheckBox**

*To create a check box button, use the `JCheckBox` class.*

A **toggle button** is a two-state button like a light switch. `JToggleButton` inherits `AbstractButton` and implements a toggle button. Often `JToggleButton`’s subclasses `JCheckBox` and `JRadioButton` are used to enable the user to toggle a choice on or off. This section introduces `JCheckBox`. `JRadioButton` will be introduced in the next section.

`JCheckBox` inherits all the properties from `AbstractButton`, such as `text`, `icon`, `mnemonic`, `verticalAlignment`, `horizontalAlignment`, `horizontalTextPosition`, `verticalTextPosition`, and `selected`, and provides several constructors to create check boxes, as shown in Figure 12.22.

```
javax.swing.JCheckBox
  +JCheckBox()
  +JCheckBox(text: String)
  +JCheckBox(text: String, selected: boolean)
  +JCheckBox(icon: Icon)
  +JCheckBox(text: String, icon: Icon)
  +JCheckBox(text: String, icon: Icon, selected: boolean)
```

* Figure 12.22 `JCheckBox` defines a check box button.
Here is an example for creating a check box with the text Student. Its foreground is red, the background is white, its mnemonic key is S, and it is initially selected.

```
JCheckBox jchk = new JCheckBox("Student", true);
jchk.setForeground(Color.RED);
jchk.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
jchk.setMnemonic('S');
```

The button can also be accessed by using the keyboard mnemonics. Pressing Alt+S is equivalent to clicking the check box.

To see if a check box is selected, use the isSelected() method.

12.31 How do you create a check box? How do you create a check box with the box checked initially? How do you determine whether a check box is selected?

### JRadioButton

To create a radio button, use the JRadioButton class.

Radio buttons, also known as option buttons, enable you to choose a single item from a group of choices. In appearance radio buttons resemble check boxes, but check boxes display a square that is either checked or blank, whereas radio buttons display a circle that is either filled (if selected) or blank (if not selected).

JRadioButton inherits AbstractButton and provides several constructors to create radio buttons, as shown in Figure 12.23. These constructors are similar to the constructors for JCheckBox.

```
javax.swing.JToggleButton

javax.swing.AbstractButton

javax.swing.JRadioButton

+JRadioButton()
+JRadioButton(text: String)
+JRadioButton(text: String, selected: boolean)
+JRadioButton(icon: Icon)
+JRadioButton(text: String, icon: Icon)
+JRadioButton(text: String, icon: Icon, selected: boolean)
```

FiguRe 12.23 JRadioButton defines a radio button.

Here is an example for creating a radio button with the text Student. The code specifies red foreground, white background, mnemonic key S, and initially selected.

```
JRadioButton jrb = new JRadioButton("Student", true);
jrb.setForeground(Color.RED);
jrb.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
jrb.setMnemonic('S');
```
To group radio buttons, you need to create an instance of `java.swing.ButtonGroup` and use the `add` method to add them to it, as follows:

```java
ButtonGroup group = new ButtonGroup();
group.add(jrb1);
group.add(jrb2);
```

This code creates a radio-button group for the radio buttons `jrb1` and `jrb2` so that they are selected mutually exclusively. Without grouping, `jrb1` and `jrb2` would be independent.

**Note**

`ButtonGroup` is not a subclass of `java.awt.Component`, so a `ButtonGroup` object cannot be added to a container.

To see if a radio button is selected, use the `isSelected()` method.

12.32 How do you create a radio button? How do you create a radio button with the button selected initially? How do you group radio buttons together? How do you determine whether a radio button is selected?

### 12.14 Labels

*To create a label, use the `JLabel` class.*

A label is a display area for a short text, an image, or both. It is often used to label other components (usually text fields). Figure 12.24 lists the constructors and methods in the `JLabel` class.

![UML Diagram](image)

**Figure 12.24** `JLabel` displays text or an icon, or both.

`JLabel` inherits all the properties from `JComponent` and has many properties similar to the ones in `JButton`, such as `text`, `icon`, `horizontalAlignment`, `verticalAlignment`, `horizontalTextPosition`, `verticalTextPosition`, and `iconTextGap`. For example, the following code displays a label with text and an icon:
How do you create a label named Address? How do you change the name on a label? How do you set an icon in a label?

Given a JLabel object jlblMap, write statements to set the label’s foreground to red, background to yellow, mnemonic to M, tool tip text to Map image, horizontal alignment to RIGHT, vertical alignment to BOTTOM, horizontal text position to LEFT, vertical text position to TOP, and icon text gap to 5.

To create a text field, use the JTextField class.

A text field can be used to enter or display a string. JTextField is a subclass of JTextComponent. Figure 12.25 lists the constructors and methods in JTextField.

```
// Create an image icon from an image file
ImageIcon icon = new ImageIcon("image/grapes.gif");

// Create a label with a text, an icon,
// with centered horizontal alignment
JLabel jbl1 = new JLabel("Grapes", icon, JLabel.CENTER);

// Set label’s text alignment and gap between text and icon
jbl1.setHorizontalTextPosition(JLabel.CENTER);
jbl1.setVerticalTextPosition(JLabel.BOTTOM);
jbl1.setIconTextGap(5);
```

```
// Create an image icon from an image file
ImageIcon icon = new ImageIcon("image/grapes.gif");

// Create a label with a text, an icon,
// with centered horizontal alignment
JLabel jbl1 = new JLabel("Grapes", icon, JLabel.CENTER);

// Set label’s text alignment and gap between text and icon
jbl1.setHorizontalTextPosition(JLabel.CENTER);
jbl1.setVerticalTextPosition(JLabel.BOTTOM);
jbl1.setIconTextGap(5);
```

**Figure 12.25** JTextField enables you to enter or display a string.

JTextField inherits JTextComponent, which inherits JComponent. Here is an example of creating a text field with red foreground color and right horizontal alignment:

```
JTextField jtfMessage = new JTextField("T-Storm");
jtfMessage.setForeground(Color.RED);
jtfMessage.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
```

To set new text in a text field, use the `setText(newText)` method. To get the text from a text field, use the `getText()` method.
Chapter Summary

1. Every container has a layout manager that is used to position and place components in the container in the desired locations. Three simple and frequently used layout managers are FlowLayout, GridLayout, and BorderLayout.

2. You can use a JPanel as a subcontainer to group components to achieve a desired layout.

3. Use the add method to place components in a JFrame or a JPanel. By default, the frame’s layout is BorderLayout, and the JPanel’s layout is FlowLayout.

4. Colors are made of red, green, and blue components, each represented by an unsigned byte value that describes its intensity, ranging from 0 (darkest shade) to 255 (lightest shade). This is known as the RGB model.

5. To create a Color object, use new Color(r, g, b), in which r, g, and b specify a color by its red, green, and blue components. Alternatively, you can use one of the 13 standard colors (BLACK, BLUE, CYAN, DARK_GRAY, GRAY, GREEN, LIGHT_GRAY, MAGENTA, ORANGE, PINK, RED, WHITE, YELLOW) defined as constants in java.awt.Color.

6. Every Swing GUI component is a subclass of javax.swing.JComponent, and JComponent is a subclass of java.awt.Component. The properties font, background, foreground, height, width, and preferredSize in Component are inherited in these subclasses, as are tooltipText and border in JComponent.

7. You can use borders on any Swing components. You can create an image icon using the ImageIcon class and display it in a label and a button. Icons and borders can be shared.

8. You can display a text and icon on buttons (JButton, JCheckBox, JRadioButton) and labels (JLabel).

9. You can specify the horizontal and vertical text alignment in JButton, JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JLabel, and the horizontal text alignment in JTextField.

Key Terms

AWT 446
component class 446
container class 446
heavyweight component 446
helper class 446

layout manager 451
lightweight component 446
Swing components 446
splash screen 467
top-level container 447

Note

If a text field is used for entering a password, use JPasswordField to replace JTextField. JPasswordField extends JTextField and hides the input text with echo characters (e.g., ******). By default, the echo character is *. You can specify a new echo character using the setEchoChar(char) method.

12.35 How do you create a text field with 10 columns and the default text Welcome to Java? How do you write the code to check whether a text field is empty?

12.36 How do you create text field for entering passwords?
10. You can specify the horizontal and vertical text position relative to the icon in `JButton`, `JCheckBox`, `JRadioButton`, and `JLabel`.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

**Note**

The image icons used in the exercises can be obtained from [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/book.zip](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/book.zip) under the image folder.

**Sections 12.2–12.6**

12.1 *(Use the `FlowLayout` manager)* Write a program that meets the following requirements (see Figure 12.26):

- Create a frame and set its layout to `FlowLayout`.
- Create two panels and add them to the frame.
- Each panel contains three buttons. The panel uses `FlowLayout`.

![Figure 12.26](image)

**Figure 12.26** Exercise 12.1 places the first three buttons in one panel and the other three buttons in another panel.

12.2 *(Use the `BorderLayout` manager)* Rewrite the preceding program to create the same user interface, but instead of using `FlowLayout` for the frame, use `BorderLayout`. Place one panel in the south of the frame and the other in the center.

12.3 *(Use the `GridLayout` manager)* Rewrite Programming Exercise 12.1 to add six buttons into a frame. Use a `GridLayout` of two rows and three columns for the frame.

12.4 *(Use `JPanel` to group buttons)* Rewrite Programming Exercise 12.1 to create the same user interface. Instead of creating buttons and panels separately, define a class that extends the `JPanel` class. Place three buttons in your panel class, and create two panels from the user-defined panel class.

12.5 *(Display labels)* Write a program that displays four lines of text in four labels, as shown in Figure 12.27a. Add a line border around each label.

![Figure 12.27](image)

**Figure 12.27** (a) Exercise 12.5 displays four labels. (b) Exercise 12.6 displays four icons. (c) Exercise 12.7 displays a tic-tac-toe board with image icons in labels.
Sections 12.7–12.15

12.6 (Display icons) Write a program that displays four icons in four labels, as shown in Figure 12.27b. Add a line border around each label.

**12.7 (Game: display a tic-tac-toe board) Display a frame that contains nine labels. A label may display an image icon for X or an image icon for O, as shown in Figure 12.27c. What to display is randomly decided. Use the `Math.random()` method to generate an integer 0 or 1, which corresponds to displaying an X or O image icon. These images are in the files `x.gif` and `o.gif`.

*12.8 (Swing common features) Display a frame that contains six labels. Set the background of the labels to white. Set the foreground of the labels to black, blue, cyan, green, magenta, and orange, respectively, as shown in Figure 12.28a. Set the border of each label to a line border with the color yellow. Set the font of each label to Times Roman, bold, and 20 pixels. Set the text and tool tip text of each label to the name of its foreground color.

*12.9 (Game: display three cards) Display a frame that contains three labels. Each label displays a card, as shown in Figure 12.28b. The card image files are named `1.png`, `2.png`, ..., `54.png` (including jokers) and stored in the `image/card` directory. All three cards are distinct and selected randomly.

*12.10 (Game: display a checkerboard) Write a program that displays a checkerboard in which each white and black cell is a `JButton` with a background black or white, as shown in Figure 12.28c.

*12.11 (Game: display four cards) Use the same cards from Exercise 12.9 to display a frame that contains four buttons. All buttons have the same icon from `backCard.png`, as shown in Figure 12.29a. The pressed icons are four cards randomly selected from the 54 cards in a deck, as shown in Figure 12.29b.

Figure 12.28 (a) Six labels are placed in the frame. (b) Three cards are randomly selected. (c) A checkerboard is displayed using buttons.

Figure 12.29 (a) The four buttons have the same icon. (b) Each button’s pressed icon is randomly picked from the deck. (c) The image icons and texts are displayed in four labels.
12.12 (Use labels) Write a program that displays the image icon and the text in four labels, as shown Figure 12.29c.

12.13 (Display 54 cards) Expand Exercise 12.9 to display all 54 cards in 54 labels, nine per row.

*12.14 (Display random 0 or 1) Write a program that displays a 10-by-10 square matrix, as shown in Figure 12.30. Each element in the matrix is 0 or 1, randomly generated. Display each number centered in a label.

![Figure 12.30](image)

The program randomly generates 0s and 1s.
Objectives

- To draw graphics using the methods in the Graphics class (§13.2).
- To override the paintComponent method to draw graphics on a GUI component (§13.2).
- To use a panel as a canvas to draw graphics (§13.2).
- To draw strings, lines, rectangles, ovals, arcs, and polygons (§§13.3, 13.5–13.6).
- To obtain font properties using FontMetrics and to display a text centered in a panel (§13.7).
- To display an image on a GUI component (§13.10).
- To develop the reusable GUI components FigurePanel, MessagePanel, StillClock, and ImageViewer (§§13.4, 13.8, 13.9, 13.11).
13.1 Introduction

You can draw custom shapes on a GUI component.

Suppose you want to draw shapes such as a bar chart, a clock, or a stop sign, as shown in Figure 13.1. How do you do so?

![Figure 13.1](image)

**Figure 13.1** You can draw shapes using the drawing methods in the Graphics class.

This chapter describes how to use the methods in the Graphics class to draw strings, lines, rectangles, ovals, arcs, polygons, and images, and how to develop reusable GUI components.

13.2 The Graphics Class

Each GUI component has a graphics context, which is an object of the Graphics class. The Graphics class contains the methods for drawing various shapes.

The Graphics class provides the methods for drawing strings, lines, rectangles, ovals, arcs, polygons, and polylines, as shown in Figure 13.2.

Think of a GUI component as a piece of paper and the Graphics object as a pencil or paintbrush. You can apply the methods in the Graphics class to draw graphics on a GUI component.

To paint, you need to specify where to paint. Each component has its own coordinate system with the origin \((0, 0)\) at the upper-left corner. The \(x\)-coordinate increases to the right, and the \(y\)-coordinate increases downward. Note that the Java coordinate system differs from the conventional coordinate system, as shown in Figure 13.3.

The Graphics class—an abstract class—provides a device-independent graphics interface for displaying figures and images on the screen on different platforms. Whenever a component (e.g., a button, a label, or a panel) is displayed, the JVM automatically creates a Graphics object for the component on the native platform and passes this object to invoke the paintComponent method to display the drawings.

The signature of the paintComponent method is as follows:

```java
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g)
```

This method, defined in the JComponent class, is invoked whenever a component is first displayed or redisplayed.

To draw on a component, you need to define a class that extends JPanel and overrides its paintComponent method to specify what to draw. Listing 13.1 gives an example that draws a line and a string on a panel, as shown in Figure 13.4.
13.2 The **Graphics** Class

**java.awt.Graphics**

+setColor(color: Color): void
+setFont(font: Font): void
+drawString(s: String, x: int, y: int): void
+drawLine(x1: int, y1: int, x2: int, y2: int): void
+drawRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int): void
+fillRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int): void
+drawRoundRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, aw: int, ah: int): void
+fillRoundRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, aw: int, ah: int): void
+draw3DRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, raised: boolean): void
+fill3DRect(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, raised: boolean): void
+drawOval(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int): void
+fillOval(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int): void
+drawArc(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, startAngle: int, arcAngle: int): void
+fillArc(x: int, y: int, w: int, h: int, startAngle: int, arcAngle: int): void
+drawPolygon(xPoints: int[], yPoints: int[], nPoints: int): void
+fillPolygon(xPoints: int[], yPoints: int[], nPoints: int): void
+drawPolyline(xPoints: int[], yPoints: int[], nPoints: int): void

Sets a new color for subsequent drawings.
Sets a new font for subsequent drawings.
Draws a string starting at point \((x, y)\).
Draws a line from \((x_1, y_1)\) to \((x_2, y_2)\).
Draws a rectangle with specified upper-left corner point at \((x, y)\) and width \(w\) and height \(h\).
Draws a filled rectangle with specified upper-left corner point at \((x, y)\) and width \(w\) and height \(h\).
Draws a round-cornered rectangle with specified arc width \(aw\) and arc height \(ah\).
Draws a filled round-cornered rectangle with specified arc width \(aw\) and arc height \(ah\).
Draws a 3-D rectangle raised above the surface or sunk into the surface.
Draws a filled 3-D rectangle raised above the surface or sunk into the surface.
Draws an oval bounded by the rectangle specified by the parameters \(x, y, w,\) and \(h\).
Draws a filled oval bounded by the rectangle specified by the parameters \(x, y, w,\) and \(h\).
Draws an arc conceived as part of an oval bounded by the parameters \(x, y, w,\) and \(h\).
Draws a filled arc conceived as part of an oval bounded by the parameters \(x, y, w,\) and \(h\).
Draws a closed polygon defined by arrays of \(x\)- and \(y\)-coordinates. Each pair of \((x[i], y[i])\)-coordinates is a point.
Draws a filled polygon defined by arrays of \(x\)- and \(y\)-coordinates. Each pair of \((x[i], y[i])\)-coordinates is a point.
Draws a closed polygon defined by a `Polygon` object.
Draws a filled polygon defined by a `Polygon` object.
Draws a polyline defined by arrays of \(x\)- and \(y\)-coordinates. Each pair of \((x[i], y[i])\)-coordinates is a point.

**Figure 13.2** The **Graphics** class contains the methods for drawing strings and shapes.

**Figure 13.3** The Java coordinate system is measured in pixels, with \((0, 0)\) at its upper-left corner.

**Listing 13.1** TestPaintComponent.java

```java
1   import javax.swing.*;
2   import java.awt.Graphics;
3```

public class TestPaintComponent extends JFrame {
    public TestPaintComponent() {
        add(new NewPanel());
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TestPaintComponent frame = new TestPaintComponent();
        frame.setTitle("TestPaintComponent");
        frame.setSize(200, 100);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

new panel class

class NewPanel extends JPanel {
    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        g.drawLine(0, 0, 50, 50);
        g.drawString("Banner", 0, 40);
    }
}

(Figure 13.4) A line and a string are drawn on a panel.

The **paintComponent** method is automatically invoked to paint graphics when the component is first displayed or whenever the component needs to be redisplayed. Invoking `super.paintComponent(g)` (line 22) invokes the **paintComponent** method defined in the superclass. This is necessary to ensure that the viewing area is cleared before a new drawing is displayed. Line 23 invokes the **drawLine** method to draw a line from \((0, 0)\) to \((50, 50)\). Line 24 invokes the **drawString** method to draw the string **Banner** at location \((0, 40)\).

All the drawing methods have parameters that specify the locations of the subjects to be drawn. In Java, all measurements are made in pixels.

The JVM invokes **paintComponent** to draw things on a component. The user should never invoke **paintComponent** directly. For this reason, the protected visibility is sufficient for **paintComponent**.

Panels are invisible and are used as small containers that group components to achieve a desired layout. Another important use of **JPanel** is for drawing. You can draw things on any Swing GUI component, but normally you should use a **JPanel** as a canvas upon which to draw things. What happens if you replace **JPanel** with **JLabel** in line 19 as follows?

class NewPanel extends JLabel {

The program will work, but it is not preferred, because **JLabel** is designed for creating a label, not for drawing. For consistency, this book will define a canvas class by subclassing **JPanel**.
Some textbooks define a canvas class by subclassing `JComponent`. The problem with doing that is if you want to set a background in the canvas, you have to write the code to paint the background color. A simple `setBackground(Color color)` method will not set a background color in a `JComponent`.

### 13.1
Suppose that you want to draw a new message below an existing message. Should the x-coordinate, y-coordinate, or both increase or decrease?

### 13.2
How is a `Graphics` object created?

### 13.3
How is the `paintComponent` method invoked? How can a program invoke this method?

### 13.4
Why is the `paintComponent` method protected? What happens if you change it to `public` or `private` in a subclass? Why is `super.paintComponent(g)` invoked in line 22 in Listing 13.1?

### 13.5
Can you draw things on any Swing GUI component? Why should you use a panel as a canvas for drawings rather than a label or a button?

## 13.3 Drawing Strings, Lines, Rectangles, and Ovals

You can draw strings, lines, rectangles, and ovals in a graphics context.

The `drawString(String s, int x, int y)` method draws a string starting at the point `(x, y)`, as shown in Figure 13.5a.

The `drawLine(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2)` method draws a straight line from point `(x1, y1)` to point `(x2, y2)`, as shown in Figure 13.5b.

Java provides six methods for drawing the outline of rectangles or rectangles filled with color. You can draw or fill plain rectangles, round-cornered rectangles, or three-dimensional rectangles.

The `drawRect(int x, int y, int w, int h)` method draws a plain rectangle, and the `fillRect(int x, int y, int w, int h)` method draws a filled rectangle. The parameters `x` and `y` represent the upper-left corner of the rectangle, and `w` and `h` are its width and height (see Figure 13.6).

The `drawRoundRect(int x, int y, int w, int h, int aw, int ah)` method draws a round-cornered rectangle, and the `fillRoundRect(int x, int y, int w, int h, int aw, int ah)` method draws a filled round-cornered rectangle. Parameters `x`, `y`, `w`, and `h` are the same as in the `drawRect` method, parameter `aw` is the horizontal diameter of the arcs at the corner, and `ah` is the vertical diameter of the arcs at the corner (see Figure 13.7a).
In other words, $aw$ and $ah$ are the width and the height of the oval that produces a quarter-circle at each corner.

The `draw3DRect(int x, int y, int w, int h, boolean raised)` method draws a 3-D rectangle and the `fill3DRect(int x, int y, int w, int h, boolean raised)` method draws a filled 3-D rectangle. The parameters $x, y, w,$ and $h$ are the same as in the `drawRect` method. The last parameter, a Boolean value, indicates whether the rectangle is raised above the surface or sunk into the surface.

Depending on whether you wish to draw an oval in outline or filled solid, you can use either the `drawOval(int x, int y, int w, int h)` method or the `fillOval(int x, int y, int w, int h)` method. An oval is drawn based on its bounding rectangle. Parameters $x$ and $y$ indicate the top-left corner of the bounding rectangle, and $w$ and $h$ indicate the width and height, respectively, of the bounding rectangle, as shown in Figure 13.7b.

**Figure 13.6** (a) The `drawRect(x, y, w, h)` method draws a rectangle. (b) The `fillRect(x, y, w, h)` method draws a filled rectangle.

**Figure 13.7** (a) The `drawRoundRect(x, y, w, h, aw, ah)` method draws a round-cornered rectangle. (b) The `drawOval(x, y, w, h)` method draws an oval based on its bounding rectangle.

13.6 Describe the methods for drawing strings, lines, and the methods for drawing/filling rectangles, round-cornered rectangles, 3-D rectangles, and ovals.

13.7 Draw a thick line from $(10, 10)$ to $(70, 30)$. You can draw several lines next to each other to create the effect of one thick line.

13.8 Draw/fill a rectangle of width 100 and height 50 with the upper-left corner at $(10, 10)$.

13.9 Draw/fill a round-cornered rectangle with width 100, height 200, corner horizontal diameter 40, and corner vertical diameter 20.

13.10 Draw/fill a circle with radius 30.

13.11 Draw/fill an oval with width 50 and height 100.
13.4 Case Study: The FigurePanel Class

This case study develops the FigurePanel class for displaying various figures.

This example develops a useful class for displaying various figures. The class enables the user to set the figure type and specify whether the figure is filled, and it displays the figure on a panel. The UML diagram for the class is shown in Figure 13.8. The panel can display lines, rectangles, round-cornered rectangles, and ovals. Which figure to display is decided by the type property. If the filled property is true, the rectangle, round-cornered rectangle, and oval are filled in the panel.

![UML Diagram for FigurePanel](image)

**KEY POINT**

- **LINE = 1**
- **RECTANGLE = 2**
- **ROUND_RECTANGLE = 3**
- **OVAL = 4**

- type: int
- filled: boolean

+FigurePanel()
+FigurePanel(type: int)
+FigurePanel(type: int, filled: boolean)
+getType(): int
+setType(type: int): void
+isFilled(): boolean
+setFilled(filled: boolean): void

**Figure 13.8** FigurePanel displays various types of figures on the panel.

The UML diagram serves as the contract for the FigurePanel class. The user can use the class without knowing how the class is implemented. Let us begin by writing a program in Listing 13.2 that uses the class to display six figure panels, as shown in Figure 13.9.

**Listing 13.2 TestFigurePanel.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestFigurePanel extends JFrame {
    public TestFigurePanel() {
        setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 3, 5, 5));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.LINE));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.RECTANGLE));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.ROUND_RECTANGLE));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.OVAL));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.RECTANGLE, true));
        add(new FigurePanel(FigurePanel.ROUND_RECTANGLE, true));
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TestFigurePanel frame = new TestFigurePanel();
        frame.setSize(400, 200);
        frame.setTitle("TestFigurePanel");
    }
}
```
The FigurePanel class is implemented in Listing 13.3. Four constants—LINE, RECTANGLE, ROUND_RECTANGLE, and OVAL—are declared in lines 6–9. Four types of figures are drawn according to the type property (line 37). The setColor method (lines 39, 44, 53, 62) sets a new color for the drawing.

**Listing 13.3  FigurePanel.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.JPanel;

public class FigurePanel extends JPanel {
    // Declare constants
    public static final int LINE = 1;
    public static final int RECTANGLE = 2;
    public static final int ROUND_RECTANGLE = 3;
    public static final int OVAL = 4;

    private int type = 1;
    private boolean filled = false;

    /** Construct a default FigurePanel */
    public FigurePanel() {
    }

    /** Construct a FigurePanel with the specified type */
    public FigurePanel(int type) {
        this.type = type;
    }

    /** Construct a FigurePanel with the specified type and filled */
    public FigurePanel(int type, boolean filled) {
        this.type = type;
        this.filled = filled;
    }

    // Draw a figure on the panel
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Get the appropriate size for the figure
        int width = getWidth();
        int height = getHeight();

        switch (type) {
            case LINE: // Display two cross lines
```
```java
g.setColor(Color.BLACK);
g.drawLine(10, 10, width - 10, height - 10);  // draw lines
g.drawLine(width - 10, 10, width - 10, height - 10);
break;
case RECTANGLE: // Display a rectangle
  g.setColor(Color.BLUE);
  if (filled)
    g.fillRect((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
               (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height));
  else
    g.drawRect((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
               (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height));
break;
case ROUND_RECTANGLE: // Display a round-cornered rectangle
  g.setColor(Color.RED);
  if (filled)
    g.fillRoundRect((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
                    (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height), 20, 20);
  else
    g.drawRoundRect((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
                   (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height), 20, 20);
break;
case OVAL: // Display an oval
  g.setColor(Color.BLACK);
  if (filled)
    g.fillOval((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
               (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height));
  else
    g.drawOval((int)(0.1 * width), (int)(0.1 * height),
               (int)(0.8 * width), (int)(0.8 * height));
}

/** Set a new figure type */
public void setType(int type) {
  this.type = type;
  repaint();
}

/** Return figure type */
public int getType() {
  return type;
}

/** Set a new filled property */
public void setFilled(boolean filled) {
  this.filled = filled;
  repaint();
}

/** Check if the figure is filled */
public boolean isFilled() {
  return filled;
}

@Override // Specify preferred size
public Dimension getPreferredSize() {
  return new Dimension(80, 80);
}
```
The `repaint` method (lines 75, 86) is defined in the `Component` class. Invoking `repaint` causes the `paintComponent` method to be called. The `repaint` method is invoked to refresh the viewing area. Typically, you call it if you have new things to display.

**Caution**
The `paintComponent` method should never be invoked directly. It is invoked either by the JVM whenever the viewing area changes or by the `repaint` method. You should override the `paintComponent` method to tell the system how to paint the viewing area, but never override the `repaint` method.

**Note**
The `repaint` method lodges a request to update the viewing area and returns immediately. Its effect is asynchronous, meaning that it is up to the JVM to execute the `paintComponent` method on a separate thread.

The `getPreferredSize()` method (lines 95–97), defined in `Component`, is overridden in `FigurePanel` to specify the preferred size for the layout manager to consider when laying out a `FigurePanel` object. This property may or may not be considered by the layout manager, depending on its rules. For example, a component uses its preferred size in a container with a `FlowLayout` manager, but its preferred size is ignored if it is placed in a container with a `GridLayout` manager. It is a good practice to override `getPreferredSize()` in a subclass of `JPanel` to specify a preferred size, because the default width and height for a `JPanel` is 0. You will see nothing if a `JPanel` component with a default 0 width and height is placed in a `FlowLayout` container.

**Check Point**

13.12 Why should you override the `preferredSize` method in a subclass of `JPanel`?
13.13 How do you get and set colors and fonts in a `Graphics` object?

### 13.5 Drawing Arcs

*An arc is conceived as part of an oval bounded by a rectangle.*

The methods to draw or fill an arc are as follows:

```java
   drawArc(int x, int y, int w, int h, int startAngle, int arcAngle)
   fillArc(int x, int y, int w, int h, int startAngle, int arcAngle)
```

Parameters `x`, `y`, `w`, and `h` are the same as in the `drawOval` method; parameter `startAngle` is the starting angle; and `arcAngle` is the spanning angle (i.e., the angle covered by the arc). Angles are measured in degrees and follow the usual mathematical conventions (i.e., 0 degrees is in the easterly direction, and positive angles indicate counterclockwise rotation from the easterly direction); see Figure 13.10.

![Figure 13.10](image-url) The `drawArc` method draws an arc based on an oval with specified angles.
Listing 13.4 is an example of how to draw arcs; the output is shown in Figure 13.11.

**Listing 13.4**  DrawArcs.java

```java
import javax.swing.JFrame;
import javax.swing.JPanel;
import java.awt.Graphics;

public class DrawArcs extends JFrame {
    public DrawArcs() {
        setTitle("DrawArcs");
        add(new ArcsPanel());
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        DrawArcs frame = new DrawArcs();
        frame.setSize(250, 300);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

// The class for drawing arcs on a panel
class ArcsPanel extends JPanel {
    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        int xCenter = getWidth() / 2;
        int yCenter = getHeight() / 2;
        int radius = (int)(Math.min(getWidth(), getHeight()) * 0.4);
        int x = xCenter - radius;
        int y = yCenter - radius;
        g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, 30, 30);
        g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, 90, 30);
        g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, 180, 30);
        g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, 270, 30);
    }
}
```

**Figure 13.11**  The program draws four filled arcs.
Angles may be negative. A negative starting angle sweeps clockwise from the easterly direction, as shown in Figure 13.12. A negative spanning angle sweeps clockwise from the starting angle. The following two statements draw the same arc:

```java
    g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, -30, -20);
    g.fillArc(x, y, 2 * radius, 2 * radius, -50, 20);
```

The first statement uses negative starting angle \(-30\) and negative spanning angle \(-20\), as shown in Figure 13.12a. The second statement uses negative starting angle \(-50\) and positive spanning angle \(20\), as shown in Figure 13.12b.

![Figure 13.12](image)

**Figure 13.12** Angles may be negative.

---

**Check Point**

13.14 Describe the methods for drawing/filling arcs.

13.15 Draw the upper half of a circle with radius 50.

13.16 Fill the lower half of a circle with radius 50 using the red color.

### 13.6 Drawing Polygons and Polylines

*You can draw a polygon or a polyline that connects a set of points.*

To draw a polygon, first create a `Polygon` object using the `Polygon` class, as shown in Figure 13.13.

```java
    java.awt.Polygon
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>+xpoints: int[]</code></td>
<td>X-coordinates of all points in the polygon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+ypoints: int[]</code></td>
<td>Y-coordinates of all points in the polygon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+npoints: int</code></td>
<td>The number of points in the polygon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+Polygon()</code></td>
<td>Creates an empty polygon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+Polygon(xpoints: int[], ypoints: int[],</code></td>
<td>Creates a polygon with the specified points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>npoints: int)</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+addPoint(x: int, y: int): void</code></td>
<td>Appends a point to the polygon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+contains(x: int, y: int): boolean</code></td>
<td>Returns true if the specified point ((x, y)) is contained in the polygon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 13.13](image)

**Figure 13.13** The `Polygon` class models a polygon.

A polygon is a closed two-dimensional region. This region is bounded by an arbitrary number of line segments, each being one side (or edge) of the polygon. A polygon comprises a list of \((x, y)\)-coordinate pairs in which each pair defines a vertex of the polygon, and two successive pairs are the endpoints of a line that is a side of the polygon. The first and final points are joined by a line segment that closes the polygon.
Here is an example of creating a polygon and adding points into it:

```java
Polygon polygon = new Polygon();
polygon.addPoint(40, 20);
polygon.addPoint(70, 40);
polygon.addPoint(60, 80);
polygon.addPoint(45, 45);
polygon.addPoint(20, 60);
```

After these points are added, `xpoints` is `{40, 70, 60, 45, 20}`, `ypoints` is `{20, 40, 80, 45, 60}`, and `npoints` is 5. `xpoints`, `ypoints`, and `npoints` are public data fields in `Polygon`, which is a bad design. If the user changes a `Polygon`’s `npoints` data field without properly changing its `xpoints` and `ypoints` data fields, this will cause inconsistent data in the `Polygon` object.

To draw or fill a polygon, use one of the following methods in the `Graphics` class:

```java
drawPolygon(Polygon polygon);
fillPolygon(Polygon polygon);
drawPolygon(int[] xpoints, int[] ypoints, int npoints);
fillPolygon(int[] xpoints, int[] ypoints, int npoints);
```

For example:

```java
int x[] = {40, 70, 60, 45, 20};
int y[] = {20, 40, 80, 45, 60};
g.drawPolygon(x, y, x.length);
```

The drawing method opens the polygon by drawing lines between point `(x[i], y[i])` and point `(x[i+1], y[i+1])` for `i = 0, ..., x.length-1`; it closes the polygon by drawing a line between the first and last points (see Figure 13.14a).

![Figure 13.14](image)

**Figure 13.14** The `drawPolygon` method draws a polygon, and the `drawPolyLine` method draws a polyline.

To draw a polyline, use the `drawPolyline(int[] x, int[] y, int nPoints)` method, which draws a sequence of connected lines defined by arrays of `x-` and `y-coordinates`. For example, the following code draws the polyline like the one shown in Figure 13.14b.

```java
int x[] = {40, 70, 60, 45, 20};
int y[] = {20, 40, 80, 45, 60};
g.drawPolyline(x, y, x.length);
```

Listing 13.5 is an example of how to draw a hexagon, with the output shown in Figure 13.15.
LISTING 13.5 DrawPolygon.java

```java
import javax.swing.JFrame;
import javax.swing.JPanel;
import java.awt.Graphics;
import java.awt.Polygon;

public class DrawPolygon extends JFrame {
    public DrawPolygon() {
        setTitle("DrawPolygon");
        add(new PolygonsPanel());
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        DrawPolygon frame = new DrawPolygon();
        frame.setSize(200, 250);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

```java
// Draw a polygon in the panel
class PolygonsPanel extends JPanel {
    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        int xCenter = getWidth() / 2;
        int yCenter = getHeight() / 2;
        int radius = (int)(Math.min(getWidth(), getHeight()) * 0.4);

        // Create a Polygon object
        Polygon polygon = new Polygon();

        // Add points to the polygon in this order
        polygon.addPoint(xCenter, yCenter);
        polygon.addPoint(((int)(xCenter + radius * Math.cos(2 * Math.PI / 6)), (int)(yCenter - radius * Math.sin(2 * Math.PI / 6)));
        polygon.addPoint(((int)(xCenter + radius * Math.cos(2 * 2 * Math.PI / 6)), (int)(yCenter - radius * Math.sin(2 * 2 * Math.PI / 6)));
        polygon.addPoint(((int)(xCenter + radius * Math.cos(3 * 2 * Math.PI / 6)), (int)(yCenter - radius * Math.sin(3 * 2 * Math.PI / 6)));
    }
}
```

**Figure 13.15** The program uses the `drawPolygon` method to draw a hexagon.
13.7 Centering a String Using the \textbf{FontMetrics} Class

You can use the \textbf{FontMetrics} class to measure the width and height of a string in the graphics context.

You can display a string at any location in a panel. Can you display it centered? Yes; to do so, you need to use the \textbf{FontMetrics} class to measure the exact width and height of the string for a particular font. \textbf{FontMetrics} can measure the following attributes for a given font (see Figure 13.16):

- **Leading**, pronounced \textit{ledding}, is the amount of space between lines of text.
- **Ascent** is the distance from the baseline to the ascent line. The top of most characters in the font will be under the ascent line, but some may extend above the ascent line.
- **Descent** is the distance from the baseline to the descent line. The bottom of most descending characters (e.g., \textit{j}, \textit{y}, and \textit{g}) in the font will be above the descent line, but some may extend below the descent line.
- **Height** is the sum of leading, ascent, and descent.

![Figure 13.16](image.png)

The \textbf{FontMetrics} class can be used to determine the font properties of characters for a given font.

\textbf{FontMetrics} is an abstract class. To get a \textbf{FontMetrics} object for a specific font, use the following \texttt{getFontMetrics} methods defined in the \textbf{Graphics} class:

- \texttt{public FontMetrics getFontMetrics(Font font)}

  This method returns the font metrics of the specified font.
- \texttt{public FontMetrics getFontMetrics()}
This method returns the font metrics of the current font. You can use the following instance methods in the `FontMetrics` class to obtain the attributes of a font and the width of a string when it is drawn using the font:

```java
public int getAscent() // Return the ascent
public int getDescent() // Return the descent
public int getLeading() // Return the leading
public int getHeight() // Return the height
public int stringWidth(String str) // Return the width of the string
```

Listing 13.6 gives an example that displays a message in the center of the panel, as shown in Figure 13.17.

**LISTING 13.6 TestCenterMessage.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class TestCenterMessage extends JFrame {
    public TestCenterMessage() {
        CenterMessage messagePanel = new CenterMessage();
        add(messagePanel);
        messagePanel.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
        messagePanel.setFont(new Font("Californian FB", Font.BOLD, 30));
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TestCenterMessage frame = new TestCenterMessage();
        frame.setSize(300, 150);
        frame.setTitle("CenterMessage");
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

class CenterMessage extends JPanel {
    @Override /** Paint the message */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Get font metrics for the current font
        FontMetrics fm = g.getFontMetrics();

        // Find the center location to display
        int stringWidth = fm.stringWidth("Welcome to Java");
        int stringAscent = fm.getAscent();

        // Get the position of the leftmost character in the baseline
        int xCoordinate = getWidth() / 2 - stringWidth / 2;
        int yCoordinate = getHeight() / 2 + stringAscent / 2;

        g.drawString("Welcome to Java", xCoordinate, yCoordinate);
    }
}
```
This is a MessagePanel object

Welcome to Java

(xCoordinate, yCoordinate)

xCoordinate = getWidth / 2 - stringWidth / 2;
yCoordinate = getHeight / 2 - stringAscent / 2;

**Figure 13.17** The program uses the **FontMetrics** class to measure the string width and height and displays it at the center of the panel.

The methods `setWidth()` and `getHeight()` (lines 36–37) defined in the **Component** class return the component’s width and height, respectively.

Since the message is **centered**, the first character of the string should be positioned at \((xCoordinate, yCoordinate)\), as shown in Figure 13.17.

13.19 How do you find the leading, ascent, descent, and height of a font?

13.20 How do you find the exact length in pixels of a string in a **Graphics** object?

### 13.8 Case Study: The **MessagePanel** Class

*This case study develops a useful class that displays a message in a panel. The class enables the user to set the location of the message, center the message, and move the message a specified interval.*

The contract of the **MessagePanel** class is shown in Figure 13.18.

Let us first write a test program in Listing 13.7 that uses the **MessagePanel** class to display four message panels, as shown in Figure 13.19.

### Listing 13.7  **TestMessagePanel.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestMessagePanel extends JFrame {
    public TestMessagePanel() {
        MessagePanel messagePanel1 = new MessagePanel("Welcome to Java");
        messagePanel2.setFont(new Font("Courier", Font.BOLD, 20));
        messagePanel2.setBackground(Color.CYAN);
        messagePanel1.setFont(new Font("SansSerif", Font.ITALIC, 20));
        messagePanel1.setBackground(Color.RED);
        messagePanel2.setBackground(Color.CYAN);
        messagePanel3.setBackground(Color.GREEN);
        messagePanel4.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
        messagePanel1.setFont(new Font("Times", Font.ITALIC, 20));
        messagePanel2.setFont(new Font("Californian FB", Font.PLAIN, 20));
    }
}
```

The **MessagePanel** class is shown in Figure 13.18.
The rest of this section explains how to implement the `MessagePanel` class. Since you can use the class without knowing how it is implemented, you may skip the implementation if you wish.

```java
    messagePanel1.setCentered(true);
    setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
    add(messagePanel1);
    add(messagePanel2);
    add(messagePanel3);
    add(messagePanel4);
  }

  public static void main(String[] args) {
    TestMessagePanel frame = new TestMessagePanel();
    frame.setSize(300, 200);
    frame.setTitle("TestMessagePanel");
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
  }
```

The `MessagePanel` class has the following attributes:

- `xCoordinate`: int
- `yCoordinate`: int
- `centered`: boolean
- `message`: String
- `interval`: int

The `MessagePanel` class also has the following methods:

- `MessagePanel()`: Constructs a default message panel.
- `MessagePanel(message: String)`: Constructs a message panel with a specified string.
- `moveLeft()`: void
- `moveRight()`: void
- `moveUp()`: void
- `moveDown()`: void

The `get` and `set` methods for these data fields are provided in the class, but omitted in the UML diagram for brevity.

**Figure 13.18** `MessagePanel` displays a message on the panel.

**Figure 13.19** `TestMessagePanel` uses `MessagePanel` to display four message panels.
The **MessagePanel** class is implemented in Listing 13.8. The program seems long but is actually simple, because most of the methods are get and set methods, and each method is relatively short and easy to read.

### Listing 13.8 MessagePanel.java

```java
import java.awt.FontMetrics;
import java.awt.Dimension;
import java.awt.Graphics;
import javax.swing.JPanel;

public class MessagePanel extends JPanel {

    /** The message to be displayed */
    private String message = "Welcome to Java";

    /** The x-coordinate where the message is displayed */
    private int xCoordinate = 20;

    /** The y-coordinate where the message is displayed */
    private int yCoordinate = 20;

    /** Indicate whether the message is displayed in the center */
    private boolean centered;

    /** The interval for moving the message horizontally and vertically */
    private int interval = 10;

    /** Construct with default properties */
    public MessagePanel() {
    }

    /** Construct a message panel with a specified message */
    public MessagePanel(String message) {
        this.message = message;
    }

    /** Return message */
    public String getMessage() {
        return message;
    }

    /** Set a new message */
    public void setMessage(String message) {
        this.message = message;
        repaint();
    }

    /** Return xCoordinate */
    public int getXCoordinate() {
        return xCoordinate;
    }

    /** Set a new xCoordinate */
    public void setXCoordinate(int x) {
        this.xCoordinate = x;
        repaint();
    }

    /** Return yCoordinate */
    public int getYCoordinate() {
        return yCoordinate;
    }

    /** Set a new yCoordinate */
    public void setYCoordinate(int y) {
        this.yCoordinate = y;
        repaint();
    }

    /** Indicate whether the message is displayed in the center */
    public boolean isCentered() {
        return centered;
    }

    /** Set the message to be displayed in the center */
    public void centerMessage() {
        int width = getWidth() / 2 - message.length() / 2;
        this.xCoordinate = width;
    }

    /** Move the message horizontally and vertically */
    public void moveMessage(int dx, int dy) {
        this.xCoordinate += dx;
        this.yCoordinate += dy;
        repaint();
    }
}
```
public int getYCoordinate() {
    return yCoordinate;
}

/** Set a new yCoordinator */
public void setYCoordinate(int y) {
    this.yCoordinate = y;
    repaint();
}

/** Return centered */
public boolean isCentered() {
    return centered;
}

/** Set true or false to tell whether the message is centered */
public void setCentered(boolean centered) {
    this.centered = centered;
    repaint();
}

/** Return interval */
public int getInterval() {
    return interval;
}

/** Set a new interval */
public void setInterval(int interval) {
    this.interval = interval;
    repaint();
}

@Override /** Paint the message */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);

    // Get font metrics for the current font
    FontMetrics fm = g.getFontMetrics();

    // Find the center location to display
    int stringWidth = fm.stringWidth(message);
    int stringAscent = fm.getAscent();

    // Get the position of the leftmost character in the baseline
    xCoordinate = getWidth() / 2 - stringWidth / 2;
    yCoordinate = getHeight() / 2 + stringAscent / 2;

    g.drawString(message, xCoordinate, yCoordinate);
}

/** Move the message left */
public void moveLeft() {
    xCoordinate -= interval;
    repaint();
}

/** Move the message right */
public void moveRight() {
    xCoordinate += interval;
}
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```java
115    repaint();
116  }
117
118    /** Move the message up */
119    public void moveUp() {
120      yCoordinate -= interval;
121      repaint();
122    }
123
124    /** Move the message down */
125    public void moveDown() {
126      yCoordinate += interval;
127      repaint();
128    }
129
130    @Override /** Override get method for preferredSize */
131    public Dimension getPreferredSize() {
132      return new Dimension(200, 30);
133    }
134  }
```

The `paintComponent` method displays the message centered, if the `centered` property is `true` (line 91). `message` is initialized to **Welcome to Java** in line 8. If it were not initialized, a `NullPointerException` runtime error would occur when you created a `MessagePanel` using the no-arg constructor, because `message` would be `null` in line 103.

**Caution**
The `MessagePanel` class uses the properties `xCoordinate` and `yCoordinate` to specify the position of the message displayed on the panel. Do not use the property names `x` and `y`, because they are already defined in the `Component` class to return the position of the component in the parent's coordinate system using `getX()` and `getY()`.

**Note**
The `Component` class has the `setBackground`, `setForeground`, and `setFont` methods. These methods are for setting colors and fonts for the entire component. If you wanted to draw several messages in a panel with different colors and fonts, you would have to use the `setColor` and `setFont` methods in the `Graphics` class to set the color and font for the current drawing.

**Note**
A key feature of Java programming is the reuse of classes. Throughout this book, reusable classes are developed and later reused. `MessagePanel` is an example, as are `Loan` in Listing 10.2 and `FigurePanel` in Listing 13.3. `MessagePanel` can be reused whenever you need to display a message on a panel. To make your class reusable in a wide range of applications, you should provide a variety of ways to use it. `MessagePanel` provides many properties and methods that will be used in several examples in the book.

13.21 If `message` is not initialized in line 8 in Listing 13.8, MessagePanel.java, what will happen when you create a `MessagePanel` using its no-arg constructor?

13.22 The following program is supposed to display a message on a panel, but nothing is displayed. There are problems in lines 2 and 15. Correct them.
public class TestDrawMessage extends javax.swing.JFrame {
    public void TestDrawMessage() {
        add(new DrawMessage());
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        javax.swing.JFrame frame = new TestDrawMessage();
        frame.setSize(100, 200);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

class DrawMessage extends javax.swing.JPanel {
    protected void PaintComponent(java.awt.Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        g.drawString("Welcome to Java", 20, 20);
    }
}

13.9 Case Study: The StillClock Class

This case study develops a class that displays a clock on a panel.

The contract of the StillClock class is shown in Figure 13.20.

Let us first write a test program in Listing 13.9 that uses the StillClock class to display an analog clock and uses the MessagePanel class to display the hour, minute, and second in a panel, as shown in Figure 13.21a.

LISTING 13.9 DisplayClock.java

import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayClock extends JFrame {

public DisplayClock() {
    // Create an analog clock for the current time
    StillClock clock = new StillClock();

    // Display hour, minute, and second in the message panel
    MessagePanel messagePanel = new MessagePanel(clock.getHour() + 
        ":" + clock.getMinute() + ":" + clock.getSecond());
    messagePanel.setCentered(true);
    messagePanel.setForeground(Color.blue);
    messagePanel.setFont(new Font("Courier", Font.BOLD, 16));

    // Add the clock and message panel to the frame
    add(clock);
    add(messagePanel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
}

public static void main(String[] args) {
    DisplayClock frame = new DisplayClock();
    frame.setTitle("DisplayClock");
    frame.setSize(300, 350);
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

Figure 13.21 (a) The DisplayClock program displays a clock that shows the current
time. (b) The endpoint of a clock hand can be determined, given the spanning angle, the
hand length, and the center point.

The rest of this section explains how to implement the StillClock class. Since you can use
the class without knowing how it is implemented, you may skip the implementation if you
wish.

To draw a clock, you need to draw a circle and three hands for the second, minute, and
hour. To draw a hand, you need to specify the two ends of the line. As shown in Figure
13.21b, one end is the center of the clock at \((x_{\text{Center}}, y_{\text{Center}})\); the other end, at
\((x_{\text{End}}, y_{\text{End}})\), is determined by the following formula:

\[
\begin{align*}
    x_{\text{End}} &= x_{\text{Center}} + \text{handLength} \times \sin(\theta) \\
    y_{\text{End}} &= y_{\text{Center}} - \text{handLength} \times \cos(\theta)
\end{align*}
\]

Since there are 60 seconds in one minute, the angle for the second hand is

\[\text{second} \times (2\pi/60)\]
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The position of the minute hand is determined by the minute and second. The exact minute value combined with seconds is \( \text{minute} + \frac{\text{second}}{60} \). For example, if the time is 3 minutes and 30 seconds, the total minutes are 3.5. Since there are 60 minutes in one hour, the angle for the minute hand is

\[
(\text{minute} + \frac{\text{second}}{60}) \times \left(\frac{2\pi}{60}\right)
\]

Since one circle is divided into 12 hours, the angle for the hour hand is

\[
(\text{hour} + \frac{\text{minute}}{60} + \frac{\text{second}}{60 \times 60}) \times \left(\frac{2\pi}{12}\right)
\]

For simplicity in computing the angles of the minute hand and hour hand, you can omit the seconds, because they are negligibly small. Therefore, the endpoints for the second hand, minute hand, and hour hand can be computed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{xSecond} &= \text{xCenter} + \text{secondHandLength} \times \sin\left(\frac{\text{second} \times (2\pi/60)}{}\right) \\
\text{ySecond} &= \text{yCenter} - \text{secondHandLength} \times \cos\left(\frac{\text{second} \times (2\pi/60)}{}\right) \\
\text{xMinute} &= \text{xCenter} + \text{minuteHandLength} \times \sin\left(\frac{\text{minute} \times (2\pi/60)}{}\right) \\
\text{yMinute} &= \text{yCenter} - \text{minuteHandLength} \times \cos\left(\frac{\text{minute} \times (2\pi/60)}{}\right) \\
\text{xHour} &= \text{xCenter} + \text{hourHandLength} \times \sin\left(\left(\text{hour} + \frac{\text{minute}}{60}\right) \times \frac{2\pi}{12}\right) \\
\text{yHour} &= \text{yCenter} - \text{hourHandLength} \times \cos\left(\left(\text{hour} + \frac{\text{minute}}{60}\right) \times \frac{2\pi}{12}\right)
\end{align*}
\]

The StillClock class is implemented in Listing 13.10.

**LISTING 13.10  StillClock.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.util.*;

public class StillClock extends JPanel {
    private int hour;
    private int minute;
    private int second;

    /** Construct a default clock with the current time*/
    public StillClock() {
        setCurrentTime();
    }

    /** Construct a clock with specified hour, minute, and second */
    public StillClock(int hour, int minute, int second) {
        this.hour = hour;
        this.minute = minute;
        this.second = second;
    }

    /** Return hour */
    public int getHour() {
        return hour;
    }

    /** Set a new hour */
    public void setHour(int hour) {
        this.hour = hour;
        repaint();
    }

    /** Return minute */
```
public int getMinute() {
    return minute;
}

/** Set a new minute */
public void setMinute(int minute) {
    this.minute = minute;
    repaint();
}

/** Return second */
public int getSecond() {
    return second;
}

/** Set a new second */
public void setSecond(int second) {
    this.second = second;
    repaint();
}

@Override /** Draw the clock */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);

    // Initialize clock parameters
    int clockRadius =
        (int)(Math.min(getWidth(), getHeight()) * 0.8 * 0.5);
    int xCenter = getWidth() / 2;
    int yCenter = getHeight() / 2;

    // Draw circle
    g.setColor(Color.BLACK);
    g.drawOval(xCenter - clockRadius, yCenter - clockRadius, 2 * clockRadius, 2 * clockRadius);
    g.drawString("12", xCenter - 5, yCenter - clockRadius + 12);
    g.drawString("9", xCenter - clockRadius + 3, yCenter + 5);
    g.drawString("3", xCenter + clockRadius - 10, yCenter + 3);
    g.drawString("6", xCenter - 3, yCenter + clockRadius - 3);

    // Draw second hand
    int sLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.8);
    int xSecond = (int)(xCenter + sLength *
        Math.sin(second * (2 * Math.PI / 60)));
    int ySecond = (int)(yCenter - sLength *
        Math.cos(second * (2 * Math.PI / 60)));
    g.setColor(Color.red);
    g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xSecond, ySecond);

    // Draw minute hand
    int mLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.65);
    int xMinute = (int)(xCenter + mLength *
        Math.sin(minute * (2 * Math.PI / 60)));
    int yMinute = (int)(yCenter - mLength *
        Math.cos(minute * (2 * Math.PI / 60)));
    g.setColor(Color.blue);
    g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xMinute, yMinute);

    // Draw hour hand
    int hLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.5);
```java
int xHour = (int)(xCenter + hLength * Math.sin((hour % 12 + minute / 60.0) * (2 * Math.PI / 12)));
int yHour = (int)(yCenter - hLength * Math.cos((hour % 12 + minute / 60.0) * (2 * Math.PI / 12)));
g.setColor(Color.green);
g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xHour, yHour);
}

public void setCurrentTime() {
// Construct a calendar for the current date and time
Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar();

// Set current hour, minute, and second
this.hour = calendar.get(Calendar.HOUR_OF_DAY);
this.minute = calendar.get(Calendar.MINUTE);
this.second = calendar.get(Calendar.SECOND);
}

@Override
public Dimension getPreferredSize() {
return new Dimension(200, 200);
}
}
```

The program enables the clock size to adjust as the frame resizes. Every time you resize the frame, the `paintComponent` method is automatically invoked to paint a new clock. The `paintComponent` method displays the clock in proportion to the panel width (`getWidth()`) and height (`getHeight()`) (lines 60–63 in `StillClock`).

### 13.10 Displaying Images

You can draw images in a graphics context.

You learned how to create image icons and display them in labels and buttons in Section 12.10, Image Icons. For example, the following statements create an image icon and display it in a label:

```java
ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
JLabel jlblImage = new JLabel(imageIcon);
```

An image icon displays a fixed-size image. To display an image in a flexible size, you need to use the `java.awt.Image` class. An image can be created from an image icon using the `getImage()` method as follows:

```java
Image image = imageIcon.getImage();
```

Using a label as an area for displaying images is simple and convenient, but you don’t have much control over how the image is displayed. A more flexible way to display images is to use the `drawImage` method of the `Graphics` class on a panel. Four versions of the `drawImage` method are shown in Figure 13.22.

`ImageObserver` specifies a GUI component for receiving notifications of image information as the image is constructed. To draw images using the `drawImage` method in a Swing component, such as `JPanel`, override the `paintComponent` method to tell the component how to display the image in the panel.

Listing 13.11 gives the code that displays an image from `image/us.gif`. The file `image/us.gif` (line 20) is under the class directory. An `Image` object is obtained in line 21. The `drawImage` method displays the image to fill in the whole panel, as shown in Figure 13.23.
13.10 Displaying Images

**Listing 13.11** DisplayImage.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayImage extends JFrame {
    public DisplayImage() {
        add(new ImagePanel());
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new DisplayImage();
        frame.setTitle("DisplayImage");
        frame.setSize(300, 300);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}

class ImagePanel extends JPanel {
    private ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
    private Image image = imageIcon.getImage();

    @Override /** Draw image on the panel */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        if (image != null)
            g.drawImage(image, 0, 0, getWidth(), getHeight(), this);
    }
}
```

**Figure 13.22** You can apply the `drawImage` method on a `Graphics` object to display an image on a GUI component.

**Figure 13.23** An image is displayed in a panel.
13.11 Case Study: The **ImageViewer** Class

This case study develops the **ImageViewer** class for displaying an image in a panel.

Displaying an image is a common task in Java programming. This case study develops a reusable component named **ImageViewer** that displays an image on a panel. The class contains the properties **image**, **stretched**, **xCoordinate**, and **yCoordinate**, with associated accessor and mutator methods, as shown in Figure 13.24.

You can use images in Swing components such as **JLabel** and **JButton**, but these images are not stretchable. The image in an **ImageViewer** can be stretched.

Let us write a test program in Listing 13.12 that displays six images using the **ImageViewer** class. Figure 13.25 shows a sample run of the program.

**Listing 13.12** SixFlags.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class SixFlags extends JFrame {

    public SixFlags() {
        Image image1 = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif").getImage();
        Image image2 = new ImageIcon("image/ca.gif").getImage();
        Image image3 = new ImageIcon("image/india.gif").getImage();
        Image image4 = new ImageIcon("image/uk.gif").getImage();
        Image image5 = new ImageIcon("image/china.gif").getImage();
        Image image6 = new ImageIcon("image/norway.gif").getImage();

        setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 0, 5, 5));
        add(new ImageViewer(image1));
        add(new ImageViewer(image2));
        add(new ImageViewer(image3));
        add(new ImageViewer(image4));
        add(new ImageViewer(image5));
        add(new ImageViewer(image6));
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        SixFlags frame = new SixFlags();
        frame.setTitle("SixFlags");
        frame.setSize(400, 320);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    }
}
```

**Figure 13.24** The **ImageViewer** class displays an image on a panel.
The **ImageViewer** class is implemented in Listing 13.13. (Note: You may skip the implementation.) The accessor and mutator methods for the properties `image`, `stretched`, `xCoordinate`, and `yCoordinate` are easy to implement. The `paintComponent` method (lines 27–36) displays the image on the panel. Line 30 ensures that the image is not `null` before displaying it. Line 31 checks whether the image is stretched or not.

**Listing 13.13** ImageViewer.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ImageViewer extends JPanel {
    /** Hold value of property image */
    private java.awt.Image image;

    /** Hold value of property stretched */
    private boolean stretched = true;

    /** Hold value of property xCoordinate */
    private int xCoordinate;

    /** Hold value of property yCoordinate */
    private int yCoordinate;

    /** Construct an empty image viewer */
    public ImageViewer() {
    }

    /** Construct an image viewer for a specified Image object */
    public ImageViewer(Image image) {
        this.image = image;
    }

    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        if (image != null)
        if (isStretched())
            g.drawImage(image, xCoordinate, yCoordinate, getWidth(), getHeight(), this);
        else
            g.drawImage(image, xCoordinate, yCoordinate, this);
    }
}
```

**Figure 13.25** Six images are displayed in six ImageViewer components.
/** Return value of property image */
public java.awt.Image getImage() {
    return image;
}
/** Set a new value for property image */
public void setImage(java.awt.Image image) {
    this.image = image;
    repaint();
}
/** Return value of property stretched */
public boolean isStretched() {
    return stretched;
}
/** Set a new value for property stretched */
public void setStretched(boolean stretched) {
    this.stretched = stretched;
    repaint();
}
/** Return value of property xCoordinate */
public int getXCoordinate() {
    return xCoordinate;
}
/** Set a new value for property xCoordinate */
public void setXCoordinate(int xCoordinate) {
    this.xCoordinate = xCoordinate;
    repaint();
}
/** Return value of property yCoordinate */
public int getYCoordinate() {
    return yCoordinate;
}
/** Set a new value for property yCoordinate */
public void setYCoordinate(int yCoordinate) {
    this.yCoordinate = yCoordinate;
    repaint();
}

13.23 How do you create an Image object from the ImageIcon object?
13.24 How do you create an ImageIcon object from an Image object?
13.25 Describe the drawImage method in the Graphics class.
13.26 Explain the differences between displaying images in a JLabel and in a JPanel.
13.27 Which package contains ImageIcon, and which contains Image?

Chapter Summary

1. Each component has its own coordinate system with the origin (0, 0) at the upper-left corner of the window. In Java, the x-coordinate increases to the right, and the y-coordinate increases downward.
2. Whenever a component (e.g., a button, a label, or a panel) is displayed, the JVM automatically creates a Graphics object for the component on the native platform and passes this object to invoke the paintComponent method to display the drawings.

3. Normally you use JPanel as a canvas. To draw on a JPanel, you create a new class that extends JPanel and overrides the paintComponent method to tell the panel how to draw graphics.

4. Invoking super.paintComponent(g) is necessary to ensure that the viewing area is cleared before a new drawing is displayed. The user can request the component to be redisplayed by invoking the repaint() method defined in the Component class. Invoking repaint() causes paintComponent to be invoked by the JVM. The user should never invoke paintComponent directly. For this reason, the protected visibility is sufficient for paintComponent.

5. The Component class has the setBackground, setForeground, and setFont methods. These methods are used to set colors and fonts for the entire component. If you want to draw several messages in a panel with different colors and fonts, you have to use the setColor and setFont methods in the Graphics class to set the color and font for the current drawing.

6. FontMetrics can be used to compute the exact length and width of a string, which is helpful for measuring the size of a string in order to display it in the right position.

7. To display an image, first create an image icon. You can then use ImageIcon's getImage() method to get an Image object for the image and draw the image using the drawImage method in the java.awt.Graphics class.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 13.2–13.7

*13.1 (Display a 3 × 3 grid) Write a program that displays a 3 × 3 grid, as shown in Figure 13.26a. Use red color for vertical lines and blue for horizontals.

**13.2 (Create a custom button class) Develop a custom button class named OvalButton that extends JButton and displays the button text inside an oval. Figure 13.26b shows two buttons created using the OvalButton class.

13.3 (Display a checkerboard) Programming Exercise 12.10 displays a checkerboard in which each white and black cell is a JButton. Rewrite a program that draws a checkerboard on a JPanel using the drawing methods in the Graphics class, as shown in Figure 13.26c. Use the drawRect method to draw each cell in the checkerboard.

*13.4 (Display a multiplication table) Write a program that displays a multiplication table in a panel using the drawing methods, as shown in Figure 13.27a.
**13.5** (Display numbers in a triangular pattern) Write a program that displays numbers in a triangular pattern, as shown in Figure 13.27b. The number of lines in the display changes to fit the window as the window resizes.

**13.6** (Improve FigurePanel) The FigurePanel class in Listing 13.3 can display lines, rectangles, round-cornered rectangles, and ovals. Add appropriate new code in the class to display arcs and polygons. Write a test program to display the shapes as shown in Figure 13.28a using the new FigurePanel class.

**13.7** (Display a tic-tac-toe board) Create a custom panel that displays X, O, or nothing. What to display is randomly decided whenever a panel is repainted. Use the Math.random() method to generate an integer 0, 1, or 2, which corresponds to displaying X, O, or nothing. Create a frame that contains nine custom panels, as shown in Figure 13.28b.

**13.8** (Draw an octagon) Write a program that draws an octagon, as shown in Figure 13.28c.
*13.9 (Create four fans) Write a program that places four fans in a frame of GridLayout with two rows and two columns, as shown in Figure 13.29a.

*13.10 (Display a cylinder) Write a program that draws a cylinder, as shown in Figure 13.29b.

*13.11 (Plot the square function) Write a program that draws a diagram for the function \( f(x) = x^2 \) (see Figure 13.29c).

**13.12 (Plot the sine and cosine functions) Write a program that plots the sine function in red and cosine in blue, as shown in Figure 13.30a.
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Hint: The Unicode for π is \u03c0. To display $-2\pi$, use
\texttt{g.drawString("-2\u03c0", \ x, \ y)}. For a trigonometric function like
\texttt{sin(x)}, \ x \ is \ in \ radians. Use the following loop to add the points to a polygon \texttt{p}:

\begin{verbatim}
for (int \ x = -170; \ x <= 170; \ x++) {
    p.addPoint(x + 200,
               100 - (int)(50 * Math.sin((x / 100.0) * 2 * Math.PI)))
}
\end{verbatim}

$-2\pi$ is at $(100, \ 100)$, the center of the axis is at $(200, \ 100)$, and $2\pi$ is at $(300, \ 100)$. Use the \texttt{drawPolyline} method in the \texttt{Graphics} class to connect the points.

**13.13 (Paint a smiley face)** Write a program that paints a smiley face, as shown in Figure 13.30b.

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure13_30}
\caption{(a) Exercise 13.12 plots the sine/cosine functions. (b) Exercise 13.13 paints a smiley face.}
\end{figure}

**13.14 (Display a bar chart)** Write a program that uses a bar chart to display the percentages of the overall grade represented by projects, quizzes, midterm exams, and the final exam, as shown in Figure 13.1a. Suppose that projects take 20 percent and are displayed in red, quizzes take 10 percent and are displayed in blue, midterm exams take 30 percent and are displayed in green, and the final exam takes 40 percent and is displayed in orange.

**13.15 (Display a pie chart)** Write a program that uses a pie chart to display the percentages of the overall grade represented by projects, quizzes, midterm exams, and the final exam, as shown in Figure 13.31a. Suppose that projects take 20 percent and are displayed in red, quizzes take 10 percent and are displayed in blue, midterm exams take 30 percent and are displayed in green, and the final exam takes 40 percent and is displayed in orange.

**13.16 (Obtain font information)** Write a program that displays the message \texttt{Java is fun} in a panel. Set the panel’s font to \texttt{TimesRoman, bold}, and 20 pixel. Display the font’s leading, ascent, descent, height, and the string width as a tool tip text for the panel, as shown in Figure 13.31b.

**13.17 (Game: hangman)** Write a program that displays a drawing for the popular hangman game, as shown in Figure 13.31c.
13.18 (Use the StillClock class) Write a program that displays two clocks. The hour, minute, and second values are 4, 20, 45 for the first clock and 22, 46, 15 for the second clock, as shown in Figure 13.32a.

*13.19 (Random time) Modify the StillClock class with three new Boolean properties—hourHandVisible, minuteHandVisible, and secondHandVisible—and their associated accessor and mutator methods. You can use the set methods to make a hand visible or invisible. Write a test program that displays only the hour and minute hands. The hour and minute values are randomly generated. The hour is between 0 and 11, and the minute is either 0 or 30, as shown in Figure 13.32b.

**13.20 (Draw a detailed clock) Modify the StillClock class in Section 13.9 to draw the clock with more details on the hours and minutes, as shown in Figure 13.1b.

**13.21 (Display a tic-tac-toe board with images) Rewrite Programming Exercise 12.7 to display an image in a JPanel instead of displaying an image icon in a JLabel.

*13.22 (Display a STOP sign) Write a program that displays a STOP sign, as shown in Figure 13.1c. The hexagon is in red and the sign is in white. (Hint: See Listing 13.5, DrawPolygon.java, and Listing 13.6, TestCenterMessage.java.)
13.23  *(Display a rectanguloid)* Write a program that displays a rectanguloid, as shown in Figure 13.32c. The cube should grow and shrink as the frame grows or shrinks.

**13.24  *(Game: bean machine)* Write a program that displays a bean machine introduced in Programming Exercise 6.21. The bean machine should be centered in a resizable panel, as shown in Figure 13.32d.

**13.25  *(Geometry: display an n-sided regular polygon)* Define a subclass of JPanel, named RegularPolygonPanel, to paint an n-sided regular polygon. The class contains a property named numberOfSides, which specifies the number of sides in the polygon. The polygon is centered in the panel. The size of the polygon is proportional to the size of the panel. Create a pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, octagon, nonagon, and decagon from RegularPolygonPanel and display them in a frame, as shown in Figure 13.33a.

![Image](image_url)

**Figure 13.33** (a) Exercise 13.25 displays several n-sided polygons. (b) Exercise 13.26 uses MessagePanel to display four strings. (c) The polygon and its strategic point are displayed.

Sections 13.8–13.11

13.26  *(Use the MessagePanel class)* Write a program that displays four messages, as shown in Figure 13.33b.

**13.27  *(Geometry: strategic point of a polygon)* The strategic point of a polygon is a point inside the polygon that has the shortest total distance to all vertices. Write a program that finds and displays the strategic point, as shown in Figure 13.33c. Your program should pass the coordinates of the polygon’s vertices clockwise from the command line as follows:

```
java Exercise13_27 x1 y1 x2 y2 x3 y3 ... 
```

The program displays the polygon and its strategic point in the frame. *(Hint: To find the strategic point, consider every pixel point inside the polygon to see if it is a strategic point. Use the contains method to check whether a point is inside the polygon.)*

**13.28  *(Draw an arrow line)* Write a static method that draws an arrow line from a starting point to an ending point using the following method header:

```
public static void drawArrowLine(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, Graphics g)
```

Write a test program that randomly draws an arrow line, as shown in Figure 13.34a. Whenever you resize the frame, a new arrow line is drawn.

*13.29  *(Two circles and their distance)* Write a program that draws two filled circles with radius 15 pixels, centered at random locations, with a line connecting the two circles. The distance between the two centers is displayed on the line, as shown in Figure 13.34b-c. Whenever you resize the frame, the circles are re-displayed in new random locations.
*13.30 (Connect two circles) Write a program that draws two filled circles with radius 15 pixels, centered at random locations, with a line connecting the two circles. The line should not cross inside the circles, as shown in Figure 13.34d-e. When you resize the frame, the circles are redisplayed in new random locations.

*13.31 (Geometry: Inside a polygon?) Write a program that passes the coordinates of five points from the command line as follows:

```
java Exercise13_31 x1 y1 x2 y2 x3 y3 x4 y4 x5 y5
```

The first four points form a polygon, and the program displays the polygon in a panel and a message in a label that indicates whether the fifth point is inside the polygon, as shown in Figure 13.35a.
*13.32 (Geometry: two rectangles) Write a program that passes the center coordinates, width, and height of two rectangles from the command line as follows:

```java
java Exercise13_32 x1 y1 w1 h1 x2 y2 w2 h2
```

The program displays the rectangles in a panel and a message indicating whether the two are overlapping, whether one is contained in the other, or whether they don’t overlap, as shown in Figure 13.35b-d. Display the message in a label. See Programming Exercise 10.13 for checking the relationship between two rectangles.
EXCEPTION HANDLING AND TEXT I/O

Objectives

■ To get an overview of exceptions and exception handling (§14.2).
■ To explore the advantages of using exception handling (§14.2).
■ To distinguish exception types: Error (fatal) vs. Exception (nonfatal) and checked vs. unchecked (§14.3).
■ To declare exceptions in a method header (§14.4.1).
■ To throw exceptions in a method (§14.4.2).
■ To write a try-catch block to handle exceptions (§14.4.3).
■ To explain how an exception is propagated (§14.4.3).
■ To obtain information from an exception object (§14.4.4).
■ To develop applications with exception handling (§14.4.5).
■ To use the finally clause in a try-catch block (§14.5).
■ To use exceptions only for unexpected errors (§14.6).
■ To rethrow exceptions in a catch block (§14.7).
■ To create chained exceptions (§14.8).
■ To define custom exception classes (§14.9).
■ To discover file/directory properties, to delete and rename files/directories, and to create directories using the File class (§14.10).
■ To write data to a file using the PrintWriter class (§14.11.1).
■ To read data from a file using the Scanner class (§14.11.2).
■ To understand how data is read using a Scanner (§14.11.3).
■ To develop a program that replaces text in a file (§14.11.4).
■ To open files using a file dialog box (§14.12).
■ To read data from the Web (§14.13).
14.1 Introduction

Exception handling enables a program to deal with exceptional situations and continue its normal execution.

Runtime errors occur while a program is running if the JVM detects an operation that is impossible to carry out. For example, if you access an array using an index that is out of bounds, you will get a runtime error with an `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`. If you enter a `double` value when your program expects an integer, you will get a runtime error with an `InputMismatchException`.

In Java, runtime errors are thrown as exceptions. An exception is an object that represents an error or a condition that prevents execution from proceeding normally. If the exception is not handled, the program will terminate abnormally. How can you handle the exception so that the program can continue to run or else terminate gracefully? This chapter introduces this subject and text input and output.

14.2 Exception-Handling Overview

Exceptions are thrown from a method. The caller of the method can catch and handle the exception.

To demonstrate exception handling, including how an exception object is created and thrown, let’s begin with the example in Listing 14.1, which reads in two integers and displays their quotient.

**Listing 14.1 Quotient.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class Quotient {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
    // Prompt the user to enter two integers
    System.out.print("Enter two integers: ");
    int number1 = input.nextInt();
    int number2 = input.nextInt();
    System.out.println(number1 + " / " + number2 + " is " + (number1 / number2));
  }
}
```

If you entered 0 for the second number, a runtime error would occur, because you cannot divide an integer by 0. (Recall that a floating-point number divided by 0 does not raise an exception.) A simple way to fix this error is to add an `if` statement to test the second number, as shown in Listing 14.2.
14.2 Exception-Handling Overview

To demonstrate the concept of exception handling, we can rewrite Listing 14.2 to compute a quotient using a method, as shown in Listing 14.3.

**LISTING 14.3 QuotientWithMethod.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class QuotientWithMethod {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Prompt the user to enter two integers
        System.out.print("Enter two integers: ");
        int number1 = input.nextInt();
        int number2 = input.nextInt();
        if (number2 != 0) {
            System.out.println(number1 + "/" + number2 + " is " + (number1 / number2));
        } else {
            System.out.println("Divisor cannot be zero");
        }
    }
}
```

To demonstrate the concept of exception handling, we can rewrite Listing 14.2 to compute a quotient using a method, as shown in Listing 14.3.

**LISTING 14.3 QuotientWithMethod.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class QuotientWithMethod {
    public static int quotient(int number1, int number2) {
        if (number2 == 0) {
            System.out.println("Divisor cannot be zero");
            System.exit(1);
        }
        return number1 / number2;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        // Prompt the user to enter two integers
        System.out.print("Enter two integers: ");
        int number1 = input.nextInt();
        int number2 = input.nextInt();
        int result = quotient(number1, number2);
        System.out.println(number1 + "/" + number2 + " is " + result);
    }
}
```
The method `quotient` (lines 4–11) returns the quotient of two integers. If `number2` is 0, it cannot return a value, so the program is terminated in line 7. This is clearly a problem. You should not let the method terminate the program—the caller should decide whether to terminate the program.

How can a method notify its caller an exception has occurred? Java enables a method to throw an exception that can be caught and handled by the caller. Listing 14.3 can be rewritten, as shown in Listing 14.4.

**Listing 14.4 QuotientWithException.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class QuotientWithException {
    public static int quotient(int number1, int number2) {
        if (number2 == 0)
            throw new ArithmeticException("Divisor cannot be zero");
        return number1 / number2;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter two integers: ");
        int number1 = input.nextInt();
        int number2 = input.nextInt();
        try {
            int result = quotient(number1, number2);
            System.out.println(number1 + " / " + number2 + " is " + result);
        } catch (ArithmeticException ex) {
            System.out.println("Exception: an integer "+
                "cannot be divided by zero ");
        }
        System.out.println("Execution continues ...");
    }
}
```

Enter two integers: 5 3
5 / 3 is 1

Enter two integers: 5 0
Divisor cannot be zero

Enter two integers: 5 3
5 / 3 is 1
Execution continues ...
If `number2` is 0, the method throws an exception (line 6) by executing

```
    throw new Exception("Divisor cannot be zero");
```

The value thrown, in this case `new Exception("Divisor cannot be zero")`, is called an exception. The execution of a `throw` statement is called throwing an exception. The exception is an object created from an exception class. In this case, the exception class is `java.lang.ArithmeticException`. The constructor `ArithmeticException(String)` is invoked to construct an exception object, where `str` is a message that describes the exception.

When an exception is thrown, the normal execution flow is interrupted. As the name suggests, to “throw an exception” is to pass the exception from one place to another. The statement for invoking the method is contained in a `try` block and a `catch` block. The `try` block (lines 19–23) contains the code that is executed in normal circumstances. The exception is caught by the `catch` block. The code in the `catch` block is executed to handle the exception. Afterward, the statement (line 29) after the `catch` block is executed.

The `throw` statement is analogous to a method call, but instead of calling a method, it calls a `catch` block. In this sense, a `catch` block is like a method definition with a parameter that matches the type of the value being thrown. Unlike a method, however, after the `catch` block is executed, the program control does not return to the `throw` statement; instead, it executes the next statement after the `catch` block.

The identifier `ex` in the `catch`-block header

```
    catch (Exception ex)
```

acts very much like a parameter in a method. Thus, this parameter is referred to as a `catch`-block parameter. The type (e.g., `ArithmeticException`) preceding `ex` specifies what kind of exception the `catch` block can catch. Once the exception is caught, you can access the thrown value from this parameter in the body of a `catch` block.

In summary, a template for a `try-throw-catch` block may look like this:

```
try {
    Code to run;
    A statement or a method that may throw an exception;
    More code to run;
}
catch (Exception ex) {
    Code to process the exception;
}
```

An exception may be thrown directly by using a `throw` statement in a `try` block, or by invoking a method that may throw an exception.

The main method invokes `quotient` (line 20). If the `quotient` method executes normally, it returns a value to the caller. If the `quotient` method encounters an exception, it throws the exception back to its caller. The caller's `catch` block handles the exception.

Now you can see the advantage of using exception handling: It enables a method to throw an exception to its caller, enabling the caller to handle the exception. Without this capability, the called method itself must handle the exception or terminate the program. Often the called method does not know what to do in case of error. This is typically the case for the library methods. The library method can detect the error, but only the caller knows what needs to be
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done when an error occurs. The key benefit of exception handling is separating the detection of an error (done in a called method) from the handling of an error (done in the calling method).

Many library methods throw exceptions. Listing 14.5 gives an example that handles an InputMismatchException when reading an input.

**LISTING 14.5 InputMismatchExceptionDemo.java**

```java
import java.util.*;

public class InputMismatchExceptionDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        boolean continueInput = true;

        do {
            try {
                System.out.print("Enter an integer: ");
                int number = input.nextInt();
            } catch (InputMismatchException ex) {
                System.out.println("Try again. (Incorrect input: an integer is required)");
                input.nextLine(); // Discard input
            }
            continueInput = false;
        } while (continueInput);
    }
}
```

When executing `input.nextInt()` (line 11), an InputMismatchException occurs if the input entered is not an integer. Suppose 3.5 is entered. An InputMismatchException occurs and the control is transferred to the catch block. The statements in the catch block are now executed. The statement `input.nextLine()` in line 22 discards the current input line so that the user can enter a new line of input. The variable `continueInput` controls the loop. Its initial value is true (line 6), and it is changed to false (line 17) when a valid input is received. Once a valid input is received, there is no need to continue the input.

**Check Point**

14.1 What is the advantage of using exception handling?
14.2 Which of the following statements will throw an exception?

```
System.out.println(1 / 0);
System.out.println(1.0 / 0);
```
14.3 Point out the problem in the following code. Does the code throw any exceptions?

```java
long value = Long.MAX_VALUE + 1;
System.out.println(value);
```

14.4 What does the JVM do when an exception occurs? How do you catch an exception?

14.5 What is the printout of the following code?

```java
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    int value = 30;
    if (value < 40)
      throw new Exception("value is too small");
    try {
      System.out.println(ex.getMessage());
    }
    catch (Exception ex) {
      System.out.println("Continue after the catch block");
    }
  }
}
```

What would be the printout if the line

```java
int value = 30;
```

were changed to

```java
int value = 50;
```

14.6 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++) {
      System.out.print(i + " ");
      try {
        System.out.println(1 / 0);
      }
      catch (Exception ex) {
      }
    }
  }
}
```

(a) (b)

14.3 Exception Types

Exceptions are objects, and objects are defined using classes. The root class for exceptions is `java.lang.Throwable`.

The preceding section used the classes `ArithmeticException` and `InputMismatchException`. Are there any other types of exceptions you can use? Can you define your own exception classes? Yes. There are many predefined exception classes in the Java API. Figure 14.1 shows some of them, and in Section 14.9 you will learn how to define your own exception classes.
Chapter 14 Exception Handling and Text I/O

Note
The class names Error, Exception, and RuntimeException are somewhat confusing. All three of these classes are exceptions, and all of the errors occur at runtime.

The Throwable class is the root of exception classes. All Java exception classes inherit directly or indirectly from Throwable. You can create your own exception classes by extending Exception or a subclass of Exception.

The exception classes can be classified into three major types: system errors, exceptions, and runtime exceptions.

- **System errors** are thrown by the JVM and are represented in the Error class. The Error class describes internal system errors, though such errors rarely occur. If one does, there is little you can do beyond notifying the user and trying to terminate the program gracefully. Examples of subclasses of Error are listed in Table 14.1.

- **Exceptions** are represented in the Exception class, which describes errors caused by your program and by external circumstances. These errors can be caught and handled by your program. Examples of subclasses of Exception are listed in Table 14.2.

![Diagram of exception hierarchy]

**TABLE 14.1 Examples of Subclasses of Error**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Reasons for Exception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LinkageError</td>
<td>A class has some dependency on another class, but the latter class has changed incompatibly after the compilation of the former class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VirtualMachineError</td>
<td>The JVM is broken or has run out of the resources it needs in order to continue operating.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 14.2 Examples of Subclasses of Exception**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Reasons for Exception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ClassNotFoundException</td>
<td>Attempt to use a class that does not exist. This exception would occur, for example, if you tried to run a nonexistent class using the java command, or if your program were composed of, say, three class files, only two of which could be found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOException</td>
<td>Related to input/output operations, such as invalid input, reading past the end of a file, and opening a nonexistent file. Examples of subclasses of IOException are InterruptedException, EOFException (EOF is short for End of File), and FileNotFoundException.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Runtime exceptions are represented in the RuntimeException class, which describes programming errors, such as bad casting, accessing an out-of-bounds array, and numeric errors. Runtime exceptions are generally thrown by the JVM. Examples of subclasses are listed in Table 14.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Reasons for Exception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ArithmeticException</td>
<td>Dividing an integer by zero. Note that floating-point arithmetic does not throw exceptions (see Appendix E, Special Floating-Point Values).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NullPointerException</td>
<td>Attempt to access an object through a null reference variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IndexOutOfBoundsException</td>
<td>Index to an array is out of range.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IllegalArgumentException</td>
<td>A method is passed an argument that is illegal or inappropriate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RuntimeException, Error, and their subclasses are known as unchecked exceptions. All other exceptions are known as checked exceptions, meaning that the compiler forces the programmer to check and deal with them in a try-catch block or declare it in the method header. Declaring an exception in the method header will be covered in Section 14.4.

In most cases, unchecked exceptions reflect programming logic errors that are unrecoverable. For example, a NullPointerException is thrown if you access an object through a reference variable before an object is assigned to it; an IndexOutOfBoundsException is thrown if you access an element in an array outside the bounds of the array. These are logic errors that should be corrected in the program. Unchecked exceptions can occur anywhere in a program. To avoid cumbersome overuse of try-catch blocks, Java does not mandate that you write code to catch or declare unchecked exceptions.

14.7 Describe the Java Throwable class, its subclasses, and the types of exceptions.

14.8 What RuntimeException will the following programs throw, if any?
14.4 More on Exception Handling

A handler for an exception is found by propagating the exception backward through a chain of method calls, starting from the current method.

The preceding sections gave you an overview of exception handling and introduced several predefined exception types. This section provides an in-depth discussion of exception handling.

Java’s exception-handling model is based on three operations: declaring an exception, throwing an exception, and catching an exception, as shown in Figure 14.2.

![Figure 14.2 Exception handling in Java consists of declaring exceptions, throwing exceptions, and catching and processing exceptions.](image)

**14.4.1 Declaring Exceptions**

In Java, the statement currently being executed belongs to a method. The Java interpreter invokes the main method to start executing a program. Every method must state the types of checked exceptions it might throw. This is known as declaring exceptions. Because system errors and runtime errors can happen to any code, Java does not require that you declare Error and RuntimeException (unchecked exceptions) explicitly in the method. However, all other exceptions thrown by the method must be explicitly declared in the method header so that the caller of the method is informed of the exception.

To declare an exception in a method, use the throws keyword in the method header, as in this example:

```
public void myMethod() throws IOException
```

The throws keyword indicates that myMethod might throw an IOException. If the method might throw multiple exceptions, add a list of the exceptions, separated by commas, after throws:

```
public void myMethod()
    throws Exception1, Exception2, ..., ExceptionN
```

**Note**

If a method does not declare exceptions in the superclass, you cannot override it to declare exceptions in the subclass.

**14.4.2 Throwing Exceptions**

A program that detects an error can create an instance of an appropriate exception type and throw it. This is known as throwing an exception. Here is an example: Suppose the program detects that an argument passed to the method violates the method contract (e.g., the argument
must be nonnegative, but a negative argument is passed); the program can create an instance of `IllegalArgumentException` and throw it, as follows:

```java
IllegalArgumentException ex =
    new IllegalArgumentException("Wrong Argument");
throw ex;
```

Or, if you prefer, you can use the following:

```java
throw new IllegalArgumentException("Wrong Argument");
```

**Note**

`IllegalArgumentException` is an exception class in the Java API. In general, each exception class in the Java API has at least two constructors: a no-arg constructor, and a constructor with a `String` argument that describes the exception. This argument is called the `exception message`, which can be obtained using `getMessage()`.

**Tip**

The keyword to declare an exception is `throws`, and the keyword to throw an exception is `throw`.

### 14.4.3 Catching Exceptions

You now know how to declare an exception and how to throw an exception. When an exception is thrown, it can be caught and handled in a `try-catch` block, as follows:

```java
try {
    statements; // Statements that may throw exceptions
}
catch (Exception1 exVar1) {
    handler for exception1;
}
catch (Exception2 exVar2) {
    handler for exception2;
}
...
catch (ExceptionN exVar3) {
    handler for exceptionN;
}
```

If no exceptions arise during the execution of the `try` block, the `catch` blocks are skipped.

If one of the statements inside the `try` block throws an exception, Java skips the remaining statements in the `try` block and starts the process of finding the code to handle the exception. The code that handles the exception is called the `exception handler`; it is found by `propagating the exception` backward through a chain of method calls, starting from the current method. Each `catch` block is examined in turn, from first to last, to see whether the type of the exception object is an instance of the exception class in the `catch` block. If so, the exception object is assigned to the variable declared, and the code in the `catch` block is executed. If no handler is found, Java exits this method, passes the exception to the method that invoked the method, and continues the same process to find a handler. If no handler is found in the chain of methods being invoked, the program terminates and prints an error message on the console. The process of finding a handler is called `catching an exception.`
Suppose the main method invokes method1, method1 invokes method2, method2 invokes method3, and method3 throws an exception, as shown in Figure 14.3. Consider the following scenario:

- If the exception type is Exception3, it is caught by the catch block for handling exception ex3 in method2. statement5 is skipped, and statement6 is executed.

- If the exception type is Exception2, method2 is aborted, the control is returned to method1, and the exception is caught by the catch block for handling exception ex2 in method1. statement3 is skipped, and statement4 is executed.

- If the exception type is Exception1, method1 is aborted, the control is returned to the main method, and the exception is caught by the catch block for handling exception ex1 in the main method. statement1 is skipped, and statement2 is executed.

- If the exception type is not caught in method2, method1, or main, the program terminates, and statement1 and statement2 are not executed.

```java
main method {
    try {
        ...invoke method1;
        statement1;
    } catch (Exception1 ex1) {
        Process ex1;
    }
    statement2;
}

method1 {
    try {
        ...invoke method2;
        statement3;
    } catch (Exception2 ex2) {
        Process ex2;
    }
    statement4;
}

method2 {
    try {
        ...invoke method3;
        statement5;
    } catch (Exception3 ex3) {
        Process ex3;
    }
    statement6;
}
```

Call stack

```
main method
method1
main method
method2
main method
method3
```

**Figure 14.3** If an exception is not caught in the current method, it is passed to its caller. The process is repeated until the exception is caught or passed to the main method.

**Note**

Various exception classes can be derived from a common superclass. If a catch block catches exception objects of a superclass, it can catch all the exception objects of the subclasses of that superclass.

**Note**

The order in which exceptions are specified in catch blocks is important. A compile error will result if a catch block for a superclass type appears before a catch block for a subclass type. For example, the ordering in (a) on the next page is erroneous, because RuntimeException is a subclass of Exception. The correct ordering should be as shown in (b).
Note
Java forces you to deal with checked exceptions. If a method declares a checked exception (i.e., an exception other than Error or RuntimeException), you must invoke it in a try-catch block or declare to throw the exception in the calling method. For example, suppose that method p1 invokes method p2, and p2 may throw a checked exception (e.g., IOException); you have to write the code as shown in (a) or (b) below.

```java
void p1() {
    try {
        ...
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        ...
    } catch (RuntimeException ex) {
        ...
    }
}
```

(a) Wrong order

```java
void p1() {
    try {
        ...
    } catch (IOException ex) {
        ...
    }
}
```

(b) Correct order

catch or declare checked exceptions

Note
You can use the new JDK 7 multi-catch feature to simplify coding for the exceptions with the same handling code. The syntax is:

```java
catch (Exception1 | Exception2 | ... | Exceptionk ex) {
    // Code to handle exceptions
}
```

Each exception type is separated from the next with a vertical bar (|). If one of the exceptions is caught, the handling code is executed.

### 14.4.4 Getting Information from Exceptions
An exception object contains valuable information about the exception. You may use the following instance methods in the java.lang.Throwable class to get information regarding the exception, as shown in Figure 14.4. The printStackTrace() method prints stack trace methods in Throwable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>java.lang.Throwable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+getMessage(): String</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+toString(): String</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+printStackTrace(): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getStackTrace(): StackTraceElement[]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Returns the message that describes this exception object.
Returns the concatenation of three strings: (1) the full name of the exception class; (2) ":" (a colon and a space); (3) the getMessage() method.
Prints the Throwable object and its call stack trace information on the console.
Returns an array of stack trace elements representing the stack trace pertaining to this exception object.

**Figure 14.4** Throwable is the root class for all exception objects.
information on the console. The `getStackTrace()` method provides programmatic access to the stack trace information printed by `printStackTrace()`.

Listing 14.6 gives an example that uses the methods in `Throwable` to display exception information. Line 4 invokes the `sum` method to return the sum of all the elements in the array. There is an error in line 23 that causes the `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException`, a subclass of `IndexOutOfBoundsException`. This exception is caught in the `try-catch` block. Lines 7, 8, and 9 display the stack trace, exception message, and exception object and message using the `printStackTrace()`, `getMessage()`, and `toString()` methods, as shown in Figure 14.5. Line 12 brings stack trace elements into an array. Each element represents a method call. You can obtain the method (line 14), class name (line 15), and exception line number (line 16) for each element.

```
public class TestException {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
      System.out.println(sum(new int[] {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}));
    } catch (Exception ex) {
      ex.printStackTrace();
      System.out.println(ex.getMessage());
      System.out.println(ex.toString());
      StackTraceElement[] traceElements = ex.getStackTrace();
      for (int i = 0; i < traceElements.length; i++) {
        System.out.println("method "+ traceElements[i].getMethodName());
        System.out.println("(" + traceElements[i].getClassName() + ":");
        System.out.println(traceElements[i].getLineNumber() + ")");
      }
    }
  }

  private static int sum(int[] list) {
    int result = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i <= list.length; i++)
```
14.4 More on Exception Handling

14.4.5 Example: Declaring, Throwing, and Catching Exceptions

This example demonstrates declaring, throwing, and catching exceptions by modifying the setRadius method in the Circle class in Listing 8.9, CircleWithPrivateDataFields.java. The new setRadius method throws an exception if the radius is negative.

Listing 14.7 defines a new circle class named CircleWithException, which is the same as CircleWithPrivateDataFields except that the setRadius(double newRadius) method throws an IllegalArgumentException if the argument newRadius is negative.

**LISTING 14.7 CircleWithException.java**

```java
public class CircleWithException {
    /** The radius of the circle */
    private double radius;

    /** The number of the objects created */
    private static int numberOfObjects = 0;

    /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
    public CircleWithException() {
        this(1.0);
    }

    /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
    public CircleWithException(double newRadius) {
        setRadius(newRadius);
        numberOfObjects++;
    }

    /** Return radius */
    public double getRadius() {
        return radius;
    }

    /** Set a new radius */
    public void setRadius(double newRadius) throws IllegalArgumentException {
        if (newRadius >= 0) {
            radius = newRadius;
        } else {
            throw new IllegalArgumentException("Radius cannot be negative");
        }
    }

    /** Return numberOfObjects */
    public static int getNumberOfObjects() {
        return numberOfObjects;
    }

    /** Return the area of this circle */
    public double findArea() {
        return radius * radius * 3.14159;
    }
}
```
A test program that uses the new Circle class is given in Listing 14.8.

**LISTING 14.8  TestCircleWithException.java**

```java
class TestCircleWithException {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            CircleWithException c1 = new CircleWithException(5);
            CircleWithException c2 = new CircleWithException(-5);
            CircleWithException c3 = new CircleWithException(0);
        }
        catch (IllegalArgumentException ex) {
            System.out.println(ex);
        }
        System.out.println("Number of objects created: " +
            CircleWithException.getNumberOfObjects());
    }
}
```

The original Circle class remains intact except that the class name is changed to CircleWithException, a new constructor CircleWithException$newRadius$ is added, and the setRadius method now declares an exception and throws it if the radius is negative.

The setRadius method declares to throw IllegalArgumentException in the method header (lines 25–32 in CircleWithException.java). The CircleWithException class would still compile if the throws IllegalArgumentException clause were removed from the method declaration, since it is a subclass of RuntimeException and every method can throw RuntimeException (an unchecked exception) regardless of whether it is declared in the method header.

The test program creates three CircleWithException objects—c1, c2, and c3—to test how to handle exceptions. Invoking new CircleWithException$(-5)$ (line 5 in Listing 14.8) causes the setRadius method to be invoked, which throws an IllegalArgumentException, because the radius is negative. In the catch block, the type of the object ex is IllegalArgumentException, which matches the exception object thrown by the setRadius method, so this exception is caught by the catch block.

The exception handler prints a short message, ex.toString() (line 9 in Listing 14.8), about the exception, using System.out.println(ex).

Note that the execution continues in the event of the exception. If the handlers had not caught the exception, the program would have abruptly terminated.

The test program would still compile if the try statement were not used, because the method throws an instance of IllegalArgumentException, a subclass of RuntimeException (an unchecked exception). If a method throws an exception other than RuntimeException or Error, the method must be invoked within a try-catch block.

14.9 What is the purpose of declaring exceptions? How do you declare an exception, and where? Can you declare multiple exceptions in a method header?

14.10 What is a checked exception, and what is an unchecked exception?

14.11 How do you throw an exception? Can you throw multiple exceptions in one throw statement?

14.12 What is the keyword throw used for? What is the keyword throws used for?
14.13 Suppose that statement2 causes an exception in the following try-catch block:

```java
try {
    statement1;
    statement2;
    statement3;
} catch (Exception1 ex1) {
} catch (Exception2 ex2) {
} statement4;
```

Answer the following questions:

- Will statement3 be executed?
- If the exception is not caught, will statement4 be executed?
- If the exception is caught in the catch block, will statement4 be executed?

14.14 What is displayed when the following program is run?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            int[] list = new int[10];
            System.out.println("list[10] is "+ list[10]);
        } catch (ArithmeticException ex) {
            System.out.println("ArithmeticException");
        } catch (RuntimeException ex) {
            System.out.println("RuntimeException");
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            System.out.println("Exception");
        }
    }
}
```

14.15 What is displayed when the following program is run?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            method();
            System.out.println("After the method call");
        } catch (ArithmeticException ex) {
            System.out.println("ArithmeticException");
        } catch (RuntimeException ex) {
            System.out.println("RuntimeException");
        } catch (Exception e) {
            System.out.println("Exception");
        }
    }
}
```

```java
static void method() throws Exception {
```
Chapter 14 Exception Handling and Text I/O

```
System.out.println(1 / 0);
```
14.6 When to Use Exceptions

The code in the `finally` block is executed under all circumstances, regardless of whether an exception occurs in the `try` block or is caught. Consider three possible cases:

- If no exception arises in the `try` block, `finalStatements` is executed, and the next statement after the `try` statement is executed.
- If a statement causes an exception in the `try` block that is caught in a `catch` block, the rest of the statements in the `try` block are skipped, the `catch` block is executed, and the `finally` clause is executed. The next statement after the `try` statement is executed.
- If one of the statements causes an exception that is not caught in any `catch` block, the other statements in the `try` block are skipped, the `finally` clause is executed, and the exception is passed to the caller of this method.

The `finally` block executes even if there is a `return` statement prior to reaching the `finally` block.

**Note**

The `catch` block may be omitted when the `finally` clause is used. A common use of the `finally` clause is in I/O programming. To ensure that a file is closed under all circumstances, you may place a file closing statement in the `finally` block. Text I/O will be introduced later in this chapter.

14.21 Suppose that `statement2` causes an exception in the following statement:

```java
try {
    statement1;
    statement2;
    statement3;
} catch (Exception1 ex1) {
} finally {
    statement4;
} statement5;
```

Answer the following questions:

- If no exception occurs, will `statement4` be executed, and will `statement5` be executed?
- If the exception is of type `Exception1`, will `statement4` be executed, and will `statement5` be executed?
- If the exception is not of type `Exception1`, will `statement4` be executed, and will `statement5` be executed?

14.6 When to Use Exceptions

A method should throw an exception if the error needs to be handled by its caller.

The `try` block contains the code that is executed in normal circumstances. The `catch` block contains the code that is executed in exceptional circumstances. Exception handling separates error-handling code from normal programming tasks, thus making programs easier to read.
and to modify. Be aware, however, that exception handling usually requires more time and resources, because it requires instantiating a new exception object, rolling back the call stack, and propagating the exception through the chain of methods invoked to search for the handler.

An exception occurs in a method. If you want the exception to be processed by its caller, you should create an exception object and throw it. If you can handle the exception in the method where it occurs, there is no need to throw or use exceptions.

In general, common exceptions that may occur in multiple classes in a project are candidates for exception classes. Simple errors that may occur in individual methods are best handled without throwing exceptions. This can be done by using if statements to check for errors.

When should you use a try-catch block in the code? Use it when you have to deal with unexpected error conditions. Do not use a try-catch block to deal with simple, expected situations. For example, the following code

```java
try {
    System.out.println(refVar.toString());
} catch (NullPointerException ex) {
    System.out.println("refVar is null");
}
```

is better replaced by

```java
if (refVar != null)
    System.out.println(refVar.toString());
else
    System.out.println("refVar is null");
```

Which situations are exceptional and which are expected is sometimes difficult to decide. The point is not to abuse exception handling as a way to deal with a simple logic test.

14.22 The following method checks whether a string is a numeric string:

```java
public static boolean isNumeric(String token) {
    try {
        Double.parseDouble(token);
        return true;
    } catch (java.langNumberFormatException ex) {
        return false;
    }
}
```

Is it correct? Rewrite it without using exceptions.

14.7 Rethrowing Exceptions

Java allows an exception handler to rethrow the exception if the handler cannot process the exception or simply wants to let its caller be notified of the exception.

The syntax for rethrowing an exception may look like this:

```java
try {
    statements;
} catch (TheException ex) {
```
perform operations before exits;

throw ex;
}

The statement throw ex rethrows the exception to the caller so that other handlers in the caller get a chance to process the exception ex.

14.23 Suppose that statement2 causes an exception in the following statement:

try {
    statement1;
    statement2;
    statement3;
} catch (Exception1 ex1) {
} catch (Exception2 ex2) {
    throw ex2;
} finally {
    statement4;
} statement5;

Answer the following questions:

■ If no exception occurs, will statement4 be executed, and will statement5 be executed?

■ If the exception is of type Exception1, will statement4 be executed, and will statement5 be executed?

■ If the exception is of type Exception2, will statement4 be executed, and will statement5 be executed?

■ If the exception is not Exception1 nor Exception2, will statement4 be executed, and will statement5 be executed?

14.8 Chained Exceptions

Throwing an exception along with another exception forms a chained exception.

In the preceding section, the catch block rethrows the original exception. Sometimes, you may need to throw a new exception (with additional information) along with the original exception. This is called chained exceptions. Listing 14.9 illustrates how to create and throw chained exceptions.

Listing 14.9 ChainedExceptionDemo.java

1 public class ChainedExceptionDemo {
2    public static void main(String[] args) {
3        try {
4            method1();
5        }
6        catch (Exception ex) {
7            ex.printStackTrace();
8        }
9    }
10
public static void method1() throws Exception {
    try {
        method2();
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        throw new Exception("New info from method1", ex);
    }
}

public static void method2() throws Exception {
    throw new Exception("New info from method2");
}

The main method invokes method1 (line 4), method1 invokes method2 (line 13), and method2 throws an exception (line 21). This exception is caught in the catch block in method1 and is wrapped in a new exception in line 16. The new exception is thrown and caught in the catch block in the main method in line 6. The sample output shows the output from the printStackTrace() method in line 7. The new exception thrown from method1 is displayed first, followed by the original exception thrown from method2.

14.9 Defining Custom Exception Classes

You can define a custom exception class by extending the java.lang.Exception class.

Java provides quite a few exception classes. Use them whenever possible instead of defining your own exception classes. However, if you run into a problem that cannot be adequately described by the predefined exception classes, you can create your own exception class, derived from Exception or from a subclass of Exception, such as IOException.

In Listing 14.7, CircleWithException.java, the setRadius method throws an exception if the radius is negative. Suppose you wish to pass the radius to the handler. In that case, you can define a custom exception class, as shown in Listing 14.10.

Listing 14.10  InvalidRadiusException.java

public class InvalidRadiusException extends Exception {
    private double radius;

    /** Construct an exception */
    public InvalidRadiusException(double radius) {
        super("Invalid radius "+radius);
        this.radius = radius;
    }

    /** Return the radius */
    public double getRadius() {
        return radius;
    }
}

java.lang.Exception: New info from method1
    at ChainedExceptionDemo.method1(ChainedExceptionDemo.java:16)
    at ChainedExceptionDemo.main(ChainedExceptionDemo.java:4)
Caused by: java.lang.Exception: New info from method2
    at ChainedExceptionDemo.method2(ChainedExceptionDemo.java:21)
    at ChainedExceptionDemo.method1(ChainedExceptionDemo.java:13)
... 1 more
This custom exception class extends `java.lang.Exception` (line 1). The `Exception` class extends `java.lang.Throwable`. All the methods (e.g., `getMessage()`, `toString()`, and `printStackTrace()` in `Exception` are inherited from `Throwable`. The `Exception` class contains four constructors. Among them, the following two constructors are often used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+Exception()</td>
<td>Constructs an exception with no message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Exception(message: String)</td>
<td>Constructs an exception with the specified message.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Line 6 invokes the superclass’s constructor with a message. This message will be set in the exception object and can be obtained by invoking `getMessage()` on the object.

**Tip**
Most exception classes in the Java API contain two constructors: a no-arg constructor and a constructor with a message parameter.

To create an `InvalidRadiusException`, you have to pass a radius. Therefore, the `setRadius` method in Listing 14.7 can be modified as shown in Listing 14.11.

**Listing 14.11 TestCircleWithCustomException.java**

```java
public class TestCircleWithCustomException {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            new CircleWithCustomException(5);
            new CircleWithCustomException(-5);
            new CircleWithCustomException(0);
        } catch (InvalidRadiusException ex) {
            System.out.println(ex);
        }
        System.out.println("Number of objects created: " + CircleWithException.getNumberOfObjects());
    }
}

class CircleWithCustomException {
    /** The radius of the circle */
    private double radius;

    /** The number of objects created */
    private static int numberOfObjects = 0;

    /** Construct a circle with radius 1 */
    public CircleWithCustomException() throws InvalidRadiusException { declare exception
        this(1.0);
    }

    /** Construct a circle with a specified radius */
    public CircleWithCustomException(double newRadius) throws InvalidRadiusException { throw exception
        setRadius(newRadius);
        numberOfObjects++;
    }

    /** Return radius */
```
```java
public double getRadius() {
    return radius;
}

/** Set a new radius */
public void setRadius(double newRadius) throws InvalidRadiusException {
    if (newRadius >= 0)
        radius = newRadius;
    else
        throw new InvalidRadiusException(newRadius);
}

/** Return numberOfObjects */
public static int getNumberOfObjects() {
    return numberOfObjects;
}

/** Return the area of this circle */
public double findArea() {
    return radius * radius * 3.14159;
}
```

The `setRadius` method in `CircleWithCustomException` throws an `InvalidRadiusException` when radius is negative (line 47). Since `InvalidRadiusException` is a checked exception, the `setRadius` method must declare it in the method header (line 42). Since the constructors for `CircleWithCustomException` invoke the `setRadius` method to set a new radius and it may throw an `InvalidRadiusException`, the constructors are declared to throw `InvalidRadiusException` (lines 25, 31).

Invoking `new CircleWithCustomException(-5)` throws an `InvalidRadiusException`, which is caught by the handler. The handler displays the radius in the exception object `ex`.

**Tip**

Can you define a custom exception class by extending `RuntimeException`? Yes, but it is not a good way to go, because it makes your custom exception unchecked. It is better to make a custom exception checked, so that the compiler can force these exceptions to be caught in your program.

**Check Point**

14.24 How do you define a custom exception class?

14.25 Suppose the `setRadius` method throws the `InvalidRadiusException` defined in Listing 14.10. What is displayed when the following program is run?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            method();
            System.out.println("After the method call");
        } catch (RuntimeException ex) {
            System.out.println("RuntimeException in main");
        }
    }
```
14.10 The **File** Class

The **File** class contains the methods for obtaining the properties of a file/directory and for renaming and deleting a file/directory.

Having learned exception handling, you are ready to step into file processing. Data stored in the program are temporary; they are lost when the program terminates. To permanently store the data created in a program, you need to save them in a file on a disk or other permanent storage device. The file can then be transported and read later by other programs. Since data are stored in files, this section introduces how to use the **File** class to obtain file/directory properties, to delete and rename files/directories, and to create directories. The next section introduces how to read/write data from/to text files.

Every file is placed in a directory in the file system. An **absolute file name** (or **full name**) contains a file name with its complete path and drive letter. For example, `c:\book\Welcome.java` is the absolute file name for the file **Welcome.java** on the Windows operating system. Here `c:\book` is referred to as the **directory path** for the file. Absolute file names are machine dependent. On the UNIX platform, the absolute file name may be `/home/liang/book/Welcome.java`, where `/home/liang/book` is the directory path for the file **Welcome.java**.

A **relative file name** is in relation to the current working directory. The complete directory path for a relative file name is omitted. For example, **Welcome.java** is a relative file name. If the current working directory is `c:\book`, the absolute file name would be `c:\book\Welcome.java`.

The **File** class is intended to provide an abstraction that deals with most of the machine-dependent complexities of files and path names in a machine-independent fashion. The **File** class contains the methods for obtaining file and directory properties and for renaming and deleting files and directories, as shown in Figure 14.6. However, the **File** class does not contain the methods for reading and writing file contents.

The file name is a string. The **File** class is a wrapper class for the file name and its directory path. For example, `new File("c:\book")` creates a **File** object for the directory `c:\book`, and `new File("c:\book\test.dat")` creates a **File** object for the file `c:\book\test.dat`, both on Windows. You can use the **File** class's `isDirectory()` method to check whether the object represents a directory, and the `isFile()` method to check whether the object represents a file.
The directory separator for Windows is a backslash (\). The backslash is a special character in Java and should be written as \\\\ in a string literal (see Table 2.6).

**Caution**

The directory separator for Windows is a backslash (\). The backslash is a special character in Java and should be written as \\\\ in a string literal (see Table 2.6).

**Note**

*Constructing a File instance does not create a file on the machine. You can create a File instance for any file name regardless whether it exists or not. You can invoke the `exists()` method on a File instance to check whether the file exists.*

Do not use absolute file names in your program. If you use a file name such as c:\\book\\Welcome.java, it will work on Windows but not on other platforms. You should use a file name relative to the current directory. For example, you may create a File object using `new File("Welcome.java")` for the file Welcome.java in the current directory. You may create a File object using `new File("image/us.gif")` for the file us.gif under the image directory in the current directory. The forward slash (/) is the Java directory separator (/).
separator, which is the same as on UNIX. The statement `new File("image/us.gif")` works on Windows, UNIX, and any other platform.

Listing 14.12 demonstrates how to create a `File` object and use the methods in the `File` class to obtain its properties. The program creates a `File` object for the file `us.gif`. This file is stored under the `image` directory in the current directory.

**LISTING 14.12 TestFileClass.java**

```java
public class TestFileClass {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        java.io.File file = new java.io.File("image/us.gif");
        System.out.println("Does it exist? " + file.exists());
        System.out.println("The file has " + file.length() + " bytes");
        System.out.println("Can it be read? " + file.canRead());
        System.out.println("Can it be written? " + file.canWrite());
        System.out.println("Is it a directory? " + file.isDirectory());
        System.out.println("Is it a file? " + file.isFile());
        System.out.println("Is it absolute? " + file.isAbsolute());
        System.out.println("Is it hidden? " + file.isHidden());
        System.out.println("Absolute path is " + file.getAbsolutePath());
        System.out.println("Last modified on " +
                           new java.util.Date(file.lastModified()));
    }
}
```

The `lastModified()` method returns the date and time when the file was last modified, measured in milliseconds since the beginning of UNIX time (00:00:00 GMT, January 1, 1970). The `Date` class is used to display it in a readable format in lines 14–15.

Figure 14.7a shows a sample run of the program on Windows, and Figure 14.7b, a sample run on UNIX. As shown in the figures, the path-naming conventions on Windows are different from those on UNIX.

The program creates a `File` object and displays file properties.

**Figure 14.7** The program creates a `File` object and displays file properties.

14.26 What is wrong about creating a `File` object using the following statement?

```java
new File("c:\book\test.dat");
```

14.27 How do you check whether a file already exists? How do you delete a file? How do you rename a file? Can you find the file size (the number of bytes) using the `File` class? How do you create a directory?
14.28 Can you use the File class for I/O? Does creating a File object create a file on the disk?

14.11 File Input and Output

Use the Scanner class for reading text data from a file and the PrintWriter class for writing text data to a file.

A File object encapsulates the properties of a file or a path, but it does not contain the methods for creating a file or for reading/writing data to/from a file (referred to as data input and output, or I/O for short). In order to perform I/O, you need to create objects using appropriate Java I/O classes. The objects contain the methods for reading/writing data from/to a file. There are two types of files: text and binary. Text files are essentially strings on disk. This section introduces how to read/write strings and numeric values from/to a text file using the Scanner and PrintWriter classes. Binary files will be introduced in Chapter 19.

14.11.1 Writing Data Using PrintWriter

The java.io.PrintWriter class can be used to create a file and write data to a text file. First, you have to create a PrintWriter object for a text file as follows:

```java
PrintWriter output = new PrintWriter(filename);
```

Then, you can invoke the `print`, `println`, and `printf` methods on the PrintWriter object to write data to a file. Figure 14.8 summarizes frequently used methods in PrintWriter.

```
java.io.PrintWriter

+PrintWriter(file: File)
+PrintWriter(filename: String)
+print(s: String): void
+print(c: char): void
+print(cArray: char[]): void
+print(i: int): void
+print(l: long): void
+print(f: float): void
+print(d: double): void
+print(b: boolean): void
Also contains the overloaded println methods.
Also contains the overloaded printf methods.

Creates a PrintWriter object for the specified file object.
Creates a PrintWriter object for the specified file-name string.
Writes a string to the file.
Writes a character to the file.
Writes an array of characters to the file.
Writes an int value to the file.
Writes a long value to the file.
Writes a float value to the file.
Writes a double value to the file.
Writes a boolean value to the file.
A println method acts like a print method; additionally, it prints a line separator. The line-separator string is defined by the system. It is \r\n on Windows and \n on Unix.

The printf method was introduced in §3.16, “Formatting Console Output.”
```

Listing 14.13 gives an example that creates an instance of PrintWriter and writes two lines to the file scores.txt. Each line consists of a first name (a string), a middle-name initial (a character), a last name (a string), and a score (an integer).

**LISTING 14.13 WriteData.java**

```java
public class WriteData {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        java.io.File file = new java.io.File("scores.txt");
        if (file.exists()) {
            PrintWriter output = new PrintWriter(file);
            output.println("John H Smith 88.5");
            output.println("Jane D Smit 90.3");
            output.close();
        }
    }
}
```

In this example, in order to avoid the IOException, we check the file existence first. If the file exists, we create the PrintWriter object and write two lines to it. Finally, we close the PrintWriter object.
Lines 4–7 check whether the file scores.txt exists. If so, exit the program (line 6).

Invoking the constructor of PrintWriter will create a new file if the file does not exist. If the file already exists, the current content in the file will be discarded without verifying with the user.

Invoking the constructor of PrintWriter may throw an I/O exception. Java forces you to write the code to deal with this type of exception. For simplicity, we declare throws IOException in the main method header (line 2).

You have used the System.out.println, System.out.printf, and System.out.println methods to write text to the console. System.out is a standard Java object for the console. You can create PrintWriter objects for writing text to any file using print, println, and printf (lines 13–16).

The close() method must be used to close the file. If this method is not invoked, the data may not be saved properly in the file.

14.11.2 Reading Data Using Scanner

The java.util.Scanner class was used to read strings and primitive values from the console in Section 2.3, Reading Input from the Console. A Scanner breaks its input into tokens delimited by whitespace characters. To read from the keyboard, you create a Scanner for System.in, as follows:

Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

To read from a file, create a Scanner for a file, as follows:

Scanner input = new Scanner(new File(filename));

Figure 14.9 summarizes frequently used methods in Scanner.

Listing 14.14 gives an example that creates an instance of Scanner and reads data from the file scores.txt.

Listing 14.14 ReadData.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ReadData {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        // Create a File instance
        java.io.File file = new java.io.File("scores.txt");
        // Create a Scanner for the file
```
create a Scanner
9
Scanner input = new Scanner(file);

has next?
10
// Read data from a file
11 while (input.hasNext()) {
12     String firstName = input.next();
13     String mi = input.next();
14     String lastName = input.next();
15     int score = input.nextInt();
16     System.out.println(
17         firstName + " " + mi + " " + lastName + " " + score);
18 }

read items
20
// Close the file
21 input.close();

close file
22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>java.util.Scanner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+Scanner(source: File)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Scanner(source: String)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+close()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+hasNext(): boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+next(): String</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextLine(): String</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextByte(): byte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextShort(): short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextInt(): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextLong(): long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextFloat(): float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+nextDouble(): double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+useDelimiter(pattern: String): Scanner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Scanner class contains the methods for scanning data.

File class

Note that new Scanner(String) creates a Scanner for a given string. To create a Scanner to read data from a file, you have to use the java.io.File class to create an instance of the File using the constructor new File(filename) (line 6), and use new Scanner(File) to create a Scanner for the file (line 9).

Invoking the constructor new Scanner(File) may throw an I/O exception, so the main method declares throws Exception in line 4.

Each iteration in the while loop reads the first name, middle initial, last name, and score from the text file (lines 12–19). The file is closed in line 22.

It is not necessary to close the input file (line 22), but it is a good practice to do so to release the resources occupied by the file.

14.11.3 How Does Scanner Work?

The nextByte(), nextShort(), nextInt(), nextLong(), nextFloat(), nextDouble(), and next() methods are known as token-reading methods, because they read tokens separated by delimiters. By default, the delimiters are whitespace. You can use the useDelimiter(String regex) method to set a new pattern for delimiters.
How does an input method work? A token-reading method first skips any delimiters (white-space by default), then reads a token ending at a delimiter. The token is then automatically converted into a value of the `byte`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, or `double` type for `nextByte()`, `nextShort()`, `nextInt()`, `nextLong()`, `nextFloat()`, and `nextDouble()`, respectively. For the `next()` method, no conversion is performed. If the token does not match the expected type, a runtime exception `java.util.InputMismatchException` will be thrown.

Both methods `next()` and `nextLine()` read a string. The `next()` method reads a string delimited by delimiters, and `nextLine()` reads a line ending with a line separator.

**Note**
The line-separator string is defined by the system. It is `\r\n` on Windows and `\n` on UNIX. To get the line separator on a particular platform, use

```java
String lineSeparator = System.getProperty("line.separator");
```

If you enter input from a keyboard, a line ends with the `Enter` key, which corresponds to the `\n` character.

The token-reading method does not read the delimiter after the token. If the `nextLine()` method is invoked after a token-reading method, this method reads characters that start from this delimiter and end with the line separator. The line separator is read, but it is not part of the string returned by `nextLine()`.

Suppose a text file named `test.txt` contains a line

```
34 567
```

After the following code is executed,

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(new File("test.txt"));
int intValue = input.nextInt();
String line = input.nextLine();
```

`intValue` contains `34` and `line` contains the characters `' '`, `5`, `6`, and `7`.

What happens if the input is entered from the keyboard? Suppose you enter `34`, press the `Enter` key, then enter `567` and press the `Enter` key for the following code:

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
int intValue = input.nextInt();
String line = input.nextLine();
```

You will get `34` in `intValue` and an empty string in `line`. Why? Here is the reason. The token-reading method `nextInt()` reads in `34` and stops at the delimiter, which in this case is a line separator (the `Enter` key). The `nextLine()` method ends after reading the line separator and returns the string read before the line separator. Since there are no characters before the line separator, `line` is empty.

You can read data from a file or from the keyboard using the `Scanner` class. You can also scan data from a string using the `Scanner` class. For example, the following code

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner("13 14");
int sum = input.nextInt() + input.nextInt();
System.out.println("Sum is "+sum);
```

displays

The sum is 27
### 14.11.4 Case Study: Replacing Text

Suppose you are to write a program named `ReplaceText` that replaces all occurrences of a string in a text file with a new string. The file name and strings are passed as command-line arguments as follows:

```java
java ReplaceText sourceFile targetFile oldString newString
```

For example, invoking

```java
java ReplaceText FormatString.java t.txt StringBuilder StringBuffer
```

replaces all the occurrences of `StringBuilder` by `StringBuffer` in the file `FormatString.java` and saves the new file in `t.txt`.

Listing 14.15 gives the program. The program checks the number of arguments passed to the `main` method (lines 7–11), checks whether the source and target files exist (lines 14–25), creates a `Scanner` for the source file (line 28), creates a `PrintWriter` for the target file, and repeatedly reads a line from the source file (line 32), replaces the text (line 33), and writes a new line to the target file (line 34). You must close the output file (line 38) to ensure that data are saved to the file properly.

#### LISTING 14.15 ReplaceText.java

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.util.*;

public class ReplaceText {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        // Check command-line parameter usage
        if (args.length != 4) {
            System.out.println("Usage: java ReplaceText sourceFile targetFile oldStr newStr");
            System.exit(1);
        }

        // Check if source file exists
        if (!sourceFile.exists()) {
            System.out.println("Source file " + args[0] + " does not exist");
            System.exit(2);
        }

        // Check if target file exists
        if (targetFile.exists()) {
            System.out.println("Target file " + args[1] + " already exists");
            System.exit(3);
        }

        // Create a Scanner for input and a PrintWriter for output
        Scanner input = new Scanner(sourceFile);
        PrintWriter output = new PrintWriter(targetFile);

        while (input.hasNext()) {
            String s1 = input.nextLine();
            String s2 = s1.replaceAll(args[2], args[3]);
            output.println(s2);
        }
    }
}
```
37      input.close();
38      output.close();
39  }
40  }

In a normal situation, the program is terminated after a file is copied. The program is terminated abnormally if the command-line arguments are not used properly (lines 7–11), if the source file does not exist (lines 14–18), or if the target file already exists (lines 22–25). The exit status code 1, 2, and 3 are used to indicate these abnormal terminations (lines 10, 17, 24).

**14.29** How do you create a *PrintWriter* to write data to a file? What is the reason to declare *throws Exception* in the main method in Listing 14.13, WriteData.java? What would happen if the close() method were not invoked in Listing 14.13?

**14.30** Show the contents of the file *temp.txt* after the following program is executed.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        java.io.PrintWriter output = new java.io.PrintWriter("temp.txt");
        output.printf("amount is %f %e \n", 32.32, 32.32);
        output.printf("amount is %5.4f %5.4e \n", 32.32, 32.32);
        output.printf("%6b \n", (1 > 2));
        output.printf("%6s \n", "Java");
        output.close();
    }
}
```

**14.31** How do you create a *Scanner* to read data from a file? What is the reason to define *throws Exception* in the main method in Listing 14.14, ReadData.java? What would happen if the close() method were not invoked in Listing 14.14?

**14.32** What will happen if you attempt to create a *Scanner* for a nonexistent file? What will happen if you attempt to create a *PrintWriter* for an existing file?

**14.33** Is the line separator the same on all platforms? What is the line separator on Windows?

**14.34** Suppose you enter 45 57.8 789, then press the *Enter* key. Show the contents of the variables after the following code is executed.

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
int intValue = input.nextInt();
double doubleValue = input.nextDouble();
String line = input.nextLine();
```

**14.35** Suppose you enter 45, press the *Enter* key, 57.8, press the *Enter* key, 789, and press the *Enter* key. Show the contents of the variables after the following code is executed.

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
int intValue = input.nextInt();
double doubleValue = input.nextDouble();
String line = input.nextLine();
```

### 14.12 File Dialogs

*JFileChooser* is a GUI component for displaying a file dialog.

Java provides the *javax.swing.JFileChooser* class for displaying a file dialog, as shown in Figure 14.10. From this dialog box, the user can choose a file.
Chapter 14 Exception Handling and Text I/O

Listing 14.16 gives a program that prompts the user to choose a file and displays its contents on the console.

Listing 14.16 ReadFileUsingJFileChooser.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;
import javax.swing.JFileChooser;

public class ReadFileUsingJFileChooser {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        // Get the selected file
        java.io.File file = JFileChooser.showOpenDialog(null);
        // Create a Scanner for the file
        Scanner input = new Scanner(file);
        // Read text from the file
        while (input.hasNext()) {
            System.out.println(input.nextLine());
        }
        // Close the file
        input.close();
    }
}
```

The program creates a JFileChooser in line 6. The showOpenDialog(null) method displays a dialog box, as shown in Figure 14.10. The method returns an int value, either APPROVE_OPTION or CANCEL_OPTION, which indicates whether the Open button or the Cancel button was clicked.

The setSelectedFile() method (line 10) returns the selected file from the file dialog box. Line 13 creates a scanner for the file. The program continuously reads the lines from the file and displays them to the console (lines 16–18).

MyProgrammingLab 14.36 How do you create a File Open dialog box? What is returned from invoking setSelectedFile() on a JFileChooser object?
14.13 Reading Data from the Web

Just like you can read data from a file on your computer, you can read data from a file on the Web.

In addition to reading data from a local file on a computer or file server, you can also access data from a file that is on the Web if you know the file’s URL (Uniform Resource Locator—the unique address for a file on the Web). For example, www.google.com/index.html is the URL for the file index.html located on the Google Web server. When you enter the URL in a Web browser, the Web server sends the data to your browser, which renders the data graphically. Figure 14.11 illustrates how this process works.

For an application program to read data from a URL, you first need to create a URL object using the java.net.URL class with this constructor:

```java
public URL(String spec) throws MalformedURLException
```

For example, the following statement creates a URL object for http://www.google.com/index.html.

```java
try {
    URL url = new URL("http://www.google.com/index.html");
} catch (MalformedURLException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
}
```

A MalformedURLException is thrown if the URL string has a syntax error. For example, the URL string “http: www.google.com/index.html” would cause a MalformedURLException runtime error because two slashes (//) are required after the colon (:). Note that the http:// prefix is required for the URL class to recognize a valid URL. It would be wrong if you replace line 2 with the following code:

```java
URL url = new URL("www.google.com/index.html");
```

After a URL object is created, you can use the openStream() method defined in the URL class to open an input stream and use this stream to create a Scanner object as follows:

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(url.openStream());
```

Now you can read the data from the input stream just like from a local file. The example in Listing 14.17 prompts the user to enter a URL and displays the size of the file.

**Listing 14.17 ReadFileFromURL.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;
```
public class ReadFileFromURL {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String URLString = new Scanner(System.in).next();

        try {
            java.net.URL url = new java.net.URL(URLString);
            int count = 0;
            Scanner input = new Scanner(url.openStream());
            while (input.hasNext()) {
                count += line.length();
            }
            System.out.println("The file size is " + count + " bytes");
        }
        catch (java.net.MalformedURLException ex) {
            System.out.println("Invalid URL");
        }
        catch (java.io.IOException ex) {
            System.out.println("I/O Errors: no such file");
        }
    }
}

Enter a URL: http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Lincoln.txt
The file size is 1469 bytes

Enter a URL: http://www.yahoo.com
The file size is 190006 bytes

The program prompts the user to enter a URL string (line 6) and creates a URL object (line 9). The constructor will throw a java.net.MalformedURLException (line 19) if the URL isn't formed correctly.

The program creates a Scanner object from the input stream for the URL (line 11). If the URL is formed correctly but does not exist, an IOException will be thrown (line 22). For example, http://google.com/index1.html uses the appropriate form, but the URL itself does not exist. An IOException would be thrown if this URL was used for this program.

Check Point
How do you create a Scanner object for reading text from a URL?

Key Terms

absolute file name 541
chained exception 537
checked exception 525
declare exception 526
directory path 541
exception 518
exception propagation 527
relative file name 541
throw exception 526
unchecked exception 525
1. Exception handling enables a method to throw an exception to its caller.

2. A Java exception is an instance of a class derived from `java.lang.Throwable`. Java provides a number of predefined exception classes, such as `Error`, `Exception`, `RuntimeException`, `ClassNotFoundException`, `NullPointerException`, and `ArithmeticException`. You can also define your own exception class by extending `Exception`.

3. Exceptions occur during the execution of a method. `RuntimeException` and `Error` are unchecked exceptions; all other exceptions are checked.

4. When declaring a method, you have to declare a checked exception if the method might throw it, thus telling the compiler what can go wrong.

5. The keyword for declaring an exception is `throws`, and the keyword for throwing an exception is `throw`.

6. To invoke the method that declares checked exceptions, enclose it in a `try` statement. When an exception occurs during the execution of the method, the `catch` block catches and handles the exception.

7. If an exception is not caught in the current method, it is passed to its caller. The process is repeated until the exception is caught or passed to the `main` method.

8. Various exception classes can be derived from a common superclass. If a `catch` block catches the exception objects of a superclass, it can also catch all the exception objects of the subclasses of that superclass.

9. The order in which exceptions are specified in a `catch` block is important. A compile error will result if you specify an exception object of a class after an exception object of the superclass of that class.

10. When an exception occurs in a method, the method exits immediately if it does not catch the exception. If the method is required to perform some task before exiting, you can catch the exception in the method and then rethrow it to its caller.

11. The code in the `finally` block is executed under all circumstances, regardless of whether an exception occurs in the `try` block or whether an exception is caught if it occurs.

12. Exception handling separates error-handling code from normal programming tasks, thus making programs easier to read and to modify.

13. Exception handling should not be used to replace simple tests. You should perform simple test using `if` statements whenever possible, and reserve exception handling for dealing with situations that cannot be handled with `if` statements.

14. The `File` class is used to obtain file properties and manipulate files. It does not contain the methods for creating a file or for reading/writing data from/to a file.
15. You can use `Scanner` to read string and primitive data values from a text file and use `PrintWriter` to create a file and write data to a text file.

16. The `JFileChooser` class can be used to display file dialogs for choosing files.

17. You can read from a file on the Web using the `URL` class.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 14.2–14.9

*14.1  *(NumberFormatException)* Listing 9.5, Calculator.java, is a simple command-line calculator. Note that the program terminates if any operand is nonnumeric. Write a program with an exception handler that deals with nonnumeric operands; then write another program without using an exception handler to achieve the same objective. Your program should display a message that informs the user of the wrong operand type before exiting (see Figure 14.12).

![Image of command prompt with arithmetic operations and error messages]

**Figure 14.12** The program performs arithmetic operations and detects input errors.

*14.2  *(InputMismatchException)* Write a program that prompts the user to read two integers and displays their sum. Your program should prompt the user to read the number again if the input is incorrect.

*14.3  *(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException)* Write a program that meets the following requirements:

- Creates an array with 100 randomly chosen integers.
- Prompts the user to enter the index of the array, then displays the corresponding element value. If the specified index is out of bounds, display the message Out of Bounds.

*14.4  *(IllegalArgumentException)* Modify the Loan class in Listing 10.2 to throw `IllegalArgumentException` if the loan amount, interest rate, or number of years is less than or equal to zero.

*14.5  *(IllegalTriangleException)* Programming Exercise 11.1 defined the Triangle class with three sides. In a triangle, the sum of any two sides is greater than the other side. The Triangle class must adhere to this rule. Create the `IllegalTriangleException` class, and modify the constructor of the
Triangle class to throw an IllegalTriangleException object if a triangle is created with sides that violate the rule, as follows:

```java
/** Construct a triangle with the specified sides */
public Triangle(double side1, double side2, double side3)
    throws IllegalTriangleException {
    // Implement it
}
```

*14.6 (NumberFormatException) Listing 9.2 implements the hexToDecimal(String hexString) method, which converts a hex string into a decimal number. Implement the hexToDecimal method to throw a NumberFormatException if the string is not a hex string.

*14.7 (NumberFormatException) Programming Exercise 9.8 specifies the binaryToDecimal(String binaryString) method, which converts a binary string into a decimal number. Implement the binaryToDecimal method to throw a NumberFormatException if the string is not a binary string.

*14.8 (HexFormatException) Exercise 14.6 implements the hexToDecimal method to throw a NumberFormatException if the string is not a hex string. Define a custom exception called HexFormatException. Implement the hexToDecimal method to throw a HexFormatException if the string is not a hex string.

*14.9 (BinaryFormatException) Exercise 14.7 implements the binaryToDecimal method to throw a BinaryFormatException if the string is not a binary string. Define a custom exception called BinaryFormatException. Implement the binaryToDecimal method to throw a BinaryFormatException if the string is not a binary string.

*14.10 (OutOfMemoryError) Write a program that causes the JVM to throw an OutOfMemoryError and catches and handles this error.

Sections 14.10–14.12

**14.11 (Remove text) Write a program that removes all the occurrences of a specified string from a text file. For example, invoking

```
java Exercise14_11 John filename
```

removes the string John from the specified file. Your program should get the arguments from the command line.

**14.12 (Reformat Java source code) Write a program that converts the Java source code from the next-line brace style to the end-of-line brace style. For example, the following Java source in (a) uses the next-line brace style. Your program converts it to the end-of-line brace style in (b).

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Some statements
    }
}
```

(a) Next-line brace style

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Some statements
    }
}
```

(b) End-of-line brace style
Your program can be invoked from the command line with the Java source-code file as the argument. It converts the Java source code to a new format. For example, the following command converts the Java source-code file Test.java to the end-of-line brace style.

```
java Exercise14_12 Test.java
```

*14.13 *(Count characters, words, and lines in a file) Write a program that will count the number of characters, words, and lines in a file. Words are separated by whitespace characters. The file name should be passed as a command-line argument, as shown in Figure 14.13.

![Figure 14.13](image)

The program displays the number of characters, words, and lines in the given file.

*14.14 *(Process scores in a text file) Suppose that a text file contains an unspecified number of scores separated by blanks. Write a program that prompts the user to enter the file, reads the scores from the file, and displays their total and average. Scores are separated by blanks.

*14.15 *(Write/read data) Write a program to create a file named Exercise14_15.txt if it does not exist. Write 100 integers created randomly into the file using text I/O. Integers are separated by spaces in the file. Read the data back from the file and display the sorted data.

**14.16 *(Replace text) Listing 14.15, ReplaceText.java, gives a program that replaces text in a source file and saves the change into a new file. Revise the program to save the change into the original file. For example, invoking

```
java Exercise14_16 file oldString newString
```

replaces oldString in the source file with newString.

***14.17 *(Game: hangman) Rewrite Exercise 9.25. The program reads the words stored in a text file named hangman.txt. Words are delimited by spaces.

**14.18 *(Add package statement) Suppose you have Java source files under the directories chapter1, chapter2, ..., chapter34. Write a program to insert the statement package chapteri; as the first line for each Java source file under the directory chapteri. Suppose chapter1, chapter2, ..., chapter34 are under the root directory srcRootDirectory. The root directory and chapteri directory may contain other folders and files. Use the following command to run the program:

```
java Exercise14_18 srcRootDirectory
```

*14.19 *(Count words) Write a program that counts the number of words in President Abraham Lincoln’s Gettysburg address from http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Lincoln.txt.
**14.20 (Remove package statement) Suppose you have Java source files under the directories `chapter1`, `chapter2`, ..., `chapter34`. Write a program to remove the statement `package chapteri;` in the first line for each Java source file under the directory `chapteri`. Suppose `chapter1`, `chapter2`, ..., `chapter34` are under the root directory `srcRootDirectory`. The root directory and `chapteri` directory may contain other folders and files. Use the following command to run the program:

```
java Exercise14_20 srcRootDirectory
```

**14.21 (Display a graph) A graph consists of vertices and edges that connect vertices. Write a program that reads a graph from a file and displays it on a panel. The first line in the file contains a number that indicates the number of vertices (n). The vertices are labeled as 0, 1, ..., n-1. Each subsequent line, with the format `u x y v1 v2 ...`, describes that the vertex u is located at position (x, y) with edges (u, v1), (u, v2), and so on. Figure 14.14a gives an example of the file for a graph. Your program prompts the user to enter the name of the file, reads data from the file, and displays the graph on a panel, as shown in Figure 14.14b. Write another program that reads data from a Web URL such as `http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/graph.txt`. This program should prompt the user to enter the URL for the file.

```
(a) (b)
```

**14.22 (Replace text) Revise Exercise 14.16 to replace a string in a file with a new string for all files in the specified directory using the command:

```
java Exercise14_22 dir oldString newString
```

**14.23 (Process scores in a text file on the Web) Suppose that the text file on the Web `http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Scores.txt` contains an unspecified number of scores. Write a program that reads the scores from the file and displays their total and average. Scores are separated by blanks.

**14.24 (Create large dataset) Create a data file with 1,000 lines. Each line in the file consists of a faculty member's first name, last name, rank, and salary. The faculty member's first name and last name for the ith line are `FirstNamei` and `LastNamei`. The rank is randomly generated as assistant, associate, and full. The salary is randomly generated as a number with two digits after the decimal point. The salary for an assistant professor should be in the range from 50,000 to
80,000, for associate professor from 60,000 to 110,000, and for full professor from 75,000 to 130,000. Save the file in Salary.txt. Here are some sample data:
FirstName1 LastName1 assistant 60055.95
FirstName2 LastName2 associate 81112.45
...
FirstName1000 LastName1000 full 92255.21

*14.25  (Process large dataset) A university posts its employees’ salaries at http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Salary.txt. Each line in the file consists of a faculty member’s first name, last name, rank, and salary (see Exercise 14.24). Write a program to display the total salary for assistant professors, associate professors, full professors, and all faculty, respectively, and display the average salary for assistant professors, associate professors, full professors, and all faculty, respectively.

**14.26  (Create a directory) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a directory name and creates a directory using the File’s mkdirs method. The program displays the message “Directory created successfully” if a directory is created or “Directory already exists” if the directory already exists.

**14.27  (Replace words) Suppose you have a lot of files in a directory that contain words Exercise_i_j, where i and j are digits. Write a program that pads a 0 before i if i is a single digit and 0 before j if j is a single digit. For example, the word Exercise2_1 in a file will be replaced by Exercise02_01. In Java, when you pass the symbol * from the command line, it refers to all files in the directory (see Supplement III.AC). Use the following command to run your program.

game Exercise14_27 *

**14.28  (Rename files) Suppose you have a lot of files in a directory named Exercise_i_j, where i and j are digits. Write a program that pads a 0 before i if i is a single digit. For example, a file named Exercise2_1 in a directory will be renamed to Exercise02_1. In Java, when you pass the symbol * from the command line, it refers to all files in the directory (see Supplement III.AC). Use the following command to run your program.

game Exercise14_28 *

**14.29  (Rename files) Suppose you have a lot of files in a directory named Exercise_i_j, where i and j are digits. Write a program that pads a 0 before j if j is a single digit. For example, a file named Exercise2_1 in a directory will be renamed to Exercise2_01. In Java, when you pass the symbol * from the command line, it refers to all files in the directory (see Supplement III.AC). Use the following command to run your program.

game Exercise14_29 *
Abstract Classes and Interfaces

Objectives

■ To design and use abstract classes (§15.2).
■ To generalize numeric wrapper classes, BigInteger, and BigDecimal using the abstract Number class (§15.3).
■ To process a calendar using the Calendar and GregorianCalendar classes (§15.4).
■ To specify common behavior for objects using interfaces (§15.5).
■ To define interfaces and define classes that implement interfaces (§15.5).
■ To define a natural order using the Comparable interface (§15.6).
■ To make objects cloneable using the Cloneable interface (§15.7).
■ To explore the similarities and differences among concrete classes, abstract classes, and interfaces (§15.8).
■ To design the Rational class for processing rational numbers (§15.9).
15.1 Introduction

A superclass defines common behavior for related subclasses. An interface can be used to define common behavior for classes (including unrelated classes).

You have learned how to write simple programs to create and display GUI components. Can you write the code to respond to user actions, such as clicking a button to perform an action?

In order to write such code, you have to know about interfaces. An interface is for defining common behavior for classes (including unrelated classes). Before discussing interfaces, we introduce a closely related subject: abstract classes.

15.2 Abstract Classes

An abstract class cannot be used to create objects. An abstract class can contain abstract methods, which are implemented in concrete subclasses.

In the inheritance hierarchy, classes become more specific and concrete with each new subclass. If you move from a subclass back up to a superclass, the classes become more general and less specific. Class design should ensure that a superclass contains common features of its subclasses. Sometimes a superclass is so abstract that it cannot have any specific instances. Such a class is referred to as an abstract class.

In Chapter 11, GeometricObject was defined as the superclass for Circle and Rectangle. GeometricObject models common features of geometric objects. Both Circle and Rectangle contain the getArea() and getPerimeter() methods for computing the area and perimeter of a circle and a rectangle. Since you can compute areas and perimeters for all geometric objects, it is better to define the getArea() and getPerimeter() methods in the GeometricObject class. However, these methods cannot be implemented in the GeometricObject class, because their implementation depends on the specific type of geometric object. Such methods are referred to as abstract methods and are denoted using the abstract modifier in the method header. After you define the methods in GeometricObject, it becomes an abstract class. Abstract classes are denoted using the abstract modifier in the class header. In UML graphic notation, the names of abstract classes and their abstract methods are italicized, as shown in Figure 15.1. Listing 15.1 gives the source code for the new GeometricObject class.

Listing 15.1 GeometricObject.java

```java
public abstract class GeometricObject {
    private String color = "white";
    private boolean filled;
    private java.util.Date dateCreated;

    /** Construct a default geometric object */
    protected GeometricObject() {
        dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
    }

    /** Construct a geometric object with color and filled value */
    protected GeometricObject(String color, boolean filled) {
        dateCreated = new java.util.Date();
        this.color = color;
        this.filled = filled;
    }

    /** Return color */
    public String getColor() {
        return color;
    }
}
```
15.2 Abstract Classes

abstract class GeometricObject
{
    protected String color;
    protected boolean filled;
    protected java.util.Date dateCreated;

    GeometricObject()
    GeometricObject(String color, boolean filled)
    getColor(): String
    setColor(String color): void
    isFilled(): boolean
    setFilled(boolean filled): void
    getDateCreated(): java.util.Date
    toString(): String

    public class Circle
    {
        protected double radius;

        Circle()
        Circle(double radius)
        Circle(double radius, String color, boolean filled)
        getRadius(): double
        setRadius(double radius): void
        getDiameter(): double
    }

    public class Rectangle
    {
        protected double width;
        protected double height;

        Rectangle()
        Rectangle(double width, double height)
        Rectangle(double width, double height, String color, boolean filled)
        getWidth(): double
        setWidth(double width): void
        getHeight(): double
        setHeight(double height): void
    }

    // Methods getArea and getPerimeter are overridden in Circle and Rectangle.
    // Superclass methods are generally omitted in the UML diagram for subclasses.
}

**FIGURE 15.1** The new GeometricObject class contains abstract methods.
Abstract classes are like regular classes, but you cannot create instances of abstract classes using the `new` operator. An abstract method is defined without implementation. Its implementation is provided by the subclasses. A class that contains abstract methods must be defined as abstract.

The constructor in the abstract class is defined as protected, because it is used only by subclasses. When you create an instance of a concrete subclass, its superclass’s constructor is invoked to initialize data fields defined in the superclass.

The `GeometricObject` abstract class defines the common features (data and methods) for geometric objects and provides appropriate constructors. Because you don’t know how to compute areas and perimeters of geometric objects, `getArea` and `getPerimeter` are defined as abstract methods. These methods are implemented in the subclasses. The implementation of `Circle` and `Rectangle` is the same as in Listings 15.2 and 15.3, except that they extend the `GeometricObject` class defined in this chapter.

**Listing 15.2 Circle.java**

```java
public class Circle extends GeometricObject {
    // Same as lines 3-48 in Listing 11.2, so omitted
}
```

**Listing 15.3 Rectangle.java**

```java
public class Rectangle extends GeometricObject {
    // Same as lines 3-51 in Listing 11.3, so omitted
}
```

15.2.1 Why Abstract Methods?

You may be wondering what advantage is gained by defining the methods `getArea` and `getPerimeter` as abstract in the `GeometricObject` class. The example in Listing 15.4 shows the benefits of defining them in the `GeometricObject` class. The program creates two geometric objects, a circle and a rectangle, invokes the `equalArea` method to check whether they have equal areas, and invokes the `displayGeometricObject` method to display them.

**Listing 15.4 TestGeometricObject.java**

```java
public class TestGeometricObject {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create two geometric objects
        GeometricObject geoObject1 = new Circle(5);
        GeometricObject geoObject2 = new Rectangle(5, 3);
    }
}
```
The two objects have the same area? false
The area is 78.53981633974483
The perimeter is 31.41592653589793

The area is 15.0
The perimeter is 16.0

The methods `getArea()` and `getPerimeter()` defined in the `GeometricObject` class are overridden in the `Circle` class and the `Rectangle` class. The statements (lines 5–6)

```java
GeometricObject geoObject1 = new Circle(5);
GeometricObject geoObject2 = new Rectangle(5, 3);
```

create a new circle and rectangle and assign them to the variables `geoObject1` and `geoObject2`. These two variables are of the `GeometricObject` type.

When invoking `equalArea(geoObject1, geoObject2)` (line 9), the `getArea()` method defined in the `Circle` class is used for `object1.getArea()`, since `geoObject1` is a circle, and the `getArea()` method defined in the `Rectangle` class is used for `object2.getArea()`, since `geoObject2` is a rectangle.

Similarly, when invoking `displayGeometricObject(geoObject1)` (line 12), the methods `getArea()` and `getPerimeter()` defined in the `Circle` class are used, and when invoking `displayGeometricObject(geoObject2)` (line 15), the methods `getArea` and `getPerimeter` defined in the `Rectangle` class are used. The JVM dynamically determines which of these methods to invoke at runtime, depending on the actual object that invokes the method.

Note that you could not define the `equalArea` method for comparing whether two geometric objects have the same area if the `getArea` method were not defined in `GeometricObject`. Now you have seen the benefits of defining the abstract methods in `GeometricObject`. why abstract methods?
15.2.2 Interesting Points about Abstract Classes

The following points about abstract classes are worth noting:

- An abstract method cannot be contained in a nonabstract class. If a subclass of an abstract superclass does not implement all the abstract methods, the subclass must be defined as abstract. In other words, in a nonabstract subclass extended from an abstract class, all the abstract methods must be implemented. Also note that abstract methods are nonstatic.

- An abstract class cannot be instantiated using the `new` operator, but you can still define its constructors, which are invoked in the constructors of its subclasses. For instance, the constructors of `GeometricObject` are invoked in the `Circle` class and the `Rectangle` class.

- A class that contains abstract methods must be abstract. However, it is possible to define an abstract class that doesn’t contain any abstract methods. In this case, you cannot create instances of the class using the `new` operator. This class is used as a base class for defining subclasses.

- A subclass can be abstract even if its superclass is concrete. For example, the `Object` class is concrete, but its subclasses, such as `GeometricObject`, may be abstract.

- A subclass can override a method from its superclass to define it as abstract. This is very unusual, but it is useful when the implementation of the method in the superclass becomes invalid in the subclass. In this case, the subclass must be defined as abstract.

- You cannot create an instance from an abstract class using the `new` operator, but an abstract class can be used as a data type. Therefore, the following statement, which creates an array whose elements are of the `GeometricObject` type, is correct.

  ```java
  GeometricObject[] objects = new GeometricObject[10];
  ```

  You can then create an instance of `GeometricObject` and assign its reference to the array like this:

  ```java
  objects[0] = new Circle();
  ```

15.1 Which of the following classes defines a legal abstract class?

(a) ```java
class A {
    abstract void unfinished() {
    }
}
```  

(b) ```java
public class abstract A {
    abstract void unfinished();
}
```  

(c) ```java
class A {
    abstract void unfinished();
}
```  

(d) ```java
abstract class A {
    protected void unfinished();
}
```  

(e) ```java
abstract class A {
    abstract void unfinished();
}
```  

(f) ```java
abstract class A {
    abstract int unfinished();
}
```
15.2 The `getArea` and `getPerimeter` methods may be removed from the `GeometricObject` class. What are the benefits of defining `getArea` and `getPerimeter` as abstract methods in the `GeometricObject` class?

15.3 True or false?

a. An abstract class can be used just like a nonabstract class except that you cannot use the `new` operator to create an instance from the abstract class.

b. An abstract class can be extended.

c. A subclass of a nonabstract superclass cannot be abstract.

d. A subclass cannot override a concrete method in a superclass to define it as abstract.

e. An abstract method must be nonstatic.

15.3 Case Study: the Abstract `Number` Class

`Number` is an abstract superclass for numeric wrapper classes, `BigInteger`, and `BigDecimal`.

Section 10.12 introduced numeric wrapper classes and Section 10.14 introduced the `BigInteger` and `BigDecimal` classes. These classes have common methods `byteValue()`, `shortValue()`, `intValue()`, `longValue()`, `floatValue()`, and `doubleValue()` for returning a `byte`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, and `double` value from an object of these classes. These common methods are actually defined in the `Number` class, which is a superclass for the numeric wrapper classes, `BigInteger`, and `BigDecimal`, as shown in Figure 15.2.

```java
public byte byteValue() {
    return (byte)intValue();
}
```
With **Number** defined as the superclass for the numeric classes, we can define methods to perform common operations for numbers. Listing 15.5 gives a program that finds the largest number in a list of **Number** objects.

**Listing 15.5 LargestNumbers.java**

```java
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.math.*;

public class LargestNumbers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<Number> list = new ArrayList<Number>();
        list.add(45); // Add an integer
        list.add(3445.53); // Add a double
        list.add(new BigInteger("3432323234344343101"));
        list.add(new BigDecimal("2.0909090989091343433344343"));
        System.out.println("The largest number is " +
                            getLargestNumber(list));
    }

    public static Number getLargestNumber(ArrayList<Number> list) {
        if (list == null || list.size() == 0)
            return null;
        Number number = list.get(0);
        for (int i = 1; i < list.size(); i++)
            if (number.doubleValue() < list.get(i).doubleValue())
                number = list.get(i);
        return number;
    }
}
```

The largest number is 3432323234344343101

The program creates an **ArrayList** of **Number** objects (line 6). It adds an **Integer** object, a **Double** object, a **BigInteger** object, and a **BigDecimal** object to the list (lines 7–12). Note that 45 is automatically converted into an **Integer** object and added to the list in line 7 and that 3445.53 is automatically converted into a **Double** object and added to the list in line 8 using autoboxing.

Invoking the **getLargestNumber** method returns the largest number in the list (line 15). The **getLargestNumber** method returns **null** if the list is **null** or the list size is **0** (lines 19–20). To find the largest number in the list, the numbers are compared by invoking their **doubleValue()** method (line 24). The **doubleValue()** method is defined in the **Number** class and implemented in the concrete subclass of **Number**. If a number is an **Integer** object, the **Integer**'s **doubleValue()** is invoked. If a number is a **BigDecimal** object, the **BigDecimal**'s **doubleValue()** is invoked.

If the **doubleValue()** method is not defined in the **Number** class. You will not be able to find the largest number among different types of numbers using the **Number** class.
15.4 Why do the following two lines of code compile but cause a runtime error?

```java
Number numberRef = new Integer(0);
Double doubleRef = (Double)numberRef;
```

15.5 Why do the following two lines of code compile but cause a runtime error?

```java
Number[] numberArray = new Integer[2];
numberArray[0] = new Double(1.5);
```

15.6 Show the output of the following code.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Number x = 3;
        System.out.println(x.intValue());
        System.out.println(x.doubleValue());
    }
}
```

15.7 What is wrong in the following code? (Note that the `compareTo` method for the `Integer` and `Double` classes was introduced in Section 10.12.)

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Number x = new Integer(3);
        System.out.println(x.intValue());
        System.out.println(x.compareTo(new Integer(4)));
    }
}
```

15.8 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Number x = new Integer(3);
        System.out.println(x.intValue());
        System.out.println((Integer)x.compareTo(new Integer(4)));
    }
}
```

15.4 Case Study: Calendar and GregorianCalendar

**GregorianCalendar** is a concrete subclass of the abstract class `Calendar`.

An instance of `java.util.Date` represents a specific instant in time with millisecond precision. `java.util.Calendar` is an abstract base class for extracting detailed calendar information, such as the year, month, date, hour, minute, and second. Subclasses of `Calendar` can implement specific calendar systems, such as the Gregorian calendar, the lunar calendar, and the Jewish calendar. Currently, `java.util.GregorianCalendar` for the Gregorian calendar is supported in Java, as shown in Figure 15.3. The `add` method is abstract in the `Calendar` class, because its implementation is dependent on a concrete calendar system.

You can use `new GregorianCalendar()` to construct a default `GregorianCalendar` with the current time and `new GregorianCalendar(year, month, date)` to construct a `GregorianCalendar` with the specified `year`, `month`, and `date`. The `month` parameter is 0 based—that is, 0 is for January.
The `get(int field)` method defined in the `Calendar` class is useful for extracting the date and time information from a `Calendar` object. The fields are defined as constants, as shown in Table 15.1.

![Figure 15.3](image)

The abstract `Calendar` class defines common features of various calendars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YEAR</td>
<td>The year of the calendar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MONTH</td>
<td>The month of the calendar, with 0 for January.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATE</td>
<td>The day of the calendar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOUR</td>
<td>The hour of the calendar (12-hour notation).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOUR_OF_DAY</td>
<td>The hour of the calendar (24-hour notation).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINUTE</td>
<td>The minute of the calendar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECOND</td>
<td>The second of the calendar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAY_OF_WEEK</td>
<td>The day number within the week, with 1 for Sunday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAY_OF_MONTH</td>
<td>Same as DATE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAY_OF_YEAR</td>
<td>The day number in the year, with 1 for the first day of the year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEEK_OF_MONTH</td>
<td>The week number within the month, with 1 for the first week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEEK_OF_YEAR</td>
<td>The week number within the year, with 1 for the first week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM_PM</td>
<td>Indicator for AM or PM (0 for AM and 1 for PM).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listing 15.6 gives an example that displays the date and time information for the current time.

**Listing 15.6  TestCalendar.java**

```java
import java.util.*;
```
15.4 Case Study: Calendar and GregorianCalendar

```java
   public class TestCalendar {
      public static void main(String[] args) {
         // Construct a Gregorian calendar for the current date and time
         Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar();
         System.out.println("Current time is " + new Date());
         System.out.println("YEAR: " + calendar.get(Calendar.YEAR));
         System.out.println("MONTH: " + calendar.get(Calendar.MONTH));
         System.out.println("DATE: " + calendar.get(Calendar.DATE));
         System.out.println("HOUR: " + calendar.get(Calendar.HOUR));
         System.out.println("HOUR_OF_DAY: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.HOUR_OF_DAY));
         System.out.println("MINUTE: " + calendar.get(Calendar.MINUTE));
         System.out.println("SECOND: " + calendar.get(Calendar.SECOND));
         System.out.println("DAY_OF_WEEK: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.DAY_OF_WEEK));
         System.out.println("DAY_OF_MONTH: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH));
         System.out.println("DAY_OF_YEAR: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.DAY_OF_YEAR));
         System.out.println("WEEK_OF_MONTH: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.WEEK_OF_MONTH));
         System.out.println("WEEK_OF_YEAR: " +
            calendar.get(Calendar.WEEK_OF_YEAR));
         System.out.println("AM_PM: " + calendar.get(Calendar.AM_PM));

         // Construct a calendar for September 11, 2001
         Calendar calendar1 = new GregorianCalendar(2001, 8, 11);
         String[] dayNameOfWeek = {
            "Sunday", "Monday", "Tuesday", "Wednesday",
            "Thursday", "Friday", "Saturday"};
         System.out.println("September 11, 2001 is a " +
            dayNameOfWeek[calendar1.get(Calendar.DAY_OF_WEEK) - 1]);
      }
   }
```

Current time is Sun Nov 27 17:48:15 EST 2011
YEAR: 2011
MONTH: 10
DATE: 27
HOUR: 5
MINUTE: 48
SECOND: 15
DAY_OF_WEEK: 1
DAY_OF_MONTH: 27
DAY_OF_YEAR: 331
WEEK_OF_MONTH: 5
WEEK_OF_YEAR: 49
AM_PM: 1
September 11, 2001 is a Tuesday

The `set(int field, value)` method defined in the `Calendar` class can be used to set a field. For example, you can use `calendar.set(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH, 1)` to set the calendar to the first day of the month.

The `add(field, value)` method adds the specified amount to a given field. For example, `add(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH, 5)` adds five days to the current time of the calendar. `add(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH, -5)` subtracts five days from the current time of the calendar.
To obtain the number of days in a month, use `calendar.getActualMaximum(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH)`. For example, if the `calendar` were for March, this method would return 31.

You can set a time represented in a `Date` object for the `calendar` by invoking `calendar.setTime(date)` and retrieve the time by invoking `calendar.getTime()`.

**15.9** Can you create a `Calendar` object using the `Calendar` class?

**15.10** Which method in the `Calendar` class is abstract?

**15.11** How do you create a `Calendar` object for the current time?

**15.12** For a `Calendar` object `c`, how do you get its year, month, date, hour, minute, and second?

### 15.5 Interfaces

An interface is a class-like construct that contains only constants and abstract methods.

In many ways an interface is similar to an abstract class, but its intent is to specify common behavior for objects of related classes or unrelated classes. For example, using appropriate interfaces, you can specify that the objects are comparable, edible, and/or cloneable.

To distinguish an interface from a class, Java uses the following syntax to define an interface:

```java
modifier interface InterfaceName {
    /** Constant declarations */
    /** Abstract method signatures */
}
```

Here is an example of an interface:

```java
public interface Edible {
    /** Describe how to eat */
    public abstract String howToEat();
}
```

An interface is treated like a special class in Java. Each interface is compiled into a separate bytecode file, just like a regular class. You can use an interface more or less the same way you use an abstract class. For example, you can use an interface as a data type for a reference variable, as the result of casting, and so on. As with an abstract class, you cannot create an instance from an interface using the `new` operator.

You can use the `Edible` interface to specify whether an object is edible. This is accomplished by letting the class for the object implement this interface using the `implements` keyword. For example, the classes `Chicken` and `Fruit` in Listing 15.7 (lines 20, 39) implement the `Edible` interface. The relationship between the class and the interface is known as interface inheritance. Since interface inheritance and class inheritance are essentially the same, we will simply refer to both as inheritance.

### Listing 15.7 TestEdible.java

```java
public class TestEdible {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Object[] objects = {new Tiger(), new Chicken(), new Apple()};
        for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++) {
            if (objects[i] instanceof Edible)
                System.out.println(((Edible)objects[i]).howToEat());
            if (objects[i] instanceof Animal) {
                System.out.println(((Animal)objects[i]).sound());
            }
        }
    }
}
```
This example uses several classes and interfaces. Their inheritance relationship is shown in Figure 15.4.

The Animal class defines the sound method (line 17). It is an abstract method and will be implemented by a concrete animal class.

The Chicken class implements Edible to specify that chickens are edible. When a class implements an interface, it implements all the methods defined in the interface with the exact
Chapter 15  Abstract Classes and Interfaces

signature and return type. The Chicken class implements the howToEat method (lines 22–24). Chicken also extends Animal to implement the sound method (lines 27–29).

The Fruit class implements Edible. Since it does not implement the howToEat method, Fruit must be denoted as abstract (line 39). The concrete subclasses of Fruit must implement the howToEat method. The Apple and Orange classes implement the howToEat method (lines 45, 52).

The main method creates an array with three objects for Tiger, Chicken, and Apple (line 3), and invokes the howToEat method if the element is edible (line 6) and the sound method if the element is an animal (line 9).

In essence, the Edible interface defines common behavior for edible objects. All edible objects have the howToEat method.

Note
Since all data fields are public static final and all methods are public abstract in an interface, Java allows these modifiers to be omitted. Therefore the following interface definitions are equivalent:

```
public interface T {
    public static final int K = 1;
    public abstract void p();
}
```

common behavior

Tip
A constant defined in an interface can be accessed using the syntax InterfaceName.CONSTANT_NAME (e.g., T.K). It is a good practice to define common constants that are shared by many classes in an interface. For example, the constants LEFT, CENTER, RIGHT, LEADING, TRAILING, TOP, and BOTTOM used in AbstractButton are also used in many other Swing components. These constants are centrally defined in the javax.swing.SwingConstants interface. All Swing GUI components implement SwingConstants. You can reference the constants through SwingConstants or a GUI component. For example, SwingConstants.CENTER is the same as JButton.CENTER.

MyProgrammingLab  15.13 Suppose A is an interface. Can you create an instance using new A()?
15.14 Suppose A is an interface. Can you declare a reference variable x with type A like this?

A x;

15.15 Which of the following is a correct interface?

(a) interface A { 
void print() { };
}  

(b) abstract interface A extends I1, I2 { 
abstract void print() { };
}

(c) abstract interface A { 
print();
}

(d) interface A { 
void print();
}

15.16 Explain why SwingConstants.LEFT, AbstractButton.LEFT, JButton.LEFT, JCheckBox.LEFT, JRadioButton.LEFT, and JLabel.LEFT all have the same value.

15.6 The Comparable Interface

The Comparable interface defines the compareTo method for comparing objects.

Suppose you want to design a generic method to find the larger of two objects of the same type, such as two students, two dates, two circles, two rectangles, or two squares. In order to accomplish this, the two objects must be comparable, so the common behavior for the objects must be comparable. Java provides the Comparable interface for this purpose. The interface is defined as follows:

```java
package java.lang;

public interface Comparable<E> {
    public int compareTo(E o);
}
```

The compareTo method determines the order of this object with the specified object o and returns a negative integer, zero, or a positive integer if this object is less than, equal to, or greater than o.

The Comparable interface is a generic interface. The generic type E is replaced by a concrete type when implementing this interface. Many classes in the Java library implement Comparable to define a natural order for objects. The classes Byte, Short, Integer, Long, Float, Double, Character, BigInteger, BigDecimal, Calendar, String, and Date all implement the Comparable interface. For example, the Integer, BigInteger, String, and Date classes are defined as follows in the Java API:

```java
public class Integer extends Number implements Comparable<Integer> { 
    // class body omitted
    @Override
    public int compareTo(Integer o) {
        // Implementation omitted
    }
}

public class BigInteger extends Number implements Comparable<BigInteger> { 
    // class body omitted
    @Override
    public int compareTo(BigInteger o) {
        // Implementation omitted
    }
}
```
Thus, numbers are comparable, strings are comparable, and so are dates. You can use the `compareTo` method to compare two numbers, two strings, and two dates. For example, the following code displays

```java
System.out.println(new Integer(3).compareTo(new Integer(5)));  
System.out.println("ABC".compareTo("ABE"));  
java.util.Date date1 = new java.util.Date(2013, 1, 1);  
java.util.Date date2 = new java.util.Date(2012, 1, 1);  
System.out.println(date1.compareTo(date2));
```

displays

-1
-2
1

Line 1 displays a negative value since 3 is less than 5. Line 2 displays a negative value since ABC is less than ABE. Line 5 displays a positive value since `date1` is greater than `date2`.

Let `n` be an `Integer` object, `s` be a `String` object, and `d` be a `Date` object. All the following expressions are `true`:

```java
n instanceof Integer
n instanceof Object
n instanceof Comparable
s instanceof String
s instanceof Object
s instanceof Comparable
d instanceof java.util.Date
d instanceof Object
d instanceof Comparable
```

Since all `Comparable` objects have the `compareTo` method, the `java.util.Arrays.sort(Object[])` method in the Java API uses the `compareTo` method to compare and sorts the objects in an array, provided that the objects are instances of the `Comparable` interface. Listing 15.8 gives an example of sorting an array of strings and an array of `BigInteger` objects.

**LISTING 15.8 SortComparableObjects.java**

```java
import java.math.*;

public class SortComparableObjects {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String[] cities = {"Savannah", "Boston", "Atlanta", "Tampa"};
        java.util.Arrays.sort(cities);  
        for (String city: cities)  
            System.out.print(city + " ");
        System.out.println();

        BigInteger[] hugeNumbers = {new BigInteger("2323231092923992"),
```
The program creates an array of strings (line 5) and invokes the `sort` method to sort the strings (line 6). The program creates an array of `BigInteger` objects (lines 11–13) and invokes the `sort` method to sort the `BigInteger` objects (line 14).

You cannot use the `sort` method to sort an array of `Rectangle` objects, because `Rectangle` does not implement `Comparable`. However, you can define a new rectangle class that implements `Comparable`. The instances of this new class are comparable. Let this new class be named `ComparableRectangle`, as shown in Listing 15.9.

### Listing 15.9 ComparableRectangle.java

```
public class ComparableRectangle extends Rectangle implements Comparable<ComparableRectangle> {
    /** Construct a ComparableRectangle with specified properties */
    public ComparableRectangle(double width, double height) {
        super(width, height);
    }

    @Override // Implement the compareTo method defined in Comparable
    public int compareTo(ComparableRectangle o) {
        if (getArea() > o.getArea())
            return 1;
        else if (getArea() < o.getArea())
            return -1;
        else
            return 0;
    }

    @Override // Implement the toString method in GeometricObject
    public String toString() {
        return super.toString() + " Area: " + getArea();
    }
}
```

`ComparableRectangle` extends `Rectangle` and implements `Comparable`, as shown in Figure 15.5. The keyword `implements` indicates that `ComparableRectangle` inherits all the constants from the `Comparable` interface and implements the methods in the interface. The `compareTo` method compares the areas of two rectangles. An instance of `ComparableRectangle` is also an instance of `Rectangle`, `GeometricObject`, `Object`, and `Comparable`.

You can now use the `sort` method to sort an array of `ComparableRectangle` objects, as in Listing 15.10.
An interface provides another form of generic programming. It would be difficult to use a generic sort method to sort the objects without using an interface in this example, because multiple inheritance would be necessary to inherit Comparable and another class, such as Rectangle, at the same time.

The Object class contains the equals method, which is intended for the subclasses of the Object class to override in order to compare whether the contents of the objects are the same. Suppose that the Object class contains the compareTo method, as defined in the Comparable interface; the sort method can be used to compare a list of any objects. Whether a compareTo method should be included in the Object class is debatable. Since the compareTo method is not defined in the Object class, the Comparable interface is defined in Java to enable objects to be compared if they are instances of the Comparable interface. It is strongly recommended (though not required) that compareTo should be consistent with equals. That is, for two objects o1 and o2, o1.compareTo(o2) == 0 if and only if o1.equals(o2) is true.

LISTING 15.10 SortRectangles.java

```java
public class SortRectangles {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ComparableRectangle[] rectangles = {
            new ComparableRectangle(3.4, 5.4),
            new ComparableRectangle(13.24, 55.4),
            new ComparableRectangle(7.4, 35.4),
            new ComparableRectangle(1.4, 25.4)};
        java.util.Arrays.sort(rectangles);
        for (Rectangle rectangle: rectangles) {
            System.out.print(rectangle + " ");
        }
    }
}
```

An interface provides another form of generic programming. It would be difficult to use a generic sort method to sort the objects without using an interface in this example, because multiple inheritance would be necessary to inherit Comparable and another class, such as Rectangle, at the same time.

The Object class contains the equals method, which is intended for the subclasses of the Object class to override in order to compare whether the contents of the objects are the same. Suppose that the Object class contains the compareTo method, as defined in the Comparable interface; the sort method can be used to compare a list of any objects. Whether a compareTo method should be included in the Object class is debatable. Since the compareTo method is not defined in the Object class, the Comparable interface is defined in Java to enable objects to be compared if they are instances of the Comparable interface. It is strongly recommended (though not required) that compareTo should be consistent with equals. That is, for two objects o1 and o2, o1.compareTo(o2) == 0 if and only if o1.equals(o2) is true.

15.17 True or false? If a class implements Comparable, the object of the class can invoke the compareTo method.
15.18 Which of the following is the correct method header for the `compareTo` method in the `String` class?

```java
public int compareTo(String o)
public int compareTo(Object o)
```

15.19 Can the following code be compiled? Why?

```java
Integer n1 = new Integer(3);
Object n2 = new Integer(4);
System.out.println(n1.compareTo(n2));
```

15.20 You can define the `compareTo` method in a class without implementing the `Comparable` interface. What are the benefits of implementing the `Comparable` interface?

15.21 True or false? If a class implements `Comparable`, the object of the class can invoke the `compareTo` method.

### 15.7 The Cloneable Interface

The `Cloneable` interface defines the `compareTo` method for comparing objects.

Often it is desirable to create a copy of an object. To do this, you need to use the `clone` method and understand the `Cloneable` interface.

An interface contains constants and abstract methods, but the `Cloneable` interface is a special case. The `Cloneable` interface in the `java.lang` package is defined as follows:

```java
package java.lang;

public interface Cloneable {
}
```

This interface is empty. An interface with an empty body is referred to as a **marker interface**. A marker interface does not contain constants or methods. It is used to denote that a class possesses certain desirable properties. A class that implements the `Cloneable` interface is marked cloneable, and its objects can be cloned using the `clone()` method defined in the `Object` class.

Many classes in the Java library (e.g., `Date`, `Calendar`, and `ArrayList`) implement `Cloneable`. Thus, the instances of these classes can be cloned. For example, the following code displays:

```java
Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar(2013, 2, 1);
Calendar calendar1 = calendar;
Calendar calendar2 = (Calendar)calendar.clone();
System.out.println(calendar == calendar1 is true +
    (calendar == calendar1));
System.out.println(calendar == calendar2 is false +
    (calendar == calendar2));
System.out.println(calendar.equals(calendar2) is true +
    calendar.equals(calendar2));
```

In the preceding code, line 2 copies the reference of `calendar` to `calendar1`, so `calendar` and `calendar1` point to the same `Calendar` object. Line 3 creates a new object that is the
clone of calendar and assigns the new object’s reference to calendar2. calendar2 and calendar are different objects with the same contents.

The following code

```java
int[] list1 = {1, 2};
int[] list2 = list1.clone();
list1[0] = 7;
list2[1] = 8;
System.out.println("list1 is ", list1);
System.out.println("list2 is ", list2);
```

displays

```
list1 is 7, 2
list2 is 1, 8
```

To define a custom class that implements the Cloneable interface, the class must override the clone() method in the Object class. Listing 15.11 defines a class named House that implements Cloneable and Comparable.

**Listing 15.11 House.java**

```java
public class House implements Cloneable, Comparable<House> {
    private int id;
    private double area;
    private java.util.Date whenBuilt;

    public House(int id, double area) {
        this.id = id;
        this.area = area;
        whenBuilt = new java.util.Date();
    }

    public int getId() {
```
The `Cloneable` interface provides a mechanism for object cloning. Here is an example of how to implement the clone method in a class:

```java
public class House implements Cloneable {
    private int id;
    private double area;
    private java.util.Date whenBuilt;

    // Implement the id accessor
    public int getId() { return id; }
    public void setId(int id) { this.id = id; }

    // Implement the area accessor
    public double getArea() { return area; }
    public void setArea(double area) { this.area = area; }

    // Implement the whenBuilt accessor
    public java.util.Date getWhenBuilt() { return whenBuilt; }
    public void setWhenBuilt(java.util.Date whenBuilt) { this.whenBuilt = whenBuilt; }

    // Override the clone method
    @Override
    protected Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException {
        return super.clone();
    }

    // Implement the compareTo method
    public int compareTo(House o) {
        if (area > o.area) return 1;
        else if (area < o.area) return -1;
        else return 0;
    }
}
```

The `House` class implements the `Cloneable` interface to enable object cloning. When you call the `clone()` method, it will return a new `House` object that is a shallow copy of the original object, meaning that only the references are copied, not the contents of the objects. For example:

```java
House house1 = new House(1, 1750.50);
House house2 = (House) house1.clone();
```

In this example, `house1` and `house2` are two different objects with identical contents. If you modify the `area` field of `house1`, the `area` field of `house2` will also be modified, as they are references to the same `Date` object. This is referred to as a shallow copy rather than a deep copy, meaning that if the field is of an object type, the object’s reference is copied rather than its contents.

This exception is thrown if `House` does not implement `Cloneable`.

The `compareTo` method compares the areas of two houses and returns an integer indicating the relationship between the areas.

You can now create an object of the `House` class and create an identical copy from it, as follows:

```java
House house1 = new House(1, 1750.50);
House house2 = (House) house1.clone();
```

In this example, `house1` and `house2` are two different objects with identical contents. The `clone` method in the `Object` class copies each field from the original object to the target object. If the field is of a primitive type, its value is copied. For example, the value of `area` (double type) is copied from `house1` to `house2`. If the field is of an object, the reference of the field is copied. For example, the field `whenBuilt` is of the `Date` class, so its reference is copied into `house2`, as shown in Figure 15.6. Therefore, `house1.whenBuilt == house2.whenBuilt` is true, although `house1.equals(house2)` is false. This is referred to as a shallow copy rather than a deep copy, meaning that if the field is of an object type, the object’s reference is copied rather than its contents.
To perform a deep copy for a `House` object, replace the `clone()` method in lines 26–27 with the following code:

```java
public Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException {
    // Perform a shallow copy
    House houseClone = (House) super.clone();
    // Deep copy on whenBuilt
    houseClone.whenBuilt = (java.util.Date)(whenBuilt.clone());
    return houseClone;
}
```
or

```java
public Object clone() {
    try {
        // Perform a shallow copy
        House houseClone = (House) super.clone();
        // Deep copy on whenBuilt
        houseClone.whenBuilt = (java.util.Date)(whenBuilt.clone());
        return houseClone;
    } catch (CloneNotSupportedException ex) {
        return null;
    }
}
```

Now if you clone a `House` object in the following code:

```java
House house1 = new House(1, 1750.50);
House house2 = (House) house1.clone();
```

`house1.whenBuilt == house2.whenBuilt` will be `false`. `house1` and `house2` reference two different `Date` objects.

**Check Point**

15.22 Can you invoke the `clone()` method to clone an object if the class for the object does not implement the `java.lang.Cloneable`? Does the `Date` class implement `Cloneable`?

15.23 What would happen if the `House` class (defined in Listing 15.9) did not override the `clone()` method or if `House` did not implement `java.lang.Cloneable`?
15.24 Show the printout of the following code:

```java
java.util.Date date = new java.util.Date();
date1 = date;  // shallow copy
date2 = (java.util.Date)(date.clone());  // deep copy
System.out.println(date == date1);
System.out.println(date == date2);
System.out.println(date.equals(date2));
```

15.25 Show the printout of the following code:

```java
ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
list.add("New York");
list1 = list;
list2 = (ArrayList<String>)(list.clone());
list.add("Atlanta");
System.out.println(list == list1);
System.out.println(list == list2);
System.out.println("list is " + list);
System.out.println("list1 is " + list1);
System.out.println("list2.get(0) is " + list2.get(0));
System.out.println("list2.size() is " + list2.size());
```

15.26 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        GeometricObject x = new Circle(3);
        GeometricObject y = x.clone();
        System.out.println(x == y);
    }
}
```

15.8 Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes

A class can implement multiple interfaces, but it can only extend one superclass.

An interface can be used more or less the same way as an abstract class, but defining an interface is different from defining an abstract class. Table 15.2 summarizes the differences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Constructors</th>
<th>Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract class</td>
<td>No restrictions.</td>
<td>Constructors are invoked by subclasses through constructor chaining. An abstract class cannot be instantiated using the new operator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface</td>
<td>All variables must be public static final.</td>
<td>No constructors. An interface cannot be instantiated using the new operator.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Java allows only single inheritance for class extension but allows multiple extensions for interfaces. For example,

```java
public class NewClass extends BaseClass
    implements Interface1, ... , InterfaceN {
    ...
}
```
An interface can inherit other interfaces using the \texttt{extends} keyword. Such an interface is called a \textit{subinterface}. For example, \texttt{NewInterface} in the following code is a subinterface of \texttt{Interface1}, \ldots, and \texttt{InterfaceN}.

\begin{verbatim}
public interface NewInterface extends Interface1, \ldots, InterfaceN {
    // constants and abstract methods
}
\end{verbatim}

A class implementing \texttt{NewInterface} must implement the abstract methods defined in \texttt{NewInterface, Interface1, \ldots, and InterfaceN}. An interface can extend other interfaces but not classes. A class can extend its superclass and implement multiple interfaces.

All classes share a single root, the \texttt{Object} class, but there is no single root for interfaces. Like a class, an interface also defines a type. A variable of an interface type can reference any instance of the class that implements the interface. If a class implements an interface, the interface is like a superclass for the class. You can use an interface as a data type and cast a variable of an interface type to its subclass, and vice versa. For example, suppose that \texttt{c} is an instance of \texttt{Class2} in Figure 15.7. \texttt{c} is also an instance of \texttt{Object, Class1, Interface1, Interface1_1, Interface1_2, Interface2_1, and Interface2_2}.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{interface_diagram.png}
\caption{Class1 implements Interface1; Interface1 extends Interface1_1 and Interface1_2. Class2 extends Class1 and implements Interface2_1 and Interface2_2.}
\end{figure}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Note} \vspace{0.1cm}
Class names are nouns. Interface names may be adjectives or nouns.
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Design Guide} \vspace{0.1cm}
Abstract classes and interfaces can both be used to specify common behavior of objects. How do you decide whether to use an interface or a class? In general, a \textit{strong is-a relationship} that clearly describes a parent-child relationship should be modeled using classes. For example, Gregorian calendar is a calendar, so the relationship between the class \texttt{java.util.GregorianCalendar} and \texttt{java.util.Calendar} is modeled using class inheritance. A \textit{weak is-a relationship}, also known as an \textit{is-kind-of relationship}, indicates that an object possesses a certain property. A weak is-a relationship can be modeled using interfaces. For example, all strings are comparable, so the \texttt{String} class implements the \texttt{Comparable} interface.
\end{itemize}

In general, interfaces are preferred over abstract classes because an interface can define a common supertype for unrelated classes. Interfaces are more flexible than
15.8 Interfaces vs. Abstract Classes

Consider the `Animal` class. Suppose the `howToEat` method is defined in the `Animal` class, as follows:

```java
abstract class Animal {
    public abstract String howToEat();
}
```

Two subclasses of `Animal` are defined as follows:

```java
class Chicken extends Animal {
    @Override
    public String howToEat() {
        return "Fry it";
    }
}

class Duck extends Animal {
    @Override
    public String howToEat() {
        return "Roast it";
    }
}
```

Given this inheritance hierarchy, polymorphism enables you to hold a reference to a `Chicken` object or a `Duck` object in a variable of type `Animal`, as in the following code:

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    eat(animal);
    eat(animal);
}

class Animal {
    public static void eat(Animal animal) {
        animal.howToEat();
    }
}
```

The JVM dynamically decides which `howToEat` method to invoke based on the actual object that invokes the method.

You can define a subclass of `Animal`. However, there is a restriction: The subclass must be for another animal (e.g., `Turkey`). Interfaces don’t have this restriction. Interfaces give you more flexibility than classes, because you don’t have to make everything fit into one type of class. You may define the `howToEat()` method in an interface and let it serve as a common supertype for other classes. For example,

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    Edible stuff = new Chicken();
    eat(stuff);

    stuff = new Duck();
    eat(stuff);

    stuff = new Broccoli();
    eat(stuff);
}
```
public static void eat(Edible stuff) {
    stuff.howToEat();
}

interface Edible {
    public String howToEat();
}

class Chicken implements Edible {
    @Override
    public String howToEat() {
        return "Fry it";
    }
}

class Duck implements Edible {
    @Override
    public String howToEat() {
        return "Roast it";
    }
}

class Broccoli implements Edible {
    @Override
    public String howToEat() {
        return "Stir-fry it";
    }
}

To define a class that represents edible objects, simply let the class implement the Edible interface. The class is now a subtype of the Edible type, and any Edible object can be passed to invoke the eat method.

15.27 Give an example to show why interfaces are preferred over abstract classes.

15.28 Define the terms abstract classes and interfaces. What are the similarities and differences between abstract classes and interfaces?

15.28 True or false?

a. An interface is compiled into a separate bytecode file.
b. An interface can have static methods.
c. An interface can extend one or more interfaces.
d. An interface can extend an abstract class.
e. An abstract class can extend an interface.

15.9 Case Study: The Rational Class

This section shows how to design the Rational class for representing and processing rational numbers.

A rational number has a numerator and a denominator in the form \( \frac{a}{b} \), where \( a \) is the numerator and \( b \) the denominator. For example, \( \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \) and \( \frac{10}{4} \) are rational numbers.

A rational number cannot have a denominator of \( 0 \), but a numerator of \( 0 \) is fine. Every integer \( i \) is equivalent to a rational number \( \frac{i}{1} \). Rational numbers are used in exact computations involving fractions—for example, \( \frac{1}{3} = 0.33333 \ldots \). This number cannot be precisely represented in floating-point format using either the data type double or float. To obtain the exact result, we must use rational numbers.
Java provides data types for integers and floating-point numbers, but not for rational numbers. This section shows how to design a class to represent rational numbers.

Since rational numbers share many common features with integers and floating-point numbers, and `Number` is the root class for numeric wrapper classes, it is appropriate to define `Rational` as a subclass of `Number`. Since rational numbers are comparable, the `Rational` class should also implement the `Comparable` interface. Figure 15.8 illustrates the `Rational` class and its relationship to the `Number` class and the `Comparable` interface.

**Figure 15.8** The properties, constructors, and methods of the `Rational` class are illustrated in UML.

A rational number consists of a numerator and a denominator. There are many equivalent rational numbers—for example, \( \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{3}{9} = \frac{4}{12} \). The numerator and the denominator of \( \frac{1}{3} \) have no common divisor except 1, so \( \frac{1}{3} \) is said to be in lowest terms.

To reduce a rational number to its lowest terms, you need to find the greatest common divisor (GCD) of the absolute values of its numerator and denominator, then divide both the numerator and denominator by this value. You can use the method for computing the GCD of two integers \( n \) and \( d \), as suggested in Listing 4.9, GreatestCommonDivisor.java. The numerator and denominator in a `Rational` object are reduced to their lowest terms.

As usual, let us first write a test program to create two `Rational` objects and test its methods. Listing 15.12 is a test program.

**Listing 15.12** TestRationalClass.java

```java
public class TestRationalClass {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create and initialize two rational numbers r1 and r2
```

---

**LISTING 15.12 TestRationalClass.java**
create a Rational
create a Rational

add

Rational r1 = new Rational(4, 2);
Rational r2 = new Rational(2, 3);

// Display results
System.out.println(r1 + " + " + r2 + " = " + r1.add(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " - " + r2 + " = " + r1.subtract(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " ÷ " + r2 + " = " + r1.multiply(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " / " + r2 + " = " + r1.divide(r2));
System.out.println(r2 + " is " + r2.doubleValue());
}
} 

Rational 

create a 
create a 

add

Rational r1 = new Rational(4, 2);
Rational r2 = new Rational(2, 3);

// Display results
System.out.println(r1 + " + " + r2 + " = " + r1.add(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " - " + r2 + " = " + r1.subtract(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " ÷ " + r2 + " = " + r1.multiply(r2));
System.out.println(r1 + " / " + r2 + " = " + r1.divide(r2));
System.out.println(r2 + " is " + r2.doubleValue());

2 + 2/3 = 8/3
2 - 2/3 = 4/3
2 * 2/3 = 4/3
2 / 2/3 = 3
2/3 is 0.6666666666666666

The main method creates two rational numbers, r1 and r2 (lines 5–6), and displays the results of r1 + r2, r1 - r2, r1 x r2, and r1 / r2 (lines 9–12). To perform r1 + r2, invoke r1.add(r2) to return a new Rational object. Similarly, invoke r1.subtract(r2) for r1 - r2, r1.multiply(r2) for r1 x r2, and r1.divide(r2) for r1 / r2.

The doubleValue() method displays the double value of r2 (line 13). The doubleValue() method is defined in java.lang.Number and overridden in Rational.

Note that when a string is concatenated with an object using the plus sign (+), the object’s string representation from the toString() method is used to concatenate with the string. So r1 + " + " + r2 + " = " + r1.add(r2) is equivalent to r1.toString() + " + " + r2.toString() + " = " + r1.add(r2).toString().

The Rational class is implemented in Listing 15.13.

LISTING 15.13 Rational.java

1 public class Rational extends Number implements Comparable<Rational> { 
2 // Data fields for numerator and denominator
3 private long numerator = 0;
4 private long denominator = 1;
5
6 /** Construct a rational with default properties */
7 public Rational() {
8 this(0, 1);
9 }
10 }
11
12 /** Construct a rational with specified numerator and denominator */
13 public Rational(long numerator, long denominator) {
14 long gcd = gcd(numerator, denominator);
15 this.numerator = ((denominator > 0) ? 1 : -1) * numerator / gcd;
16 this.denominator = Math.abs(denominator) / gcd;
17 }
18
19 /** Find GCD of two numbers */
20 private static long gcd(long n, long d) { 
21 long n1 = Math.abs(n);
22 long n2 = Math.abs(d);
23 int gcd = 1;
for (int k = 1; k <= n1 && k <= n2; k++) {
    if (n1 % k == 0 && n2 % k == 0)
        gcd = k;
}
return gcd;

/** Return numerator */
public long getNumerator() {
    return numerator;
}

/** Return denominator */
public long getDenominator() {
    return denominator;
}

/** Add a rational number to this rational */
public Rational add(Rational secondRational) {
    long n = numerator * secondRational.getDenominator() +
        denominator * secondRational.getNumerator();
    long d = denominator * secondRational.getDenominator();
    return new Rational(n, d);
}

/** Subtract a rational number from this rational */
public Rational subtract(Rational secondRational) {
    long n = numerator * secondRational.getDenominator() -
        denominator * secondRational.getNumerator();
    long d = denominator * secondRational.getDenominator();
    return new Rational(n, d);
}

/** Multiply a rational number by this rational */
public Rational multiply(Rational secondRational) {
    long n = numerator * secondRational.getNumerator();
    long d = denominator * secondRational.getDenominator();
    return new Rational(n, d);
}

/** Divide a rational number by this rational */
public Rational divide(Rational secondRational) {
    long n = numerator * secondRational.getDenominator();
    long d = denominator * secondRational.numerator;
    return new Rational(n, d);
}

@Override
public String toString() {
    if (denominator == 1)
        return numerator + "";
    else
        return numerator + "/" + denominator;
}

@Override // Override the equals method in the Object class
public boolean equals(Object other) {
    if ((this.subtract((Rational)(other))).getNumerator() == 0)
The rational number is encapsulated in a `Rational` object. Internally, a rational number is represented in its lowest terms (line 13), and the numerator determines its sign (line 14). The denominator is always positive (line 15).

The `gcd` method (lines 19–30 in the `Rational` class) is private; it is not intended for use by clients. The `gcd` method is only for internal use by the `Rational` class. The `gcd` method is also static, since it is not dependent on any particular `Rational` object.

The `abs(x)` method (lines 20–21 in the `Rational` class) is defined in the `Math` class and returns the absolute value of `x`.

Two `Rational` objects can interact with each other to perform add, subtract, multiply, and divide operations. These methods return a new `Rational` object (lines 43–70).

The methods `toString` and `equals` in the `Object` class are overridden in the `Rational` class (lines 72–86). The `toString()` method returns a string representation of a `Rational` object in the form `numerator/denominator`, or simply `numerator` if `denominator` is 1. The `equals(Object other)` method returns true if this rational number is equal to the other rational number.

The abstract methods `intValue`, `longValue`, `floatValue`, and `doubleValue` in the `Number` class are implemented in the `Rational` class (lines 88–106). These methods return the `int`, `long`, `float`, and `double` value for this rational number.

The `compareTo(Rational other)` method in the `Comparable` interface is implemented in the `Rational` class (lines 108–116) to compare this rational number to the other rational number.
Tip
The `get` methods for the properties `numerator` and `denominator` are provided in the `Rational` class, but the `set` methods are not provided, so, once a `Rational` object is created, its contents cannot be changed. The `Rational` class is immutable. The `String` class and the wrapper classes for primitive type values are also immutable.

Tip
The numerator and denominator are represented using two variables. It is possible to use an array of two integers to represent the numerator and denominator (see Programming Exercise 15.16). The signatures of the public methods in the `Rational` class are not changed, although the internal representation of a rational number is changed. This is a good example to illustrate the idea that the data fields of a class should be kept private so as to encapsulate the implementation of the class from the use of the class.

The `Rational` class has serious limitations and can easily overflow. For example, the following code will display an incorrect result, because the denominator is too large.

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Rational r1 = new Rational(1, 123456789);
        Rational r2 = new Rational(1, 123456789);
        Rational r3 = new Rational(1, 123456789);
        System.out.println("r1 * r2 * r3 is " +
            r1.multiply(r2.multiply(r3)));}
}
```

To fix it, you can implement the `Rational` class using the `BigInteger` for numerator and denominator (see Programming Exercise 15.21).

15.30 Show the printout of the following code?

```java
Rational r1 = new Rational(-2, 6);
System.out.println(r1.getNumerator());
System.out.println(r1.getDenominator());
System.out.println(r1.intValue());
System.out.println(r1.doubleValue());
```

15.31 Why is the following code wrong?

```java
Rational r1 = new Rational(-2, 6);
Object r2 = new Rational(1, 45);
System.out.println(r2.compareTo(r1));
```

15.32 Why is the following code wrong?

```java
Object r1 = new Rational(-2, 6);
Rational r2 = new Rational(1, 45);
System.out.println(r2.compareTo(r1));
```
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. Abstract classes are like regular classes with data and methods, but you cannot create instances of abstract classes using the `new` operator.

2. An abstract method cannot be contained in a nonabstract class. If a subclass of an abstract superclass does not implement all the inherited abstract methods of the superclass, the subclass must be defined as abstract.

3. A class that contains abstract methods must be abstract. However, it is possible to define an abstract class that doesn’t contain any abstract methods.

4. A subclass can be abstract even if its superclass is concrete.

5. An interface is a class-like construct that contains only constants and abstract methods. In many ways, an interface is similar to an abstract class, but an abstract class can contain constants and abstract methods as well as variables and concrete methods.

6. An interface is treated like a special class in Java. Each interface is compiled into a separate bytecode file, just like a regular class.

7. The `java.lang.Comparable` interface defines the `compareTo` method. Many classes in the Java library implement `Comparable`.

8. The `java.lang.Cloneable` interface is a marker interface. An object of the class that implements the `Cloneable` interface is cloneable.

9. A class can extend only one superclass but can implement one or more interfaces.

10. An interface can extend one or more interfaces.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Sections 15.2–15.3

**15.1** (Plot functions using abstract methods) Write an abstract class that draws the diagram for a function. The class is defined as follows:

```java
public abstract class AbstractDrawFunction extends JPanel {
    /** Polygon to hold the points */
    private Polygon p = new Polygon();
```
protected AbstractDrawFunction () {
    drawFunction();
}

/** Return the y-coordinate */
abstract double f(double x);

/** Obtain points for x-coordinates 100, 101, . . . , 300 */
public void drawFunction() {
    for (int x = -100; x <= 100; x++) {
        p.addPoint(x + 200, 200 - (int)f(x));
    }
}

@Override /** Draw axes, labels, and connect points */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    // To be completed by you
}

Test the class with the following functions:

a. \( f(x) = x^2; \)
b. \( f(x) = \sin(x); \)
c. \( f(x) = \cos(x); \)
d. \( f(x) = \tan(x); \)
e. \( f(x) = \cos(x) + 5\sin(x); \)
f. \( f(x) = 5\cos(x) + \sin(x); \)
g. \( f(x) = \log(x) + x^2; \)

For each function, create a class that extends the AbstractDrawFunction class and implements the \( f \) method. Figure 15.9 displays the drawings for the first three functions.

**15.2** *(Triangle class)* Design a new Triangle class that extends the abstract GeometricObject class. Draw the UML diagram for the classes Triangle and GeometricObject and then implement the Triangle class. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter three sides of the triangle, a color, and a Boolean value to indicate whether the triangle is filled. The program should create a Triangle object with these sides and set the color and filled properties using the input. The program should display the area, perimeter, color, and true or false to indicate whether it is filled or not.
Chapter 15 Abstract Classes and Interfaces

**15.3** *(Shuffle ArrayList)* Write the following method that shuffles an `ArrayList` of numbers:

```java
public static void shuffle(ArrayList<Number> list)
```

**15.4** *(Sort ArrayList)* Write the following method that sorts an `ArrayList` of numbers.

```java
public static void sort(ArrayList<Number> list)
```

**15.5** *(Display a calendar)* Write a program that displays the calendar for the current month, as shown in Figure 15.10. Use labels, and set text on the labels to display the calendar. Use the `GregorianCalendar` class to obtain the information for the month, year, first day of the month, and number of days in the month.

![Image of a calendar](image1)

**Figure 15.10** The program displays the calendar for the current month.

**15.6** *(Display calendars)* Rewrite the `PrintCalendar` class in Listing 5.12 to display a calendar for a specified month using the `Calendar` and `GregorianCalendar` classes. Your program receives the month and year from the command line. For example:

```java
java Exercise15_06 1 2012
```

This displays the calendar shown in Figure 15.11.

![Image of a calendar](image2)

**Figure 15.11** The program displays a calendar for January 2012.

You also can run the program without the year. In this case, the year is the current year. If you run the program without specifying a month and a year, the month is the current month.
Sections 15.4–15.8

*15.7 (Enable GeometricObject comparable) Modify the GeometricObject class to implement the Comparable interface, and define a static max method in the GeometricObject class for finding the larger of two GeometricObject objects. Draw the UML diagram and implement the new GeometricObject class. Write a test program that uses the max method to find the larger of two circles and the larger of two rectangles.

*15.8 (The ComparableCircle class) Define a class named ComparableCircle that extends Circle and implements Comparable. Draw the UML diagram and implement the compareTo method to compare the circles on the basis of area. Write a test class to find the larger of two instances of ComparableCircle objects.

*15.9 (The Colorable interface) Design an interface named Colorable with a void method named howToColor(). Every class of a colorable object must implement the Colorable interface. Design a class named Square that extends GeometricObject and implements Colorable. Implement howToColor to display the message Color all four sides.

Draw a UML diagram that involves Colorable, Square, and GeometricObject. Write a test program that creates an array of five GeometricObjects. For each object in the array, invoke its howToColor method if it is colorable.

*15.10 (Revise the MyStack class) Rewrite the MyStack class in Listing 11.9 to perform a deep copy of the list field.

*15.11 (Enable Circle comparable) Rewrite the Circle class in Listing 15.2 to extend GeometricObject and implement the Comparable interface. Override the equals method in the Object class. Two Circle objects are equal if their radii are the same. Draw the UML diagram that involves Circle, GeometricObject, and Comparable.

*15.12 (Enable Rectangle comparable) Rewrite the Rectangle class in Listing 15.3 to extend GeometricObject and implement the Comparable interface. Override the equals method in the Object class. Two Rectangle objects are equal if their areas are the same. Draw the UML diagram that involves Rectangle, GeometricObject, and Comparable.

*15.13 (The Octagon class) Write a class named Octagon that extends GeometricObject and implements the Comparable and Cloneable interfaces. Assume that all eight sides of the octagon are of equal size. The area can be computed using the following formula:

\[
\text{area} = (2 + 4\sqrt{2}) \times \text{side} \times \text{side}
\]

Draw the UML diagram that involves Octagon, GeometricObject, Comparable, and Cloneable. Write a test program that creates an Octagon object with side value 5 and displays its area and perimeter. Create a new object using the clone method and compare the two objects using the compareTo method.

*15.14 (Sum the areas of geometric objects) Write a method that sums the areas of all the geometric objects in an array. The method signature is:

```java
public static double sumArea(GeometricObject[] a)
```

Write a test program that creates an array of four objects (two circles and two rectangles) and computes their total area using the sumArea method.
*15.15 (Enable the Course class cloneable) Rewrite the Course class in Listing 10.6 to add a clone method to perform a deep copy on the students field.

Section 15.9
*15.16 (Demonstrate the benefits of encapsulation) Rewrite the Rational class in Listing 15.13 using a new internal representation for the numerator and denominator. Create an array of two integers as follows:

```java
private long[] r = new long[2];
```

Use r[0] to represent the numerator and r[1] to represent the denominator. The signatures of the methods in the Rational class are not changed, so a client application that uses the previous Rational class can continue to use this new Rational class without being recompiled.

*15.17 (Use BigInteger for the Rational class) Redesign and implement the Rational class in Listing 15.11 using BigInteger for the numerator and denominator.

*15.18 (Create a rational-number calculator) Write a program similar to Listing 9.5, Calculator.java. Instead of using integers, use rationals, as shown in Figure 15.12a. You will need to use the split method in the String class, introduced in Section 9.2.6, Converting, Replacing, and Splitting Strings, to retrieve the numerator string and denominator string, and convert strings into integers using the Integer.parseInt method.

![Complex number representation](image)

Figure 15.12 (a) The program takes three arguments (operand1, operator, and operand2) from the command line and displays the expression and the result of the arithmetic operation. (b) A complex number can be interpreted as a point in a plane.

*15.19 (Math: The Complex class) A complex number is a number in the form $a + bi$, where $a$ and $b$ are real numbers and $i$ is $\sqrt{-1}$. The numbers $a$ and $b$ are known as the real part and imaginary part of the complex number, respectively. You can perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division for complex numbers using the following formulas:

\[
\begin{align*}
    a + bi + c + di &= (a + c) + (b + d)i \\
    a + bi - (c + di) &= (a - c) + (b - d)i \\
    (a + bi)\times(c + di) &= (ac - bd) + (bc + ad)i \\
    (a + bi)/(c + di) &= (ac + bd)/(c^2 + d^2) + (bc - ad)i/(c^2 + d^2)
\end{align*}
\]
You can also obtain the absolute value for a complex number using the following formula:

\[ |a + bi| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \]

(A complex number can be interpreted as a point on a plane by identifying the \((a, b)\) values as the coordinates of the point. The absolute value of the complex number corresponds to the distance of the point to the origin, as shown in Figure 15.12b.)

Design a class named `Complex` for representing complex numbers and the methods `add`, `subtract`, `multiply`, `divide`, and `abs` for performing complex-number operations, and override `toString` method for returning a string representation for a complex number. The `toString` method returns \((a + bi)\) as a string. If \(b\) is 0, it simply returns \(a\).

Provide three constructors `Complex(a, b)`, `Complex(a)`, and `Complex()`. `Complex(a)` creates a `Complex` object for number 0 and `Complex(a)` creates a `Complex` object with 0 for \(b\). Also provide the `getRealPart()` and `getImaginaryPart()` methods for returning the real and imaginary part of the complex number, respectively.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two complex numbers and displays the result of their addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter the first complex number: 3.5 5.5
Enter the second complex number: -3.5 1
(3.5 + 5.5i) + (-3.5 + 1.0i) = 0.0 + 6.5i
(3.5 + 5.5i) - (-3.5 + 1.0i) = 7.0 + 4.5i
(3.5 + 5.5i) * (-3.5 + 1.0i) = -17.75 + -15.75i
(3.5 + 5.5i) / (-3.5 + 1.0i) = -0.5094 + -1.7i
|(3.5 + 5.5i)| = 6.519202405202649
```

**15.20 (Mandelbrot fractal)** Mandelbrot fractal is a well-known image created from a Mandelbrot set (see Figure 15.13a). A Mandelbrot set is defined using the following iteration:

\[ z_{n+1} = z_n^2 + c \]

c is a complex number and the starting point of iteration is \(z_0 = 0\). For a given \(c\), the iteration will produce a sequence of complex numbers: \(\{z_0, z_1, \ldots, z_n, \ldots\}\). It can be shown that the sequence either tends to infinity or stays bounded, depending on the value of \(c\). For example, if \(c = 0\), the sequence is \(\{0, 0, \ldots\}\), which is bounded. If \(c = i\), the sequence is \(\{0, i, -1 + i, -i, -1 + i, i, \ldots\}\), which is bounded. If \(c = 1 + i\), the sequence is \(\{0, 1 + i, 1 + 3i, \ldots\}\), which is unbounded. It is known that if the absolute value of a complex value in the sequence is greater than 2, then the sequence is unbounded. The Mandelbrot set consists of the \(c\) value such that the sequence is bounded. For example, 0 and \(i\) are in the Mandelbrot set. A Mandelbrot image can be created using the following code:

```java
1 class MandelbrotCanvas extends JPanel {
2     final static int COUNT_LIMIT = 60;
```
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@override /** Paint a Mandelbrot image */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);

    for (double x = -2.0; x < 2.0; x += 0.01)
    for (double y = -2.0; y < 2.0; y += 0.01) {
        int c = count(new Complex(x, y));
        if (c == COUNT_LIMIT)
            g.setColor(Color.BLACK); // c is in a Mandelbrot set
        else
            g.setColor(new Color(15, c * 77 % 256, c * 58 % 256, c * 159 % 256));
        g.drawRect((int)(x * 100) + 200, (int)(y * 100) + 200, 1, 1); // Fill a tiny rectangle with the specified color
    }
}

/** Return the iteration count */
static int count(Complex c) {
    Complex z = new Complex(0, 0); // z0
    for (int i = 0; i < COUNT_LIMIT; i++) {
        z = z.multiply(z).add(c); // Get z1, z2, ...
        if (z.abs() > 2) return i; // The sequence is unbounded
    }
    return COUNT_LIMIT; // Indicate a bounded sequence
}

The count(Complex c) method (lines 23–32) computes z1, z2, . . . , z60. If none of their absolute values exceeds 2, we assume c is in the Mandelbrot set. Of course, there could always be an error, but 60 (COUNT_LIMIT) iterations usually are enough. Once we find that the sequence is unbounded, the method returns the

FIGURE 15.13  A Mandelbrot image is shown in (a) and a Julia set image is shown in (b).
iteration count (line 28). The method returns \texttt{COUNT\_LIMIT} if the sequence is bounded (line 31).

The loop in lines 8–9 examines each point \((x, y)\) for \(-2 < x < 2\) and \(-2 < y < 2\) with interval 0.01 to see if its corresponding complex number \(c = x + yi\) is in the Mandelbrot set (line 10). If so, paint the point black (line 12). If not, set a color that is dependent on its iteration count (line 15). Note that the point is painted in a square with width \(u\) and height \(1\). All the points are scaled and mapped to a grid of 400-by-400 pixels (lines 14–15). Note that the values 77, 58, and 159 are set arbitrarily. You may set different numbers to get new colors.

Complete the program to draw a Mandelbrot image, as shown in Figure 15.13a.

**15.21** (Julia set) The preceding exercise describes Mandelbrot sets. The Mandelbrot set consists of the complex \(c\) value such that the sequence \(z_{n+1} = z_n^2 + c\) is bounded with \(z_0\) fixed and \(c\) varying. If we fix \(c\) and vary \(z_0 (= x + yi)\), the point \((x, y)\) is said to be in a Julia set for a fixed complex value \(c\), if the function \(z_{n+1} = z_n^2 + c\) stays bounded. Revise Exercise 15.20 to draw a Julia set as shown in Figure 15.13b. Note that you only need to revise the \texttt{count} method by using a fixed \(c\) value \((-0.3 + 0.6i)\).

15.22 (Use the \texttt{Rational} class) Write a program that computes the following summation series using the \texttt{Rational} class:

\[
\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{4} + \ldots + \frac{98}{99} + \frac{99}{100}
\]

You will discover that the output is incorrect because of integer overflow (too large). To fix this problem, see Programming Exercise 15.17.
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Event-Driven Programming

Objectives

- To get a taste of event-driven programming (§16.1).
- To describe events, event sources, and event classes (§16.2).
- To define listener classes, register listener objects with the source object, and write the code to handle events (§16.3).
- To define listener classes using inner classes (§16.4).
- To define listener classes using anonymous inner classes (§16.5).
- To explore various coding styles for creating and registering listener classes (§16.6).
- To develop a GUI application for a loan calculator (§16.7).
- To write programs to deal with MouseEvent (§16.8).
- To simplify coding for listener classes using listener interface adapters (§16.9).
- To write programs to deal with KeyEvent (§16.10).
- To use the javax.swing.Timer class to control animations (§16.11).
16.1 Introduction

You can write code to process events such as a button click or a timer.

Suppose you want to write a GUI program that lets the user enter a loan amount, annual interest rate, and number of years and click the Compute Payment button to obtain the monthly payment and total payment, as shown in Figure 16.1a. How do you accomplish the task? You have to use event-driven programming to write the code to respond to the button-clicking event.

Before delving into event-driven programming, it is helpful to get a taste using a simple example. The example displays two buttons in a frame, as shown in Figure 16.2.

To respond to a button click, you need to write the code to process the button-clicking action. The button is an event source object—where the action originates. You need to create an object capable of handling the action event on a button. This object is called an event listener, as shown in Figure 16.3.

Not all objects can be listeners for an action event. To be a listener of an action event, two requirements must be met:

1. The object must be an instance of the ActionListener interface. This interface defines the common behavior for all action listeners.
2. The ActionListener object listener must be registered with the event source object using the method source.addActionListener(listener).
The `ActionListener` interface contains the `actionPerformed` method for processing the event. Your listener class must override this method to respond to the event. Listing 16.1 gives the code that processes the `ActionEvent` on the two buttons. When you click the `OK` button, the message “OK button clicked” is displayed. When you click the `Cancel` button, the message “Cancel button clicked” is displayed, as shown in Figure 16.2.

**LISTING 16.1 HandleEvent.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class HandleEvent extends JFrame {
    public HandleEvent() {
        // Create two buttons
        JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
        JButton jbtCancel = new JButton("Cancel");

        // Create a panel to hold buttons
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtOK);
        panel.add(jbtCancel);

        add(panel); // Add panel to the frame

        // Register listeners
        OKListenerClass listener1 = new OKListenerClass();
        CancelListenerClass listener2 = new CancelListenerClass();
        jbtOK.addActionListener(listener1);
        jbtCancel.addActionListener(listener2);
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new HandleEvent();
        frame.setTitle("Handle Event");
        frame.setSize(200, 150);
        frame.setLocation(200, 100);
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    class OKListenerClass implements ActionListener {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println("OK button clicked");
        }
    }

    class CancelListenerClass implements ActionListener {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println("Cancel button clicked");
        }
    }
}
```

Two listener classes are defined in lines 34–46. Each listener class implements `ActionListener` to process `ActionEvent`. The object `listener1` is an instance of `OKListenerClass` (line 18), which is registered with the button `jbtOK` (line 20). When the `OK` button is clicked, the `actionPerformed(ActionEvent)` method (line 36) in
OKListenerClass is invoked to process the event. The object listener2 is an instance of CancelListenerClass (line 19), which is registered with the button jbtCancel in line 21. When the Cancel button is clicked, the actionPerformed(ActionEvent) method (line 43) in CancelListenerClass is invoked to process the event.

You now have seen a glimpse of event-driven programming in Java. You probably have many questions, such as why a listener class is defined to implement the ActionListener. The following sections will give you all the answers.

16.2 Events and Event Sources

An event is an object created from an event source. Firing an event means to create an event and delegate the listener to handle the event.

When you run a Java GUI program, the program interacts with the user, and the events drive its execution. This is called event-driven programming. An event can be defined as a signal to the program that something has happened. Events are triggered either by external user actions, such as mouse movements, button clicks, and keystrokes, or by internal program activities, such as a timer. The program can choose to respond to or ignore an event. The example in the preceding section gave you a taste of event-driven programming.

The component that creates an event and fires it is called the event source object, or simply source object or source component. For example, a button is the source object for a button-clicking action event. An event is an instance of an event class. The root class of the event classes is java.util.EventObject. The hierarchical relationships of some event classes are shown in Figure 16.4.

An event object contains whatever properties are pertinent to the event. You can identify the source object of an event using the getSource() instance method in the EventObject class. The subclasses of EventObject deal with specific types of events, such as action events, window events, component events, mouse events, and key events. The first three columns in Table 16.1 list some external user actions, source objects, and event types fired. For example, when clicking a button, the button creates and fires an ActionEvent, as indicated in the first line of this table. Here the button is an event source object and an ActionEvent is the event object fired by the source object, as shown in Figure 16.2.

Note

If a component can fire an event, any subclass of the component can fire the same type of event. For example, every GUI component can fire MouseEvent and KeyEvent, since Component is the superclass of all GUI components.
### 16.3 Listeners, Registrations, and Handling Events

A listener is an object that must be registered with an event source object, and it must be an instance of an appropriate event-handling interface.

Java uses a delegation-based model for event handling: a source object fires an event, and an object interested in the event handles it. The latter object is called an event listener or simply listener. For an object to be a listener for an event on a source object, two things are needed, as shown in Figure 16.5.

1. The listener object must be an instance of the corresponding event-listener interface to ensure that the listener has the correct method for processing the event. Java provides a listener interface for every type of event. The listener interface is usually named `XListener` for `XEvent`, with the exception of `MouseMotionListener`. The last event-delegation event listener

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>User Action</th>
<th>Source Object</th>
<th>Event Type Fired</th>
<th>Listener Interface</th>
<th>Listener Interface Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click a button</td>
<td>JButton</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press Enter in a text field</td>
<td>JTextField</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select a new item</td>
<td>JComboBox</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check or uncheck</td>
<td>JRadioButton</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check or uncheck</td>
<td>JCheckBox</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select a new item</td>
<td>JComboBox</td>
<td>ActionEvent</td>
<td>ActionListener</td>
<td>actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse pressed</td>
<td>Component</td>
<td>MouseEvent</td>
<td>MouseListener</td>
<td>mousePressed(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse released</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mouseReleased(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse clicked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mouseClicked(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse entered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mouseEntered(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse exited</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mouseExited(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse moved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MouseMotionListener</td>
<td>mouseMoved(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse dragged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mouseDragged(MouseEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key pressed</td>
<td>Component</td>
<td>KeyEvent</td>
<td>KeyListener</td>
<td>keyPressed(KeyEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key released</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>keyReleased(KeyEvent e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key typed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>keyTyped(KeyEvent e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All the event classes in Figure 16.4 are included in the `java.awt.event` package except `ListSelectionEvent` and `ChangeEvent`, which are in the `javax.swing.event` package. AWT events were originally designed for AWT components, but many Swing components fire them.
three columns in Table 16.1 list event types, the corresponding listener interfaces, and the methods defined in the listener interfaces. The listener interface contains the method(s), known as the event handler(s), for processing the event. For example, as shown in the first line of this table, the corresponding listener interface for `ActionEvent` is `ActionListener`; each listener for `ActionEvent` should implement the `ActionListener` interface; the `ActionListener` interface contains the handler `actionPerformed(ActionEvent)` for processing an `ActionEvent`.

2. The listener object must be registered by the source object. Registration methods depend on the event type. For `ActionEvent`, the method is `addActionListener`. In general, the method is named `addXListener` for `XEvent`. A source object may fire several types of events, and for each event the source object maintains a list of registered listeners and notifies them by invoking the handler of the listener object to respond to the event, as shown in Figure 16.6. (Note that this figure shows the internal implementation of a source class. You don’t have to know how a source class such as `JButton` is implemented in order to use it, but this knowledge will help you understand the Java event-driven programming framework.)

![Diagram of event handling](image-url)

**Figure 16.5** A listener must be an instance of a listener interface and must be registered with a source object.

![Diagram of event handling](image-url)

**Figure 16.6** The source object notifies the listeners of the event by invoking the listener object’s handler.
Let’s revisit Listing 16.1, HandleEvent.java. Since a JButton object fires ActionEvent, a listener object for ActionEvent must be an instance of ActionListener, so the listener class implements ActionListener in line 34. The source object invokes addActionListener(listener) to register a listener, as follows:

```java
JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK"); // Line 7 in Listing 16.1
OKListenerClass listener1 = new OKListenerClass(); // Line 18 in Listing 16.1
jbtOK.addActionListener(listener1); // Line 20 in Listing 16.1
```

When you click the button, the JButton object fires an ActionEvent and passes it to invoke the listener’s actionPerformed method to handle the event.

The event object contains information pertinent to the event, which can be obtained using the methods, as shown in Figure 16.7. For example, you can use `e.getSource()` to obtain the source object that fired the event. For an action event, you can use `e.getWhen()` to obtain the time when the event occurred.

```
java.util.EventObject
+getSource(): Object

java.awt.event.ActionEvent
+getActionCommand(): String
+getModifiers(): int
+getWhen(): long
```

Returns the source object for the event.

Returns the command string associated with this action. For a button, its text is the command string.

Returns the modifier keys held down during this action event.

Returns the timestamp when this event occurred. The time is the number of milliseconds since January 1, 1970, 00:00:00 GMT.

**Figure 16.7** You can obtain useful information from an event object.

We now write a program that uses two buttons to control the size of a circle, as shown in Figure 16.8.

**Figure 16.8** The user clicks the *Enlarge* and *Shrink* buttons to enlarge and shrink the size of the circle.

We will develop this program incrementally. First we will write the program in Listing 16.2 that displays the user interface with a circle in the center (line 14) and two buttons on the bottom (line 15).
Listing 16.2  ControlCircleWithoutEventHandling.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class ControlCircleWithoutEventHandling extends JFrame {

    private JButton jbtEnlarge = new JButton("Enlarge");
    private JButton jbtShrink = new JButton("Shrink");

    private CirclePanel canvas = new CirclePanel();

    public ControlCircleWithoutEventHandling() {
        JPanel panel = new JPanel(); // Use the panel to group buttons
        panel.add(jbtEnlarge);
        panel.add(jbtShrink);

        this.add(canvas, BorderLayout.CENTER); // Add canvas to center
        this.add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH); // Add buttons to the frame
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new ControlCircleWithoutEventHandling();
        frame.setTitle("ControlCircleWithoutEventHandling");
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

The CirclePanel class defines a circle canvas. The circle can be painted using the methods `paintComponent()` in the `CirclePanel` class (lines 29–38). The `paintComponent()` method is overridden to repaint the circle (line 32). The circle is drawn using the `drawOval()` method of the `Graphics` object (lines 35–38).

How do you use the buttons to enlarge or shrink the circle? When the `Enlarge` button is clicked, you want the circle to be repainted with a larger radius. How can you accomplish this? You can expand the program in Listing 16.2 into Listing 16.3 with the following features:

1. Define a listener class named `EnlargeListener` that implements `ActionListener` (lines 31–36).
2. Create a listener and register it with `jbtEnlarge` (line 18).
3. Add a method named `enlarge()` in `CirclePanel` to increase the radius, then repaint the panel (lines 42–45).
4. Implement the `actionPerformed` method in `EnlargeListener` to invoke `canvas.enlarge()` (line 34).
5. To make the reference variable `canvas` accessible from the `actionPerformed` method, define `EnlargeListener` as an inner class of the `ControlCircle` class (lines 31–36). (Inner classes are defined inside another class. We will introduce inner classes in the next section.)
6. To avoid compile errors, the CirclePanel class (lines 38–53) now is also defined as an inner class in ControlCircle, since another CirclePanel class is already defined in Listing 16.2.

**LISTING 16.3 ControlCircle.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class ControlCircle extends JFrame {
    private JButton jbtEnlarge = new JButton("Enlarge");
    private JButton jbtShrink = new JButton("Shrink");
    private CirclePanel canvas = new CirclePanel();

    public ControlCircle() {
        JPanel panel = new JPanel(); // Use the panel to group buttons
        panel.add(jbtEnlarge);
        panel.add(jbtShrink);

        this.add(canvas, BorderLayout.CENTER); // Add canvas to center
        this.add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH); // Add buttons to the frame

        jbtEnlarge.addActionListener(newEnlargeListener());
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new ControlCircle();
        frame.setTitle("ControlCircle");
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    // Inner class
    class EnlargeListener implements ActionListener {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            canvas.enlarge();
        }
    }

    // Inner class
    class CirclePanel extends JPanel {
        private int radius = 5; // Default circle radius
        /** Enlarge the circle */
        public void enlarge() {
            radius++;
            repaint();
        }

        @Override
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);
            g.drawOval(getWidth() / 2 - radius, getHeight() / 2 - radius,
                       2 * radius, 2 * radius);
        }
    }
```
Similarly, you can add the code for the Shrink button to display a smaller circle when the Shrink button is clicked.

**16.3** Why must a listener be an instance of an appropriate listener interface? Explain how to register a listener object and how to implement a listener interface.

**16.4** Can a source have multiple listeners? Can a listener listen to multiple sources? Can a source be a listener for itself?

**16.5** How do you implement a method defined in the listener interface? Do you need to implement all the methods defined in the listener interface?

**16.6** What method do you use to get the timestamp for an action event?

### 16.4 Inner Classes

An inner class, or nested class, is a class defined within the scope of another class. Inner classes are useful for defining listener classes.

We now introduce inner classes in this section and anonymous inner classes in the next section and use them to define listener classes. First let us see the code in Figure 16.9. The code in Figure 16.9a defines two separate classes, Test and A. The code in Figure 16.9b defines A as an inner class in Test.

```java
public class Test {
    ...

    public class A {
        ...
    }
}
```

```java
public class A {
    ...
}
```

```java
public class Test {
    ...

    // Inner class
    public class A {
        ...
    }
}
```

**FIGURE 16.9** Inner classes combine dependent classes into the primary class.

The class InnerClass defined inside OuterClass in Figure 16.9c is another example of an inner class. An inner class may be used just like a regular class. Normally, you define a class as an inner class if it is used only by its outer class. An inner class has the following features:

- An inner class is compiled into a class named OuterClassName$InnerClassName.class. For example, the inner class A in Test is compiled into Test$A.class in Figure 16.9b.

- An inner class can reference the data and methods defined in the outer class in which it nests, so you need not pass the reference of an object of the outer class to the constructor of the inner class. For this reason, inner classes can make programs simple and concise.
For example, `canvas` is defined in `ControlCircle` in Listing 16.3 (line 8). It can be referenced in the inner class `EnlargeListener` in line 34.

- An inner class can be defined with a visibility modifier subject to the same visibility rules applied to a member of the class.
- An inner class can be defined as `static`. A `static` inner class can be accessed using the outer class name. A `static` inner class cannot access nonstatic members of the outer class.
- Objects of an inner class are often created in the outer class. But you can also create an object of an inner class from another class. If the inner class is nonstatic, you must first create an instance of the outer class, then use the following syntax to create an object for the inner class:

  ```java
  OuterClass.InnerClass innerObject = outerObject.new InnerClass();
  ```

- If the inner class is static, use the following syntax to create an object for it:

  ```java
  OuterClass.InnerClass innerObject = new OuterClass.InnerClass();
  ```

A simple use of inner classes is to combine dependent classes into a primary class. This reduces the number of source files. It also makes class files easy to organize, since they are all named with the primary class as the prefix. For example, rather than creating the two source files `Test.java` and `A.java` in Figure 16.9a, you can merge class `A` into class `Test` and create just one source file, `Test.java` in Figure 16.9b. The resulting class files are `Test.class` and `Test$A.class`.

Another practical use of inner classes is to avoid class-naming conflicts. Two versions of `CirclePanel` are defined in Listings 16.2 and 16.3. You can define them as inner classes to avoid a conflict.

A listener class is designed specifically to create a listener object for a GUI component (e.g., a button). The listener class will not be shared by other applications and therefore is appropriate to be defined inside the frame class as an inner class.

**16.7** Can an inner class be used in a class other than the class in which it nests?

**16.8** Can the modifiers `public`, `private`, and `static` be used for inner classes?

## 16.5 Anonymous Class Listeners

An anonymous inner class is an inner class without a name. It combines defining an inner class and creating an instance of the class into one step.

Inner-class listeners can be shortened using *anonymous inner classes*. The inner class in Listing 16.3 can be replaced by an anonymous inner class as shown below.

```java
public ControlCircle() {
    // Omitted
    jbtEnlarge.addActionListener(
        new EnlargeListener()
    );
}

class EnlargeListener implements ActionListener {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        canvas.enlarge();
    }
}
```

(a) Inner class `EnlargeListener`

```java
public ControlCircle() {
    // Omitted
    jbtEnlarge.addActionListener(
        new class EnlargeListener implements ActionListener {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                canvas.enlarge();
            }
        }
    );
}
```

(b) Anonymous inner class
The syntax for an anonymous inner class is:

```java
new SuperClassName/InterfaceName() {
    // Implement or override methods in superclass or interface
    // Other methods if necessary
}
```

Since an anonymous inner class is a special kind of inner class, it is treated like an inner class with the following features:

- An anonymous inner class must always extend a superclass or implement an interface, but it cannot have an explicit `extends` or `implements` clause.
- An anonymous inner class must implement all the abstract methods in the superclass or in the interface.
- An anonymous inner class always uses the no-arg constructor from its superclass to create an instance. If an anonymous inner class implements an interface, the constructor is `Object()`.
- An anonymous inner class is compiled into a class named `OuterClassName$\mathit{n.class}`. For example, if the outer class `Test` has two anonymous inner classes, they are compiled into `Test$1.class` and `Test$2.class`.

Listing 16.4 gives an example that handles the events from four buttons, as shown in Figure 16.10.

```
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class AnonymousListenerDemo extends JFrame {
    public AnonymousListenerDemo() {
        // Create four buttons
        JButton jbtNew = new JButton("New");
        JButton jbtOpen = new JButton("Open");
        JButton jbtSave = new JButton("Save");
        JButton jbtPrint = new JButton("Print");

        // Create a panel to hold buttons
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtNew);
        panel.add(jbtOpen);
        panel.add(jbtSave);
        panel.add(jbtPrint);

        add(panel);
    }
}
```

**Figure 16.10** The program handles the events from four buttons.
The program creates four listeners using anonymous inner classes (lines 22–52). Without using anonymous inner classes, you would have to create four separate classes. An anonymous listener works the same way as an inner class listener. The program is condensed using an anonymous inner class.

Anonymous inner classes are compiled into `OuterClassName$#.class`, where # starts at 1 and is incremented for each anonymous class the compiler encounters. In this example, the anonymous inner classes are compiled into `AnonymousListenerDemo$1.class`, `AnonymousListenerDemo$2.class`, `AnonymousListenerDemo$3.class`, and `AnonymousListenerDemo$4.class`.

Instead of using the `setSize` method to set the size for the frame, the program uses the `pack()` method (line 61), which automatically sizes the frame according to the size of the components placed in it.
16.9 If class A is an inner class in class B, what is the .class file for A? If class B contains two anonymous inner classes, what are the .class file names for these two classes?

16.10 What is wrong in the following code?

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

public class Test extends JFrame {
    Test() {
        JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
        add(jbtOK);
    }

    private class Listener implements ActionListener {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println(jbtOK.getActionCommand());
        }
    }

    /** Main method omitted */
}
```

16.11 What is the difference between the `setSize(width, height)` method and the `pack()` method in JFrame?

16.6 Alternative Ways of Defining Listener Classes

Using an inner class or an anonymous inner class is preferred for defining listener classes.

There are many other ways to define the listener classes. For example, you can rewrite Listing 16.4 by creating just one listener, register the listener with the buttons, and let the listener detect the event source—that is, which button fires the event—as shown in Listing 16.5.

**LISTING 16.5 DetectSourceDemo.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class DetectSourceDemo extends JFrame {
    // Create four buttons
    private JButton jbtNew = new JButton("New");
    private JButton jbtOpen = new JButton("Open");
    private JButton jbtSave = new JButton("Save");
    private JButton jbtPrint = new JButton("Print");

    public DetectSourceDemo() {
        // Create a panel to hold buttons
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtNew);
        panel.add(jbtOpen);
        panel.add(jbtSave);
        panel.add(jbtPrint);
    }
}
```
add(panel);

// Create a listener
ButtonListener listener = new ButtonListener();

// Register listener with buttons
jbtNew.addActionListener(listener);
jbtOpen.addActionListener(listener);
jbtSave.addActionListener(listener);
jbtPrint.addActionListener(listener);
}

class ButtonListener implements ActionListener {
  @Override
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    if (e.getSource() == jbtNew)
      System.out.println("Process New");
    else if (e.getSource() == jbtOpen)
      System.out.println("Process Open");
    else if (e.getSource() == jbtSave)
      System.out.println("Process Save");
    else if (e.getSource() == jbtPrint)
      System.out.println("Process Print");
  }
}

/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
  JFrame frame = new DetectSourceDemo();
  frame.setTitle("DetectSourceDemo");
  frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
  frame.setVisible(true);
}

This program defines just one inner listener class (lines 31–43), creates a listener from the class (line 22), and registers it to four buttons (lines 25–28). When a button is clicked, the button fires an ActionEvent and invokes the listener’s actionPerformed method. The actionPerformed method checks the source of the event using the getSource() method for the event (lines 34, 36, 38, 40) and determines which button fired the event.

Defining one listener class for handling a large number of events is efficient. In this case, you create just one listener object. Using anonymous inner classes, you would create four listener objects.

You could also rewrite Listing 16.4 by defining the custom frame class that implements ActionListener, as shown in Listing 16.6.

Listing 16.6 FrameAsListenerDemo.java

import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class FrameAsListenerDemo extends JFrame {
  implements ActionListener {
    // Create four buttons
    private JButton jbtNew = new JButton("New");
    private JButton jbtOpen = new JButton("Open");
    private JButton jbtSave = new JButton("Save");
  }
private JButton jbtPrint = new JButton("Print");

public FrameAsListenerDemo() {  
// Create a panel to hold buttons  
JPanel panel = new JPanel();  
panel.add(jbtNew);  
panel.add(jbtOpen);  
panel.add(jbtSave);  
panel.add(jbtPrint);  
add(panel);  

// Register listener with buttons  
jbtNew.addActionListener(this);  
jbtOpen.addActionListener(this);  
jbtSave.addActionListener(this);  
jbtPrint.addActionListener(this);
}

@Override /** Implement actionPerformed */
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {  
if (e.getSource() == jbtNew)  
    System.out.println("Process New");
else if (e.getSource() == jbtOpen)  
    System.out.println("Process Open");
else if (e.getSource() == jbtSave)  
    System.out.println("Process Save");
else if (e.getSource() == jbtPrint)  
    System.out.println("Process Print");
}

/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    JFrame frame = new FrameAsListenerDemo();  
    frame.setTitle("FrameAsListenerDemo");  
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame  
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);  
    frame.pack();  
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

The frame class extends JFrame and implements ActionListener (line 5), so the class is a listener class for action events. The listener is registered to four buttons (lines 23–26). When a button is clicked, the button fires an ActionEvent and invokes the listener's actionPerformed method. The actionPerformed method checks the source of the event using the getSource() method for the event (lines 31, 33, 35, 37) and determines which button fired the event.

This design is not desirable, however, because it puts too many responsibilities into one class. It is better to design a listener class that is solely responsible for handling events, which makes the code easy to read and easy to maintain.

You should define listener classes using either inner classes or anonymous inner classes—choose whichever produces shorter, clearer, and cleaner code. In general, use anonymous inner classes if the code in the listener is short and the listener is registered for one event source. Use inner classes if the code in the listener is long or the listener is registered for multiple event sources.

16.12 Why should you avoid defining the custom frame class that implements ActionListener?

16.13 What method do you use to get the source object from an event object e?
16.7 Case Study: Loan Calculator

This case study uses GUI components and events.

Now we will write the program for the loan-calculator problem presented at the beginning of this chapter. Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Create the user interface, as shown in Figure 16.11.

   a. Create a panel of a `GridLayout` with 5 rows and 2 columns. Add labels and text fields to the panel. Set the title “Enter loan amount, interest rate, and years” for the panel.

   b. Create another panel with a `FlowLayout(FlowLayout.RIGHT)` and add a button to the panel.

   c. Add the first panel to the center of the frame and the second panel on the south side of the frame.

2. Process the event.

   Create and register the listener for processing the button-clicking action event. The handler obtains the user input on the loan amount, interest rate, and number of years, computes the monthly and total payments, and displays the values in the text fields.

The complete program is given in Listing 16.7.

**Listing 16.7 LoanCalculator.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.TitledBorder;

public class LoanCalculator extends JFrame {
    // Create text fields for interest rate, years, loan amount, monthly payment, and total payment
    private JTextField jtfAnnualInterestRate = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfNumberOfYears = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfLoanAmount = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfMonthlyPayment = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfTotalPayment = new JTextField();

    // Create a Compute Payment button
    private JButton jbtComputeLoan = new JButton("Compute Payment");

    // Create text fields
    text fields

    // Create a Compute Payment button
    button
```
public LoanCalculator() {
  // Panel p1 to hold labels and text fields
  JPanel p1 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(5, 2));
  p1.add(new JLabel("Annual Interest Rate"));
  p1.add(jtfAnnualInterestRate);
  p1.add(new JLabel("Number of Years"));
  p1.add(jtfNumberOfYears);
  p1.add(new JLabel("Loan Amount"));
  p1.add(jtfLoanAmount);
  p1.add(new JLabel("Monthly Payment"));
  p1.add(jtfMonthlyPayment);
  p1.add(new JLabel("Total Payment"));
  p1.add(jtfTotalPayment);
  p1.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Enter loan amount, interest rate, and years"));

  // Panel p2 to hold the button
  JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.RIGHT));
  p2.add(jbtComputeLoan);

  // Add the panels to the frame
  add(p1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
  add(p2, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

  // Register listener
  jbtComputeLoan.addActionListener(new ButtonListener());
}

/** Handle the Compute Payment button */
private class ButtonListener implements ActionListener {
  @Override
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    // Get values from text fields
    double interest = Double.parseDouble(jtfAnnualInterestRate.getText());
    int year = Integer.parseInt(jtfNumberOfYears.getText());
    double loanAmount = Double.parseDouble(jtfLoanAmount.getText());

    // Create a loan object. Loan defined in Listing 10.2
    Loan loan = new Loan(interest, year, loanAmount);

    // Display monthly payment and total payment
    jtfMonthlyPayment.setText(String.format("%.2f", loan.getMonthlyPayment()));
    jtfTotalPayment.setText(String.format("%.2f", loan.getTotalPayment()));
  }
}

public static void main(String[] args) {
  LoanCalculator frame = new LoanCalculator();
  frame.pack();
  frame.setTitle("LoanCalculator");
  frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
  frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
  frame.setVisible(true);
}
The user interface is created in the constructor (lines 18–44). The button is the source of the event. A listener is created and registered with the button (line 43).

The ButtonListener class (lines 47–66) implements the actionPerformed method. When the button is clicked, the actionPerformed method is invoked to get the interest rate (line 51), number of years (line 53), and loan amount (line 54). Invoking jtfAnnualInterestRate.getText() returns the string text in the jtfAnnualInterestRate text field. The Loan class is used for computing the loan payments. This class was introduced in Listing 10.2, Loan.java. Invoking loan.getMonthlyPayment() returns the monthly payment for the loan (line 62). The String.format method, introduced in Section 9.2.11, is used to format a number into a desirable format and returns it as a string (lines 61, 63). Invoking the setText method on a text field sets a string value in the text field (line 61).

### 16.8 Mouse Events

A mouse event is fired whenever a mouse button is pressed, released, or clicked, the mouse is moved, or the mouse is dragged onto a component.

The MouseEvent object captures the event, such as the number of clicks associated with it, the location (the x- and y-coordinates) of the mouse, or which button was pressed, as shown in Figure 16.12.

```java
java.awt.event.InputEvent
+getWhen(): long
+isAltDown(): boolean
+isControlDown(): boolean
+isMetaDown(): boolean
+isShiftDown(): boolean

Returns the timestamp when this event occurred.
Returns true if the Alt key is pressed on this event.
Returns true if the Control key is pressed on this event.
Returns true if the Meta mouse button is pressed on this event.
Returns true if the Shift key is pressed on this event.
```

```java
java.awt.event.MouseEvent
+getButton(): int
+getClickCount(): int
+getPoint(): java.awt.Point
+getX(): int
+getY(): int

Indicates which mouse button has been clicked.
Returns the number of mouse clicks associated with this event.
Returns a Point object containing the x- and y-coordinates.
Returns the x-coordinate of the mouse point.
Returns the y-coordinate of the mouse point.
```

**Figure 16.12** The MouseEvent class encapsulates information for mouse events.

Since the MouseEvent class inherits InputEvent, you can use the methods defined in the InputEvent class on a MouseEvent object. For example, the isControlDown() method detects whether the CTRL key was pressed when a MouseEvent is fired.

Three int constants—BUTTON1, BUTTON2, and BUTTON3—are defined in MouseEvent to indicate the left, middle, and right mouse buttons. You can use the getButton() method to detect which button is pressed. For example, getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON3 indicates that the right button was pressed.

The java.awt.Point class represents a point on a component. The class contains two public variables, x and y, for coordinates. To create a Point, use the following constructor:

```java
Point(int x, int y)
```
This constructs a **Point** object with the specified \(x\)- and \(y\)-coordinates. Normally, the data fields in a class should be private, but this class has two public data fields.

Java provides two listener interfaces, **MouseListener** and **MouseMotionListener**, to handle mouse events, as shown in Figure 16.13. Implement the **MouseListener** interface to listen for such actions as pressing, releasing, entering, exiting, or clicking the mouse, and implement the **MouseMotionListener** interface to listen for such actions as dragging or moving the mouse.

**Figure 16.13** The **MouseListener** interface handles mouse pressed, released, clicked, entered, and exited events. The **MouseMotionListener** interface handles mouse dragged and moved events.

To demonstrate using mouse events, we give an example that displays a message in a panel and enables the message to be moved using a mouse. The message moves as the mouse is dragged, and it is always displayed at the mouse point. Listing 16.8 gives the program. A sample run of the program is shown in Figure 16.14.

**Figure 16.14** You can move the message by dragging the mouse.

**Listing 16.8** MoveMessageDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class MoveMessageDemo extends JFrame {
    public MoveMessageDemo() {
```
The `MovableMessagePanel` class extends `JPanel` to draw a message (line 26). Additionally, it handles redisplaying the message when the mouse is dragged. This class is defined as an inner class inside the main class because it is used only in this class. Furthermore, the inner class is defined as static because it does not reference any instance members of the main class.

The `MouseMotionListener` interface contains two handlers, `mouseMoved` and `mouseDragged`, for handling mouse-motion events. When you move the mouse with a button pressed, the `mouseDragged` method is invoked to repaint the viewing area and display the
message at the mouse point. When you move the mouse without pressing a button, the `mouseMoved` method is invoked. Because the listener is interested only in the mouse-dragged event, the `mouseDragged` method is implemented (lines 36–41).

The `mouseDragged` method is invoked when you move the mouse with a button pressed. This method obtains the mouse location using the `getX` and `getY` methods (lines 38–39) in the `MouseEvent` class. This becomes the new location for the message. Invoking the `repaint()` method (line 40) causes `paintComponent` to be invoked (line 50), which displays the message in a new location.

16.14 What method do you use to get the mouse-point position for a mouse event?

16.15 What is the listener interface for mouse pressed, released, clicked, entered, and exited? What is the listener interface for mouse moved and dragged?

### 16.9 Listener Interface Adapters

A listener interface adapter is a class that provides the default implementation for all the methods in the listener interface.

Because the methods in the `MouseListener` interface are abstract, you must implement all of them even if your program does not care about some of the events. Java provides support classes, called listener interface adapters, that provide default implementations for all the methods in the listener interface. The default implementation is simply an empty body. Java provides listener interface adapters for every AWT listener interface with multiple handlers. A listener interface adapter is named `XAdapter` for `XListener`. For example, `MouseMotionAdapter` is a listener interface adapter for `MouseMotionListener`. Table 16.2 lists some listener interface adapters used in this book.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adapter</th>
<th>Interface</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MouseAdapter</td>
<td>MouseListener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MouseMotionAdapter</td>
<td>MouseMotionListener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KeyAdapter</td>
<td>KeyListener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WindowAdapter</td>
<td>WindowListener</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using `MouseMotionAdapter`, the code in lines 34–46 in Listing 16.8 (shown in (a)) can be replaced by the following code, as shown in (b).

(a) Using a listener interface

```java
addMouseListener(
    new MouseMotionListener() {
        @Override /** Handle mouse-dragged event */
        public void mouseDragged(MouseEvent e) {
            x = e.getX();
            y = e.getY();
            repaint();
        }
        @Override /** Handle mouse-moved event */
        public void mouseMoved(MouseEvent e) {
        }
    }));
```

(b) Using a listener interface adapter

```java
addMouseListener(
    new MouseMotionAdapter() {
        @Override /** Handle mouse-dragged event */
        public void mouseDragged(MouseEvent e) {
            x = e.getX();
            y = e.getY();
            repaint();
        }
    }));
```
16.16 Why does the ActionListener interface have no listener interface adapter?

16.17 What is the advantage of using a listener interface adapter rather than a listener interface?

16.10 Key Events

A key event is fired whenever a key is pressed, released, or typed on a component.

Key events enable the use of the keys to control and perform actions or get input from the keyboard. The KeyEvent object describes the nature of the event (namely, that a key has been pressed, released, or typed) and the value of the key, as shown in Figure 16.15. Java provides theKeyListener interface to handle key events, as shown in Figure 16.16.

```
java.awt.event.KeyEvent
+getKeyChar(): char
  Returns the character associated with the key in this event.

+getKeyCode(): int
  Returns the integer key code associated with the key in this event.
```

**FIGURE 16.15** The KeyEvent class encapsulates information about key events.

```
+keyPressed(e: KeyEvent): void
  Invoked after a key is pressed on the source component.

+keyReleased(e: KeyEvent): void
  Invoked after a key is released on the source component.

+keyTyped(e: KeyEvent): void
  Invoked after a key is pressed and then released on the source component.
```

**FIGURE 16.16** The KeyListener interface handles key pressed, released, and typed events.

The keyPressed handler is invoked when a key is pressed, the keyReleased handler is invoked when a key is released, and the keyTyped handler is invoked when a Unicode character is entered. If a key does not have a Unicode (e.g., function keys, modifier keys, action keys, and control keys), the keyTyped handler will not be invoked.

Every key event has an associated key character or key code that is returned by the getKeyChar() or getKeyCode() method in KeyEvent. The key codes are constants defined in the KeyEvent class. Table 16.3 lists some constants. See the Java API for a complete list of the constants. For a key of the Unicode character, the key code is the same as the Unicode value. For the key-pressed and key-released events, getKeyCode() returns the value as defined in the table. For the key-typed event, getKeyCode() returns VK_UNDEFINED (0), and getKeyChar() returns the character entered.

The program in Listing 16.9 displays a user-input character. The user can move the character up, down, left, and right, using the arrow keys VK_UP, VK_DOWN, VK_LEFT, and VK_RIGHT. Figure 16.17 contains a sample run of the program.
**TABLE 16.3  Key Constants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VK_HOME</td>
<td>The Home key</td>
<td>VK_SHIFT</td>
<td>The Shift key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_END</td>
<td>The End key</td>
<td>VK_BACK_SPACE</td>
<td>The Backspace key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_PGU</td>
<td>The Page Up key</td>
<td>VK_CAPS_LOCK</td>
<td>The Caps Lock key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_PGDN</td>
<td>The Page Down key</td>
<td>VK_NUM_LOCK</td>
<td>The Num Lock key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_UP</td>
<td>The up-arrow key</td>
<td>VK_ENTER</td>
<td>The Enter key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_DOWN</td>
<td>The down-arrow key</td>
<td>VK_UNDEFINED</td>
<td>The <strong>keyCode</strong> unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_LEFT</td>
<td>The left-arrow key</td>
<td>VK_F1 to VK_F12</td>
<td>The function keys from F1 to F12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_RIGHT</td>
<td>The right-arrow key</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_ESCAPE</td>
<td>The Esc key</td>
<td>VK_0 to VK_9</td>
<td>The number keys from 0 to 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_TAB</td>
<td>The Tab key</td>
<td>VK_A to VK_Z</td>
<td>The letter keys from A to Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VK_CONTROL</td>
<td>The Control key</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 16.17**  The program responds to key events by displaying a character and moving it up, down, left, or right.

**LISTING 16.9  KeyEventDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class KeyEventDemo extends JFrame {
    private KeyboardPanel keyboardPanel = new KeyboardPanel();

    /** Initialize UI */
    public KeyEventDemo() {
        // Add the keyboard panel to accept and display user input
        add(keyboardPanel);

        // Set focus
        keyboardPanel.setFocusable(true);
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        KeyEventDemo frame = new KeyEventDemo();
        frame.setTitle("KeyEventDemo");
        frame.setSize(300, 300);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);  // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

**inner class**

```java
static class KeyboardPanel extends JPanel {
    // create a panel
    // focusable
    // VK_CONTROL
    // VK_TAB
    // VK_F1 to VK_F12
    // VK_PGU
    // VK_KEYCODE
    // VK_PGDN
    // VK_UP
    // VK_DOWN
```
The `KeyboardPanel` class extends `JPanel` to display a character (line 28). This class is defined as an inner class inside the main class, because it is used only in this class. Furthermore, the inner class is defined as static, because it does not reference any instance members of the main class.

Because the program gets input from the keyboard, it listens for `KeyEvent` and extends `KeyAdapter` to handle key input (line 34).

When a key is pressed, the `keyPressed` handler is invoked. The program uses `e.getKeyCode()` to obtain the key code and `e.getKeyChar()` to get the character for the key. When a nonarrow key is pressed, the character is displayed (line 42). When an arrow key is pressed, the character moves in the direction indicated by the arrow key (lines 38–41).

Only a focused component can receive `KeyEvent`. To make a component focusable, set its `focusable` property to `true` (line 14).

Every time the component is repainted, a new font is created for the `Graphics` object in line 54. This is not efficient—it would be better to create the font once as a data field.

We can now add more control for our `ControlCircle` example in Listing 16.3 to increase/decrease the circle radius by clicking the left/right mouse button or by pressing the UP and DOWN arrow keys. The new program is given in Listing 16.10.

**LISTING 16.10 ControlCircleWithMouseAndKey.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class ControlCircleWithMouseAndKey extends JFrame {
    private JButton jbtEnlarge = new JButton("Enlarge");
    private JButton jbtShrink = new JButton("Shrink");
```
private CirclePanel canvas = new CirclePanel();

public ControlCircleWithMouseAndKey() {
      JPanel panel = new JPanel(); // Use the panel to group buttons
      panel.add(jbtEnlarge);
      panel.add(jbtShrink);

      this.add(canvas, BorderLayout.CENTER); // Add canvas to center
      this.add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH); // Add buttons to the frame

      jbtEnlarge.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                  canvas.enlarge();
            }
      });

      jbtShrink.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                  canvas.shrink();
            }
      });

      canvas.addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
            @Override
            public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
                  canvas.enlarge();
                  canvas.shrink();
            }
      });

      canvas.addKeyListener(new KeyAdapter() {
            @Override
            public void keyPressed(KeyEvent e) {
                  canvas.enlarge();
                  canvas.shrink();
            }
      });

      canvas.setFocusable(true);
      canvas.requestFocusInWindow();
}

class CirclePanel extends JPanel { // Inner class
      private int radius = 5; // Default circle radius

      if (e.getKeyCode() == KeyEvent.VK_UP)
            canvas.enlarge();
      else if (e.getKeyCode() == KeyEvent.VK_DOWN)
            canvas.shrink();

      if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON1)
            canvas.enlarge();
      else if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON3)
            canvas.shrink();

      if (e.getKeyCode() == KeyEvent.VK_UP)
            canvas.enlarge();
      else if (e.getKeyCode() == KeyEvent.VK_DOWN)
            canvas.shrink();

      /** Main method */
      public static void main(String[] args) {
            JFrame frame = new ControlCircleWithMouseAndKey();
            frame.setTitle("ControlCircle");
            frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
            frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
            frame.setSize(200, 200);
            frame.setVisible(true);
      }
}
A listener for `MouseEvent` is created to handle mouse-clicked events in lines 34–42. If the left mouse button is clicked, the circle is enlarged (lines 37–38); if the right mouse button is clicked, the circle is shrunk (lines 39–40).

A listener for `KeyEvent` is created to handle key-pressed events in lines 45–53. If the UP arrow key is pressed, the circle is enlarged (lines 48–49); if the DOWN arrow key is pressed, the circle is shrunk (lines 50–51).

Invoking `setFocusable` on `canvas` makes `canvas` focusable. However, once a button is clicked, the canvas is no longer focused. Invoking `canvas.requestFocusInWindow()` (lines 22, 30) resets the focus on `canvas` so that `canvas` can listen for key events.

16.18 What method do you use to get the timestamp for an action event, a mouse event, or a key event?

16.19 What method do you use to get the key character for a key event?

16.20 How do you set focus on a component so it can listen for key events?

16.21 Does every key in the keyboard have a Unicode? Is a key code in the `KeyEvent` class equivalent to a Unicode?

16.22 Is the `keyPressed` handler invoked after a key is pressed? Is the `keyReleased` handler invoked after a key is released? Is the `keyTyped` handler invoked after any key is typed?

### 16.11 Animation Using the Timer Class

A Timer is a source object that fires `ActionEvent` at a fixed rate.

Not all source objects are GUI components. The `javax.swing.Timer` class is a source component that fires an `ActionEvent` at a predefined rate. Figure 16.18 lists some of the methods in the class.

A Timer object serves as the source of an `ActionEvent`. The listeners must be instances of `ActionListener` and registered with a Timer object. You create a Timer object using its sole constructor with a delay and a listener, where `delay` specifies the number of milliseconds between two action events. You can add additional listeners using the `addActionListener` method and adjust the `delay` using the `setDelay` method. To start the timer, invoke the `start()` method; to stop the timer, invoke the `stop()` method.
The Timer class can be used to control animations. Listing 16.11 gives a program that displays two messages in separate panels (see Figure 16.19). You can use the mouse button to control the animation speed for each message. The speed increases when the left mouse button is clicked and decreases when the right button is clicked.

The Timer class can be used to control animations. Listing 16.11 gives a program that displays two messages in separate panels (see Figure 16.19). You can use the mouse button to control the animation speed for each message. The speed increases when the left mouse button is clicked and decreases when the right button is clicked.

**Figure 16.18** A Timer object fires an ActionEvent at a fixed rate.

**Figure 16.19** Two messages move in the panels.

**Listing 16.11** AnimationDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class AnimationDemo extends JFrame {
    public AnimationDemo() {
        // Create two MovingMessagePanel for displaying two moving messages
        this.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
        add(new MovingMessagePanel("message 1 moving?");
        add(new MovingMessagePanel("message 2 moving?");
    }

    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        AnimationDemo frame = new AnimationDemo();
        frame.setTitle("AnimationDemo");
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setSize(280, 100);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    // Inner class: Displaying a moving message
    static class MovingMessagePanel extends JPanel {
        private String message = "Welcome to Java";
        private int xCoordinate = 0;
        private int yCoordinate = 20;
        private Timer timer = new Timer(1000, new TimerListener());
    }
}
```
16.11 Animation Using the Timer Class

```
public MovingMessagePanel(String message) {
    this.message = message;  // set message

    // Start timer for animation
    timer.start();  // start timer

    // Control animation speed using mouse buttons
    this.addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
        @Override
        public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
            int delay = timer.getDelay();  // mouse listener

            if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON1) {
                timer.setDelay(delay > 10 ? delay - 10 : 0);  // event handler
                timer.setDelay(delay < 50000 ? delay + 10 : 50000);  // repaint
            } else if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON3) {
                timer.setDelay(delay < 50000 ? delay + 10 : 50000);
            }
        }
    });

    @Override /** Paint the message */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        if (xCoordinate > getWidth()) {
            xCoordinate = -20;  // move message
            xCoordinate += 5;
            g.drawString(message, xCoordinate, yCoordinate);
        }
    }
}
```

Two instances of `MovingMessagePanel` are created to display two messages (lines 9–10). The `MovingMessagePanel` class extends `JPanel` to display a message (line 24). This class is defined as an inner class inside the main class, because it is used only in this class. Furthermore, the inner class is defined as static, because it does not reference any instance members of the main class.

An inner class listener is defined in line 60 to listen for `ActionEvent` from a timer. Line 28 creates a `Timer` for the listener, and the timer is started in line 34. The timer fires an `ActionEvent` every 1 second initially, and the listener responds in line 62 to repaint the panel. When a panel is painted, its `x`-coordinate is increased (line 56), so the message is displayed to the right. When the `x`-coordinate exceeds the bound of the panel, it is reset to -20 (line 54), so the message continues moving from left to right circularly.

A mouse listener is registered with the panel to listen for the mouse click event (lines 37–46). When the left mouse button is clicked, a new reduced delay time is set for the timer (lines 41–42). When the right mouse button is clicked, a new increased delay time is set for the timer (lines 43–44). The minimum delay time is 0 and the maximum can be `Integer.MAX_VALUE`, but it is set to 50000 in this program (line 44).

In Section 13.9, Case Study: The `StillClock` Class, you drew a `StillClock` to show the current time. The clock does not tick after it is displayed. What can you do to make the
clock display a new current time every second? The key to making the clock tick is to repaint it every second with a new current time. You can use a timer to control the repaint of the clock with the code in Listing 16.12.

**LISTING 16.12 ClockAnimation.java**

```java
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ClockAnimation extends JFrame {
    private StillClock clock = new StillClock();

    public ClockAnimation() {
        add(clock);

        // Create a timer with delay 1000 ms
        Timer timer = new Timer(1000, new TimerListener());
        timer.start();
    }

    private class TimerListener implements ActionListener {
        @Override /** Handle the action event */
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            clock.setCurrentTime();
            clock.repaint();
        }
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new ClockAnimation();
        frame.setTitle("ClockAnimation");
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

The program displays a running clock, as shown in Figure 16.20. **ClockAnimation** creates a **StillClock** (line 5). Line 11 creates a **Timer** for a **ClockAnimation**. The timer is started in line 12. The timer fires an **ActionEvent** every second, and the listener responds to set a new time (line 19) and repaint the clock (line 20). The **setCurrentTime()** method defined in **StillClock** sets the current time in the clock.

![Figure 16.20 A live clock is displayed in the panel.](image)
16.23 How do you create a timer? How do you start a timer? How do you stop a timer?

16.24 Does the Timer class have a no-arg constructor? Can you add multiple listeners to a timer?

**Key Terms**

- anonymous inner class 609
- event 602
- event-driven programming 602
- event handler 604
- event-listener interface 603
- event object 602
- event source object 602
- event listener object 603
- inner class 606
- listener interface adapter 620
- source object 602

**Chapter Summary**

1. The root class of the event classes is `java.util.EventObject`. The subclasses of `EventObject` deal with special types of events, such as action events, window events, component events, mouse events, and key events. You can identify the source object of an event by using the `getSource()` instance method in the `EventObject` class. If a component can fire an event, any subclass of the component can fire the same type of event.

2. The listener object’s class must implement the corresponding `event-listener interface`. Java provides a listener interface for every event class. The listener interface is usually named `XListener` for `XEvent`, with the exception of `MouseMotionListener`. For example, the corresponding listener interface for `ActionEvent` is `ActionListener`; each listener for `ActionEvent` should implement the `ActionListener` interface. The listener interface contains the method(s), known as the `handler(s)`, which process the events.

3. The listener object must be registered by the `source object`. Registration methods depend on the event type. For `ActionEvent`, the method is `addActionListener`. In general, the method is named `addXListener` for `XEvent`.

4. An `inner class`, or `nested class`, is defined within the scope of another class. An inner class can reference the data and methods defined in the outer class in which it nests, so you need not pass the reference of the outer class to the constructor of the inner class.

5. `Listener interface adapters` are support classes that provide default implementations for all the methods in the listener interface. Java provides listener interface adapters for every AWT listener interface with multiple handlers. A listener interface adapter is named `XAdapter` for `XListener`.

6. A source object may fire several types of events. For each event, the source object maintains a list of registered listeners and notifies them by invoking the `handler` on the listener object to process the event.

7. A `MouseEvent` is fired whenever a mouse is pressed, released, clicked, entered, exited, moved, or dragged on a component. The mouse-event object captures the event, such as the number of clicks associated with it or the location (x- and y-coordinates) of the mouse point.
8. Java provides two listener interfaces, `MouseListener` and `MouseMotionListener`, to handle mouse events. Java implements the `MouseListener` interface to listen for such actions as mouse pressed, released, clicked, entered, or exited, and the `MouseMotionListener` interface to listen for such actions as mouse dragged or moved.

9. A `KeyEvent` is fired when a key is pressed, released, or typed. The key value and key character can be obtained from the key-event object.

10. A listener’s `keyPressed` handler is invoked when a key is pressed, its `keyReleased` handler is invoked when a key is released, and its `keyTyped` handler is invoked when a Unicode character key is entered. If a key does not have a Unicode (e.g., function keys, modifier keys, action keys, and control keys), a listener’s `keyTyped` handler will be not be invoked.

11. You can use the `Timer` class to control Java animations. A timer fires an `ActionEvent` at a fixed rate. The listener updates the painting to simulate an animation.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 16.2–16.7

*16.1* (Pick four cards) Write a program that lets the user click the Refresh button to display four cards from a deck of 52 cards, as shown in Figure 16.21a. *(Hint: See Listing 6.2 on how to draw four cards randomly.)*

![Figure 16.21](chart.png)

(a) Exercise 16.1 displays four cards randomly. (b) Exercise 16.3 uses the buttons to move the ball. (c) Exercise 16.4 performs addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division on double numbers.

16.2  *(Find which button has been clicked on the console)* Add the code to Programming Exercise 12.1 that will display a message on the console indicating which button has been clicked.

*16.3* *(Move the ball)* Write a program that moves the ball in a panel. You should define a panel class for displaying the ball and provide the methods for moving the ball left, right, up, and down, as shown in Figure 16.21b. Check the boundary to prevent the ball from moving out of sight completely.

*16.4* *(Create a simple calculator)* Write a program to perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as shown in Figure 16.21c.
*16.5  *(Create an investment-value calculator)* Write a program that calculates the future value of an investment at a given interest rate for a specified number of years. The formula for the calculation is:

\[
\text{futureValue} = \text{investmentAmount} \times (1 + \text{monthlyInterestRate})^{\text{years} \times 12}
\]

Use text fields for the investment amount, number of years, and annual interest rate. Display the future amount in a text field when the user clicks the *Calculate* button, as shown in Figure 16.22a.

![Figure 16.22](https://example.com/fig16_22.png)

(a) The user enters the investment amount, years, and interest rate to compute future value. (b) Exercise 16.8 displays the mouse position. (c) Exercise 16.9 uses the arrow keys to draw the lines.

**Sections 16.8–16.9**

**16.6  *(Alternate two messages)* Write a program to rotate with a mouse click the two messages *Java is fun* and *Java is powerful* displayed on a panel.

**16.7  *(Set background color using a mouse)* Write a program that displays the background color of a panel as black when the mouse button is pressed and as white when the mouse button is released.

**16.8  *(Display the mouse position)* Write two programs, such that one displays the mouse position when the mouse button is clicked (see Figure 16.22b) and the other displays the mouse position when the mouse button is pressed and ceases to display it when the mouse button is released.

**Section 16.10**

**16.9  *(Draw lines using the arrow keys)* Write a program that draws line segments using the arrow keys. The line starts from the center of the frame and draws toward east, north, west, or south when the right-arrow key, up-arrow key, left-arrow key, or down-arrow key is pressed, as shown in Figure 16.22c.

**16.10  *(Enter and display a string)* Write a program that receives a string from the keyboard and displays it on a panel. The *Enter* key signals the end of a string. Whenever a new string is entered, it is displayed on the panel.

**16.11  *(Display a character)* Write a program to get a character input from the keyboard and display the character where the mouse points.

**Section 16.11**

**16.12  *(Display a running fan)* Listing 13.4, DrawArcs.java, displays a motionless fan. Write a program that displays a running fan.

**16.13  *(Slide show)* Twenty-five slides are stored as image files (*slide0.jpg*, *slide1.jpg*, ..., *slide24.jpg*) in the *image* directory downloadable along with the source code in the book. The size of each image is 800 × 600. Write a Java application
that automatically displays the slides repeatedly. Each slide is shown for a sec-
ond. The slides are displayed in order. When the last slide finishes, the first
slide is redisplayed, and so on. (Hint: Place a label in the frame and set a slide
as an image icon in the label.)

**16.14 (Raise flag) Write a Java program that animates raising a flag, as shown in
Figure 16.1. (See Section 13.10, Displaying Images, for how to display images.)

**16.15 (Racing car) Write a Java program that simulates car racing, as shown in
Figure 16.23a. The car moves from left to right. When it hits the right end, it
restarts from the left and continues the same process. You can use a timer to
to control animation. Redraw the car with a new base coordinates (x, y), as
shown in Figure 16.23b. Also let the user pause/resume the animation with a
button press/release and increase/decrease the car speed by pressing the UP
and DOWN arrow keys.

Figure 16.23 (a) Exercise 16.15 displays a moving car. (b) You can redraw a car with a new base point.

*16.16 (Display a flashing label) Write a program that displays a flashing label. (Hint:
To make the label flash, you need to repaint the panel alternately with the label
and without it (a blank screen) at a fixed rate. Use a boolean variable to control
the alternation.)

*16.17 (Control a moving label) Modify Listing 16.11, AnimationDemo.java, to con-
trol a moving label using the mouse. The label freezes when the mouse is
pressed, and moves again when the button is released.

Comprehensive

*16.18 (Move a circle using keys) Write a program that moves a circle up, down, left, or
right using the arrow keys.

**16.19 (Geometry: inside a circle?) Write a program that draws a fixed circle centered
at (100, 60) with radius 50. Whenever the mouse is moved, display a message
indicating whether the mouse point is inside the circle at the mouse point or out-
side of it, as shown in Figure 16.24a.

Figure 16.24 Detect whether a point is inside a circle, a rectangle, or a polygon.
**16.20 (Geometry: inside a rectangle?) Write a program that draws a fixed rectangle centered at (100, 60) with width 100 and height 40. Whenever the mouse is moved, display a message indicating whether the mouse point is inside the rectangle at the mouse point or outside of it, as shown in Figure 16.24b. To detect whether a point is inside a rectangle, use the MyRectangle2D class defined in Programming Exercise 10.13.

**16.21 (Geometry: inside a polygon?) Write a program that draws a fixed polygon with points at (40, 20), (70, 40), (60, 80), (45, 45), and (20, 60). Whenever the mouse is moved, display a message indicating whether the mouse point is inside the polygon at the mouse point or outside of it, as shown in Figure 16.24c. To detect whether a point is inside a polygon, use the contains method defined in the Polygon class (see Figure 13.13).

***16.22 (Game: bean-machine animation) Write a program that animates the bean machine introduced in Programming Exercise 6.21. The animation terminates after ten balls are dropped, as shown in Figure 16.25.

![Figure 16.25](image1)

**16.23 (Geometry: closest pair of points) Write a program that lets the user click on the panel to dynamically create points. Initially, the panel is empty. When a panel has two or more points, highlight the pair of closest points. Whenever a new point is created, a new pair of closest points is highlighted. Display the points using small circles and highlight the points using filled circles, as shown in Figure 16.26a–c. (Hint: store the points in an ArrayList.)

![Figure 16.26](image2)

*16.24 (Control a clock) Modify Listing 16.12, ClockAnimation.java, to add the two methods start() and stop() to start and stop the clock. Write a program that lets the user control the clock with the Start and Stop buttons, as shown in Figure 16.26d.
**16.25 (Game: hit balloons) Write a program that displays a balloon in a random position in a panel (Figure 16.27a). Use the left- and right-arrow keys to point the gun left or right to aim at the balloon (Figure 16.27b). Press the up-arrow key to fire a small ball from the gun (Figure 16.27c–d). Once the ball hits the balloon, the debris is displayed (Figure 16.27e) and a new balloon is displayed in a random location (Figure 16.27f). If the ball misses the balloon, the ball disappears once it hits the boundary of the panel. You can then press the up-arrow key to fire another ball. Whenever you press the left- or the right-arrow key, the gun turns 5 degrees left or right. (Instructors may modify the game as follows: 1. Display the number of the balloons destroyed; 2. display a countdown timer (e.g., 60 seconds) and terminate the game once the time expires; and/or 3. allow the balloon to rise dynamically.)

![Figure 16.27](image)

**16.26 (Move a circle using mouse) Write a program that displays a circle with radius 10 pixels. You can point the mouse inside the circle and drag (i.e., move with mouse pressed) the circle wherever the mouse goes, as shown in Figure 16.28a–b.

![Figure 16.28](image)

**16.27 (Game: eye-hand coordination) Write a program that displays a circle of radius 10 pixels filled with a random color at a random location on a panel, as shown in Figure 16.28c. When you click the circle, it disappears and a new random-color circle is displayed at another random location. After twenty circles are clicked, display the time spent in the panel, as shown in Figure 16.28d.
***16.28  (Simulation: self-avoiding random walk) A self-avoiding walk in a lattice is a path from one point to another that does not visit the same point twice. Self-avoiding walks have applications in physics, chemistry, and mathematics. They can be used to model chain-like entities such as solvents and polymers. Write a program that displays a random path that starts from the center and ends at a point on the boundary, as shown in Figure 16.29a, or ends at a dead-end point (i.e., surrounded by four points that have already been visited), as shown in Figure 16.29b. Assume the size of the lattice is 16 by 16.

![Figure 16.29](a) A path ends at a boundary point. (b) A path ends at dead-end point. (c–d) Animation shows the progress of a path step by step.

***16.29  (Animation: self-avoiding random walk) Revise the preceding exercise to display the walk step by step in an animation, as shown in Figure 16.29c–d.

**16.30  (Simulation: self-avoiding random walk) Write a simulation program to show that the chance of getting dead-end paths increases as the grid size increases. Your program simulates lattices with size from 10 to 80. For each lattice size, simulate a self-avoiding random walk 10,000 times and display the probability of the dead-end paths, as shown in the following sample output:

For a lattice of size 10, the probability of dead-end paths is 10.6%
For a lattice of size 11, the probability of dead-end paths is 14.0%
...
For a lattice of size 80, the probability of dead-end paths is 99.5%

*16.31  (Geometry: display an n-sided regular polygon) Programming Exercise 13.25 created the RegularPolygonPanel for displaying an n-sided regular polygon. Write a program that displays a regular polygon and uses two buttons named +I and −I to increase or decrease the size of the polygon, as shown in Figure 16.30a–b. Also enable the user to increase or decrease the size by clicking the right or left mouse button and by pressing the UP and DOWN arrow keys.

**16.32  (Geometry: add and remove points) Write a program that lets the user click on a panel to dynamically create and remove points (see Figure 16.30c). When the user right-clicks the mouse, a point is created and displayed at the mouse point. The user can remove a point by pointing to it and left-clicking the mouse.

**16.33  (Geometry: pendulum) Write a program that animates a pendulum swinging, as shown in Figure 16.31. Press the UP arrow key to increase the speed and the DOWN key to decrease it. Press the S key to stop animation and the R key to resume it.
16.34  (Game: hangman) Write a program that animates a hangman game swinging, as shown in Figure 16.32. Press the UP arrow key to increase the speed and the DOWN arrow key to decrease it. Press the S key to stop animation and the R key to resume it.

**16.35  (Animation: ball on curve) Write a program that animates a ball moving along a sine curve, as shown in Figure 16.33. When the ball gets to the right border, it starts over from the left. Enable the user to resume/pause the animation with a click on the left/right mouse button.

*16.36  (Flip coins) Write a program that displays heads (H) or tails (T) for each of nine coins, as shown in Figure 16.34a–b. When a cell is clicked, the coin is flipped. A cell is a JLabel. Write a custom cell class that extends JLabel.
with the mouse listener for handling the clicks. When the program starts, all cells initially display H.

*16.37 (Two movable vertices and their distances) Write a program that displays two circles with radius 20 at location (20, 20) and (120, 50) with a line connecting the two circles, as shown in Figure 16.34c. The distance between the circles is displayed along the line. The user can drag a circle. When that happens, the circle and its line are moved and the distance between the circles is updated. Your program should not allow the circles to get too close. Keep them at least 70 pixels apart between the two circles’ centers.

**16.38 (Draw an arrow line) Write a static method that draws an arrow line from a starting point to an ending point using the following method header:

```java
public static void drawArrowLine(int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2, Graphics g)
```

Write a test program that randomly draws an arrow line when the Draw a Random Arrow Line button is clicked, as shown in Figure 16.34d.

**16.39 (Geometry: find the bounding rectangle) Write a program that enables the user to add and remove points in a two-dimensional plane dynamically, as shown in Figure 16.35a–b. A minimum bounding rectangle is updated as the points are added and removed. Assume the radius of each point is 10 pixels.

*16.40 (Display random 0 or 1) Write a program that displays a 10-by-10 square matrix, as shown in Figure 16.35c. Each element in the matrix is 0 or 1, randomly generated with a click of the Refresh button. Display each number centered in a label.
Exercise 16.35  (a–b) Exercise 16.39 enables the user to add/remove points dynamically and displays the bounding rectangle. (c) Exercise 16.40 displays 0s and 1s randomly with a click of the Refresh button.
GUI Components

Objectives

- To create graphical user interfaces with various user-interface components (§§17.2–17.8).
- To create listeners for `JCheckBox`, `JRadioButton`, and `JTextField` (§17.2).
- To enter multiple-line texts using `JTextArea` (§17.3).
- To select a single item using ` JComboBox` (§17.4).
- To select a single or multiple items using `JList` (§17.5).
- To select a range of values using `JScrollBar` (§17.6).
- To select a range of values using `JSlider` and explore differences between `JScrollBar` and `JSlider` (§17.7).
- To display multiple windows in an application (§17.8).
17.1 Introduction

*Swing provides many GUI components for developing a comprehensive user interface.*

Previous chapters briefly introduced `JButton`, `JCheckBox`, `JRadioButton`, `JLabel`, `JTextField`, and `JPasswordField`. This chapter introduces in detail how the events are processed for these components. We will also introduce `JTextArea`, `JComboBox`, `JList`, `JScrollBar`, and `JSlider`. More GUI components such as `JMenu`, `JToolBar`, `JTabbedPane`, `JSplitPane`, `JSpinner`, `JTree`, and `JTable` will be introduced in bonus Web Chapters 36–40.

17.2 Events for JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JTextField

A GUI component may fire many types of events. `ActionEvent` is commonly processed for `JCheckBox`, `JRadioButton`, and `JTextField`, and `ItemEvent` can be used for `JCheckBox` and `JRadioButton`.

In the previous chapter, you learned how to handle an action event for `JButton`. This section introduces handling events for check boxes, radio buttons, and text fields.

When a `JCheckBox` or a `JRadioButton` is clicked (that is, checked or unchecked), it fires an `ItemEvent` and then an `ActionEvent`. When you press the `Enter` key on a `JTextField`, it fires an `ActionEvent`.

Listing 17.1 gives a program that demonstrates how to handle events from check boxes, radio buttons, and text fields. The program displays a label and allows the user to set the colors of the text in the label using radio buttons, set fonts using check boxes, and set new text entered from a text field, as shown in Figure 17.1.

![GUIEventDemo](image)

**Figure 17.1** The program demonstrates check boxes, radio buttons, and text fields.

**Listing 17.1 GUIEventDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class GUIEventDemo extends JFrame {
    private JLabel jlblMessage = new JLabel("Hello", JLabel.CENTER);

    // Create check boxes to set the font for the message
    private JCheckBox jchkBold = new JCheckBox("Bold");
    private JCheckBox jchkItalic = new JCheckBox("Italic");

    // Create three radio buttons to set message colors
    private JRadioButton jrbRed = new JRadioButton("Red");
    private JRadioButton jrbGreen = new JRadioButton("Green");
    private JRadioButton jrbBlue = new JRadioButton("Blue");

    // Create a text field for setting a new message
```
private JTextField jtfMessage = new JTextField(10);

public static void main(String[] args) {
    GUIEventDemo frame = new GUIEventDemo();
    frame.pack();
    frame.setTitle("GUIEventDemo");
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

public GUIEventDemo() {
    jlblMessage.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.BLACK, 2));
    add(jlblMessage, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Create a panel to hold check boxes
    JPanel jpCheckBoxes = new JPanel();
    jpCheckBoxes.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
    jpCheckBoxes.add(jchkBold);
    jpCheckBoxes.add(jchkItalic);
    add(jpCheckBoxes, BorderLayout.EAST);

    // Create a panel to hold radio buttons
    JPanel jpRadioButtons = new JPanel();
    jpRadioButtons.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
    jpRadioButtons.add(jrbRed);
    jpRadioButtons.add(jrbGreen);
    jpRadioButtons.add(jrbBlue);
    add(jpRadioButtons, BorderLayout.WEST);

    // Create a radio-button group to group three buttons
    ButtonGroup group = new ButtonGroup();
    group.add(jrbRed);
    group.add(jrbGreen);
    group.add(jrbBlue);

    // Set initial message color to blue
    jrbBlue.setSelected(true);
    jlblMessage.setForeground(Color.blue);

    // Create a panel to hold label and text field
    JPanel jpTextField = new JPanel();
    jpTextField.setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 0));
    jpTextField.add(new JLabel("Enter a new message"), BorderLayout.WEST);
    jtfMessage.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
    add(jpTextField, BorderLayout.NORTH);

    // Set mnemonic keys for check boxes and radio buttons
    jchkBold.setMnemonic('B');
    jchkItalic.setMnemonic('I');
    jrbRed.setMnemonic('E');
    jrbGreen.setMnemonic('G');
    jrbBlue.setMnemonic('U');

    // Register listeners with check boxes
    jchkBold.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {

        }
    });
setNewFont();
}
}

jchkItalic.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        setNewFont();
    }
});

// Register listeners for radio buttons
jrbRed.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jlblMessage.setForeground(Color.red);
    }
});

jrbGreen.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jlblMessage.setForeground(Color.green);
    }
});

jrbBlue.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jlblMessage.setForeground(Color.blue);
    }
});

// Register listener for text field
jtfMessage.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jlblMessage.setText(jtfMessage.getText());
        jtfMessage.requestFocusInWindow();
    }
});

private void setNewFont() {
    // Determine a font style
    int fontStyle = Font.PLAIN;
    fontStyle += (jchkBold.isSelected() ? Font.BOLD : Font.PLAIN);
    fontStyle += (jchkItalic.isSelected() ? Font.ITALIC : Font.PLAIN);

    // Set font for the message
    Font font = jlblMessage.getFont();
    jlblMessage.setFont(new Font(font.getName(), fontStyle, font.getSize()));
}

The program creates a label, check boxes, radio buttons, and a text field (lines 7–19). It places a label in the center of the frame (lines 31–32), check boxes in the east (lines 35–39), radio buttons in the west (lines 42–47), and a text field in the north (lines 60–66).

The program also sets mnemonics for check boxes and radio buttons (lines 69–73). You can use a mouse click or a shortcut key to select a check box or a radio button.
The program registers action listeners for check boxes, radio buttons, and the text field (lines 76–116).

When a check box is checked or unchecked, the listener’s `actionPerformed` method is invoked to process the event (lines 79, 85). The current font name and size used in `JLabel` are obtained from `jlblMessage.getFont()` using the `getName()` and `getSize()` methods (line 128). The font styles (Font.BOLD and Font.ITALIC) are specified in the check boxes. If no font style is selected, the default font style is Font.PLAIN (line 121). The font style is an integer 0 for Font.PLAIN, 1 for Font.BOLD, and 2 for Font.ITALIC. The font style can be combined by adding together the integers that represent the fonts (lines 122–123). For example, Font.BOLD + Font.ITALIC is 3, which represents a combined font of bold and italic.

The `setFont` method (line 127) defined in the Component class is inherited in the JLabel class. This method automatically invokes the `repaint` method. Invoking `setFont` on `jlblMessage` automatically repaints `jlblMessage`.

A check box fires an ItemEvent and then an ActionEvent when it is clicked. You could process either the ItemEvent or the ActionEvent to redisplay the message. The program in this example processes the ActionEvent. If you want to process the ItemEvent, create a listener for ItemEvent and register it with a check box. The listener must implement the `itemStateChanged` handler to process an ItemEvent. For example, the following code registers an ItemListener with `jchkBold`:

```java
// To listen for ItemEvent
jchkBold.addItemListener(new ItemListener()
{
    @Override /** Handle ItemEvent */
    public void itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e)
    {
        setNewFont();
    }
});
```

When a radio button is clicked, its action event listener sets the corresponding foreground color in `jlblMessage` (lines 93, 99, 105).

The program creates a ButtonGroup and puts three JRadioButton instances (jrbRed, jrbGreen, and jrbBlue) in the group (lines 50–53) so they can only be selected exclusively—the text will be either red or green or blue.

A radio button fires an ItemEvent and then an ActionEvent when it is selected or deselected. You could process either the ItemEvent or the ActionEvent to choose a color. This program processes the ActionEvent. As an exercise, rewrite the code using the ItemEvent.

After you type a new message in the text field and press the Enter key, a new message is displayed. Pressing the Enter key on the text field triggers an action event. The listener sets a new message in `jlblMessage` (line 113).

The requestFocusInWindow() method (line 114) defined in the Component class requests the component to receive input focus. Thus, `jtfMessage.requestFocusInWindow()` requests the input focus on `jtfMessage`. You will see the cursor on `jtfMessage` after the actionPerformed method is invoked.

The pack() method (line 23) automatically sizes the frame according to the size of the components placed in it.

17.1 Can a JButton, JLabel, JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JTextField fire an ActionEvent?

17.2 Can a JButton, JLabel, JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JTextField fire an ItemEvent?

17.3 What happens after invoking jtfMessage.requestFocusInWindow()?
17.3 Text Areas

A `JTextArea` enables the user to enter multiple lines of text.

If you want to let the user enter multiple lines of text, you may create several instances of `JTextField`. A better alternative is to use `JTextArea`, which enables the user to enter multiple lines of text. Figure 17.2 lists the constructors and methods in `JTextArea`.

Key Point

Like `JTextField`, `JTextArea` inherits `JTextComponent`, which contains the methods `getText`, `setText`, `isEditable`, and `setEditable`. You can specify whether a line is wrapped in the `lineWrap` property. If `lineWrap` is true, you can specify how line is wrapped in the `wrapStyleWord` property. If `wrapStyleWord` is true, line is wrapped on words. If it is false, line is wrapped on characters. The following example creates a text area with 5 rows and 20 columns, line-wrapped on words, red foreground color, and Courier font, bold, 20 pixels.

```java
JTextArea jtaNote = new JTextArea("This is a text area", 5, 20);
jtaNote.setLineWrap(true);
jtaNote.setWrapStyleWord(true);
jtaNote.setForeground(Color.red);
jtaNote.setFont(new Font("Courier", Font.BOLD, 20));
```

`JTextArea` does not handle scrolling, but you can create a `JScrollPane` object to hold an instance of `JTextArea` and let `JScrollPane` handle scrolling for `JTextArea`, as follows:

```java
// Create a scroll pane to hold text area
JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(jtaNote);
add(scrollPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);
```

Tip

You can place any swing GUI component in a `JScrollPane`. `JScrollPane` provides vertical and horizontal scrolling automatically if the component is too large to fit in the viewing area.

Listing 17.3 gives a program that displays an image and a text in a label, and a text in a text area, as shown in Figure 17.3.
Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Define a class named `DescriptionPanel` that extends `JPanel`, as shown in Listing 17.2. This class contains a text area inside a scroll pane, and a label for displaying an image icon and a title. The class `DescriptionPanel` will be reused in later examples.

2. Define a class named `TextAreaDemo` that extends `JFrame`, as shown in Listing 17.3. Create an instance of `DescriptionPanel` and add it to the center of the frame. The relationship between `DescriptionPanel` and `TextAreaDemo` is shown in Figure 17.4.

**Figure 17.3** The program displays an image in a label, a title in a label, and text in the text area.

**Figure 17.4** `TextAreaDemo` uses `DescriptionPanel` to display an image, title, and text description of a national flag.

**Listing 17.2** `DescriptionPanel.java`

```
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class DescriptionPanel extends JPanel {
    /** Label for displaying an image icon and a title */
    private JLabel jlblImageTitle = new JLabel();

    /** Text area for displaying text */
    private JTextArea jtaDescription = new JTextArea();

    public DescriptionPanel() {
        // Center the icon and text and place the text under the icon
        jlblImageTitle.setHorizontalAlignment(JLabel.CENTER);
        jlblImageTitle.setHorizontalTextPosition(JLabel.CENTER);
        jlblImageTitle.setVerticalTextPosition(JLabel.BOTTOM);
        jlblImageTitle.setVerticalTextPosition(JLabel.BOTTOM);
        jtaDescription.addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
            public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
                // Do something for text area mouse click
            }
        });
    }

    // SetImageIcon and setTitle are methods in DescriptionPanel
    public void setImageIcon(ImageIcon icon) {
        // Code to set image icon
    }

    public void setTitle(String title) {
        // Code to set title
    }

    public void setDescription(String text) {
        // Code to set description text
    }
}
```
// Set the font in the label and the text field
jlblImageTitle.setFont(new Font("SansSerif", Font.BOLD, 16));
jetaDescription.setFont(new Font("Serif", Font.PLAIN, 14));

// Set lineWrap and wrapStyleWord true for the text area
jetaDescription.setLineWrap(true);
jetaDescription.setWrapStyleWord(true);
jetaDescription.setEditable(false);

// Create a scroll pane to hold the text area
JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(jtaDescription);

// Set BorderLayout for the panel, add label and scroll pane
setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 5));
add(scrollPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jlblImageTitle, BorderLayout.WEST);
}

/** Set the title */
public void setTitle(String title) {
    jlblImageTitle.setText(title);
}

/** Set the image icon */
public void setImageIcon(ImageIcon icon) {
    jlblImageTitle.setIcon(icon);
}

/** Set the text description */
public void setDescription(String text) {
    jtaDescription.setText(text);
}

The text area is inside a JScrollPane (line 27), which provides scrolling functions for the text area. Scroll bars automatically appear if there is more text than the physical size of the text area.

The lineWrap property is set to true (line 22) so that the line is automatically wrapped when the text cannot fit in one line. The wrapStyleWord property is set to true (line 23) so that the line is wrapped on words rather than characters. The text area is set as noneditable (line 24), so you cannot edit the description in the text area.

It is not necessary to create a separate class for DescriptionPanel in this example. However, this class was created for reuse in the next section, where you will use it to display a description panel for various images.

**LISTING 17.3 TextAreaDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TextAreaDemo extends JFrame {
    // Declare and create a description panel
    private DescriptionPanel descriptionPanel = new DescriptionPanel();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TextAreaDemo frame = new TextAreaDemo();
        frame.pack();
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    }
}```
frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
frame.setTitle("TextAreaDemo");
frame.setVisible(true);
}

public TextAreaDemo() {
    // Set title, text, and image in the description panel
descriptionPanel.setTitle("Canada");
    String description = "The Canadian national flag...";
descriptionPanel.setImageIcon(new ImageIcon("image/ca.gif"));
descriptionPanel.setDescription(description);

    // Add the description panel to the frame
setLayoutManager(new BorderLayout());
add(descriptionPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
}

The program in Listing 17.3 creates an instance of DescriptionPanel (line 6) and sets the title (line 19), image (line 21), and text in the description panel (line 22). DescriptionPanel is a subclass of JPanel. DescriptionPanel contains a label for displaying an image icon and a text title, and a text area for displaying a description of the image.

17.4 How do you create a text area with 10 rows and 20 columns?

17.5 How do you insert or append three lines into the text area?

17.6 How do you create a scrollable text area?

17.7 What method do you use to get the text from a text area? How do you get the line count in the text area?

17.8 How do you specify a line wrap? How do you specify wrapping on characters? How do you specify wrapping on words?

17.4 Combo Boxes

A combo box, also known as a choice list or drop-down list, contains a list of items from which the user can choose.

A combo box is useful for limiting a user’s range of choices and avoids the cumbersome validation of data input. Figure 17.5 lists several frequently used constructors and methods in JComboBox.

The following statements create a combo box with four items, red foreground, white background, and the second item selected.

JComboBox jcb = new JComboBox(new Object[]
        {"Item 1", "Item 2", "Item3", "Item 4"});
jcb.setForeground(Color.red);
jcb.setBackground(Color.white);
jcb.setSelectedItem("Item 2");

JComboBox can fire ItemEvent and ActionEvent among many other events. Whenever an item is selected, an ActionEvent is fired. Whenever a new item is selected, JComboBox fires ItemEvent twice: once for deselecting the previously selected item, and the other for selecting the currently selected item. Note that no ItemEvent is fired if the current item is reselected. To respond to an ItemEvent, you need to implement the itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e) handler for processing a choice. To get data from a JComboBox menu, you can use getSelectedItem() to return the currently selected item, or the e.getItem() method to get the item from the itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e) handler.
Listing 17.4 gives a program that lets users view an image and a description of a country’s flag by selecting the country from a combo box, as shown in Figure 17.6.

![Combo Box](image)

Here are the major steps in the program:

1. **Create the user interface.**
   Create a combo box with country names as its selection values. Create a **DescriptionPanel** object (the **DescriptionPanel** class was introduced in the preceding section). Place the combo box in the north of the frame and the description panel in the center of the frame.

2. **Process the event.**
   Create a listener to implement the **itemStateChanged** handler to set the flag title, image, and text in the description panel for the selected country name.
17.4 Combo Boxes

**LISTING 17.4 ComboBoxDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ComboBoxDemo extends JFrame {

    private String[] flagTitles = {
        "Canada", "China", "Denmark", "France", "Germany", "India", "Norway", "United Kingdom", "United States of America";
    }

    private ImageIcon[] flagImage = {
        new ImageIcon("image/ca.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/china.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/denmark.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/fr.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/germany.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/india.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/norway.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/uk.gif"),
        new ImageIcon("image/us.gif")
    };

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ComboBoxDemo frame = new ComboBoxDemo();
        frame.pack();
        frame.setTitle("ComboBoxDemo");
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    public ComboBoxDemo() {
        // Set text description
        String[] flagDescription = new String[9];
        flagDescription[0] = "The Canadian national flag...";
        flagDescription[1] = "Description for China ...";
        flagDescription[2] = "Description for Denmark ...";
        flagDescription[3] = "Description for France ...";
        flagDescription[4] = "Description for Germany ...";
        flagDescription[5] = "Description for India ...";
        flagDescription[6] = "Description for Norway ...";
        flagDescription[7] = "Description for UK ...";
        flagDescription[8] = "Description for US ...";

        // Set the first country (Canada) for display
        setDisplay(0);

        // Add combo box and description panel to the frame
        add(jcbo, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    }
}
```
add(descriptionPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Register listener
jcbo.addItemListener(new ItemListener() {
    @Override /** Handle item selection */
    public void itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e) {
        setDisplay(jcbo.getSelectedIndex());
    }
});

/** Set display information on the description panel */
public void setDisplay(int index) {
    descriptionPanel.setTitle(flagTitles[index]);
    descriptionPanel.setImageIcon(flagImage[index]);
    descriptionPanel.setDescription(flagDescription[index]);
}

The listener listens to ItemEvent from the combo box and implements ItemListener (lines 62–67). Instead of using ItemEvent, you could rewrite the program to use ActionEvent for handling combo-box item selection.

The program stores the flag information in three arrays: flagTitles, flagImage, and flagDescription (lines 7–25). The array flagTitles contains the names of nine countries, the array flagImage contains images of the nine countries’ flags, and the array flagDescription contains descriptions of the flags.

The program creates an instance of DescriptionPanel (line 28), which was presented in Listing 17.2, DescriptionPanel.java. The program creates a combo box with initial values from flagTitles (line 31). When the user selects an item in the combo box, the itemStateChanged handler is executed. The handler finds the selected index and sets its corresponding flag title, flag image, and flag description on the panel.

17.9 How do you create a combo box and add three items to it?
17.10 How do you retrieve an item from a combo box? How do you retrieve a selected item from a combo box?
17.11 How do you get the number of items in a combo box? How do you retrieve an item at a specified index in a combo box?
17.12 What events would a JComboBox fire upon selecting a new item?

17.5 Lists

A list is a component that basically performs the same function as a combo box, but it enables the user to choose a single value or multiple values.

The Swing JList is very versatile. Figure 17.7 lists several frequently used constructors and methods in JList.

selectionMode is one of the three values (SINGLE_SELECTION, SINGLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION, and MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION) defined in javax.swing.ListSelectionModel that indicate whether a single item, single-interval item, or multiple-interval item can be selected. Single selection allows only one item to be selected. Single-interval selection allows multiple selections, but the selected items must be contiguous. Multiple-interval selection allows selections of multiple contiguous items without restrictions, as shown in Figure 17.8. The default value is MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION.
The following statements create a list with six items, red foreground, white background, pink selection foreground, black selection background, and visible row count 4.

```java
    JList jlst = new JList(new String[]
    {"Item 1", "Item 2", "Item 3", "Item 4", "Item 5", "Item 6"});
    jlst.setForeground(Color.RED);
    jlst.setBackground(Color.WHITE);
    jlst.setSelectionForeground(Color.PINK);
    jlst.setSelectionBackground(Color.BLACK);
    jlst.setVisibleRowCount(4);
```

Lists do not scroll automatically. To make a list scrollable, create a scroll pane and add the list to it.

`JList` fires `javax.swing.event.ListSelectionEvent` to notify the listeners of the selections. The listener must implement the `valueChanged` handler in the `javax.swing.event.ListSelectionListener` interface to process the event.

Listing 17.5 gives a program that lets users select countries in a list and displays the flags of the selected countries in the labels. Figure 17.9 shows a sample run of the program.
Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Create the user interface.
   
   Create a list with nine country names as selection values, and place the list inside a scroll pane. Place the scroll pane in the west of the frame. Create nine labels to be used to display the countries’ flag images. Place the labels in the panel, and place the panel in the center of the frame.

2. Process the event.
   
   Create a listener to implement the `valueChanged` method in the `ListSelectionListener` interface to set the selected countries’ flag images in the labels.

**Listing 17.5 ListDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;

public class ListDemo extends JFrame {

    final int NUMBER_OF_FLAGS = 9;

    private String[] flagTitles = {
            "Canada", "China", "Denmark",
            "France", "Germany", "India", "Norway", "United Kingdom",
            "United States of America"};

    private JList jlst = new JList(flagTitles);

    private ImageIcon[] imageIcons = {
            new ImageIcon("image/ca.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/china.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/denmark.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/fr.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/germany.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/india.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/norway.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/uk.gif"),
            new ImageIcon("image/us.gif")
    };
```

*Figure 17.9* When the countries in the list are selected, corresponding images of their flags are displayed in the labels.
17.5 Lists

private JLabel[] jlblImageViewer = new JLabel[NUMBER_OF_FLAGS];

public static void main(String[] args) {
    ListDemo frame = new ListDemo();
    frame.setSize(650, 500);
    frame.setTitle("ListDemo");
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

public ListDemo() {
    JPanel p = new JPanel(new GridLayout(3, 3, 5, 5));
    for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_FLAGS; i++) {
        p.add(jlblImageViewer[i] = new JLabel());
        jlblImageViewer[i].setHorizontalAlignment(SwingConstants.CENTER);
    }

    // Add p and the list to the frame
    add(p, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(new JScrollPane(jlst), BorderLayout.WEST);

    // Register listeners
    jlst.addListSelectionListener(new ListSelectionListener() {
        @Override /** Handle list selection */
        public void valueChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
            int[] indices = jlst.getSelectedIndices();

            int i;
            // Set icons in the labels
            for (i = 0; i < indices.length; i++) {
                jlblImageViewer[i].setIcon(imageIcons[indices[i]]);
            }

            // Remove icons from the rest of the labels
            for (; i < NUMBER_OF_FLAGS; i++) {
                jlblImageViewer[i].setIcon(null);
            }
        }
    });
}

The anonymous inner-class listener listens to ListSelectionEvent for handling the selection of country names in the list (lines 56–73). ListSelectionEvent and ListSelectionListener are defined in the javax.swing.event package, so this package is imported into the program (line 3).

The program creates an array of nine labels for displaying flag images for nine countries. The program loads the images of the nine countries into an image array (lines 17–27) and creates a list of the nine countries in the same order as in the title array (lines 9–11). Thus, the index 0 of the image array corresponds to the first country in the list.

The list is placed in a scroll pane (line 53) so that it can be scrolled when the number of items in the list extends beyond the viewing area.
By default, the selection mode of the list is multiple-interval, which allows the user to select multiple items from different blocks in the list. When the user selects countries in the list, the `valueChanged` handler (lines 58–72) is executed, which gets the indices of the selected items and sets their corresponding image icons in the label to display the flags.

17.13 How do you create a list with an array of strings?

17.14 How do you set the visible row count in a list?

17.15 What selection modes are available for a list? How do you set a selection mode?

17.16 How do you set the foreground and background color of a list? How do you set the foreground and background color of the selected items?

17.6 Scroll Bars

`JScrollBar` *is a component that enables the user to select from a range of values.*

Figure 17.10 shows a scroll bar. Normally, the user changes the value of the scroll bar by making a gesture with the mouse. For example, the user can drag the scroll bar’s bubble up and down, or click in the scroll bar’s unit-increment or block-increment areas. Keyboard gestures can also be mapped to the scroll bar. By convention, the `Page Up` and `Page Down` keys are equivalent to clicking in the scroll bar’s block-increment and block-decrement areas.

![A scroll bar represents a range of values graphically.](image)

**Figure 17.10** A scroll bar represents a range of values graphically.

**Note**

The width of the scroll bar’s track corresponds to `maximum + visibleAmount`. When a scroll bar is set to its maximum value, the left side of the bubble is at `maximum`, and the right side is at `maximum + visibleAmount`.

`JScrollBar` has the following properties, as shown in Figure 17.11.

When the user changes the value of the scroll bar, the scroll bar fires an `AdjustmentEvent`. A listener class for this event must implement the `adjustmentValueChanged` handler in the `java.awt.event.AdjustmentListener` interface.

Listing 17.6 gives a program that uses horizontal and vertical scroll bars to control a message displayed on a panel. The horizontal scroll bar is used to move the message to the left and the right, and the vertical scroll bar to move it up and down. A sample run of the program is shown in Figure 17.12.

Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Create the user interface.
   Create a `MessagePanel` object and place it in the center of the frame. Create a vertical scroll bar and place it in the east of the frame. Create a horizontal scroll bar and place it in the south of the frame.
17.6 Scroll Bars

2. Process the event.

Create listeners to implement the `adjustmentValueChanged` handler to move the message according to the bar movement in the scroll bars.

**Listing 17.6 ScrollBarDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ScrollBarDemo extends JFrame {
    // Create horizontal and vertical scroll bars
    private JScrollBar jscbHort =
```

---

**Figure 17.11** `JScrollBar` enables you to select from a range of values.

**Figure 17.12** The scroll bars move the message on a panel horizontally and vertically.

---

The `get` and `set` methods for these data fields are provided in the class, but omitted in the UML diagram for brevity.

- `orientation`: int
  - Specifies horizontal or vertical style, default is horizontal.

- `maximum`: int
  - Specifies the maximum value the scroll bar represents when the bubble reaches the right end of the scroll bar for horizontal style or the bottom of the scroll bar for vertical style.

- `minimum`: int
  - Specifies the minimum value the scroll bar represents when the bubble reaches the left end of the scroll bar for horizontal style or the top of the scroll bar for vertical style.

- `visibleAmount`: int
  - Specifies the relative width of the scroll bar’s bubble. The actual width appearing on the screen is determined by the maximum value and the value of `visibleAmount`.

- `value`: int
  - Represents the current value of the scroll bar.

- `blockIncrement`: int
  - Specifies value added (subtracted) when the user activates the block-increment (decrement) area of the scroll bar, as shown in Figure 17.10.

- `unitIncrement`: int
  - Specifies the value added (subtracted) when the user activates the unit-increment (decrement) area of the scroll bar, as shown in Figure 17.10.

- JScrollBar()
  - Creates a default vertical scroll bar.

- JScrollBar(orientation: int)
  - Creates a scroll bar with the specified orientation.

- JScrollBar(orientation: int, value: int, extent: int, min: int, max: int)
  - Creates a scroll bar with the specified orientation, value, extent, minimum, and maximum.

- `addAdjustmentListener(listener: AdjustmentListener): void`
  - Adds an `AdjustmentListener` to this object.
The program creates two scroll bars (`jscbVert` and `jscbHort`) (lines 7–10) and an instance of `MessagePanel` (`messagePanel`) (lines 13–14). `messagePanel` is placed in the center of the frame (line 28); `jscbVert` and `jscbHort` are placed in the east and south sections of the frame (lines 29–30), respectively.

You can specify the orientation of the scroll bar in the constructor or use the `setOrientation` method. By default, the property value is 100 for `maximum`, 0 for `minimum`, 10 for `blockIncrement`, and 10 for `visibleAmount`. 
When the user drags the bubble, or clicks the increment or decrement unit, the value of the scroll bar changes. An instance of AdjustmentEvent is fired and passed to the listener by invoking the adjustmentValueChanged handler. The listener for the vertical scroll bar moves the message up and down (lines 33–44), and the listener for the horizontal bar moves the message to the right and left (lines 45–56).

The maximum value of the vertical scroll bar corresponds to the height of the panel, and the maximum value of the horizontal scroll bar corresponds to the width of the panel. The ratio between the current and maximum values of the horizontal scroll bar is the same as the ratio between the x value and the width of the message panel. Similarly, the ratio between the current and maximum values of the vertical scroll bar is the same as the ratio between the y value and the height of the message panel. The x-coordinate and y-coordinate are set in response to the scroll bar adjustments (lines 39, 50).

17.17 How do you create a horizontal scroll bar? How do you create a vertical scroll bar?
17.18 What event can a scroll bar fire when the user changes the value on a scroll bar? What is the corresponding interface for the event? What is the handler defined in the interface?
17.19 How do you get the value from a scroll bar? How do you get the maximum value from a scroll bar?

17.7 Sliders

JSlider is similar to JScrollPane, but JSlider has more properties and can appear in many forms.

Figure 17.13 shows two sliders. JSlider lets the user graphically select a value by sliding a knob within a bounded interval. The slider can show both major tick marks and minor tick marks between them. The number of pixels between the tick marks is controlled by the majorTickSpacing and minorTickSpacing properties. Sliders can be displayed horizontally and/or vertically, with or without ticks, and with or without labels.

![Figure 17.13](image)

**Figure 17.13** The sliders move the message on a panel horizontally and vertically.

The frequently used constructors and properties in JSlider are shown in Figure 17.14.

**Note**
The values of a vertical scroll bar increase from top to bottom, but the values of a vertical slider decrease from top to bottom by default.

**Note**
All the properties listed in Figure 17.14 have the associated get and set methods, but they are omitted for brevity. By convention, the get method for a Boolean property is named `is<PropertyName>()`. In the JSlider class, the get methods for
javax.swing.JComponent

javax.swing.JSlider

- maximum: int
- minimum: int
- value: int
- orientation: int
- paintLabels: boolean
- paintTicks: boolean
- paintTrack: boolean
- majorTickSpacing: int
- minorTickSpacing: int
- inverted: boolean

+ JSlider(min: int, max: int)
+ JSlider(min: int, max: int, value: int)
+ JSlider(orientation: int)
+ JSlider(orientation: int, min: int, max: int, value: int)
+ addChangeListener(listener: ChangeListener): void

The maximum value represented by the slider (default: 100).
The minimum value represented by the slider (default: 0).
The current value represented by the slider.
The orientation of the slider (default: JSlider.HORIZONTAL).
True if the labels are painted at tick marks (default: false).
True if the ticks are painted on the slider (default: false).
True if the track is painted on the slider (default: true).
The number of units between major ticks (default: 0).
The number of units between minor ticks (default: 0).
True to reverse the value range, and false to put the value range in the normal order (default: false).

Creates a default horizontal slider.
Creates a horizontal slider with the specified min and max.
Creates a horizontal slider with the specified min, max, and value.
Creates a slider with the specified orientation.
Creates a slider with the specified orientation, min, max, and value.

Adds a ChangeListener to this object.

The get and set methods for these data fields are provided in the class, but omitted in the UML diagram for brevity.

FIGURE 17.14 JSlider enables you to select from a range of values.

When the user changes the value of the slider, the slider fires an instance of javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent, which is passed to any registered listeners. Any object that should be notified of changes to the slider’s value must implement the stateChanged method in the ChangeListener interface defined in the package javax.swing.event.

The program in Listing 17.7 uses the sliders to control a message displayed on a panel, as shown in Figure 17.14. Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Create the user interface.
   Create a MessagePanel object and place it in the center of the frame. Create a vertical slider and place it in the east of the frame. Create a horizontal slider and place it in the south of the frame.

2. Process the event.
   Create listeners to implement the stateChanged handler in the ChangeListener interface to move the message according to the knot movement in the slider.

LISTING 17.7 SliderDemo.java

```
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
```
```java
public class SliderDemo extends JFrame {

  // Create horizontal and vertical sliders
  private JSlider jsldHort = new JSlider(JSlider.HORIZONTAL);
  private JSlider jsldVert = new JSlider(JSlider.VERTICAL);

  // Create a MessagePanel
  private MessagePanel messagePanel =
      new MessagePanel("Welcome to Java");

  public static void main(String[] args) {
      SliderDemo frame = new SliderDemo();
      frame.setTitle("SliderDemo");
      frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
      frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
      frame.pack();
      frame.setVisible(true);
  }

  public SliderDemo() {
    // Add sliders and message panel to the frame
    setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 5));
    add(messagePanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(jsldVert, BorderLayout.EAST);
    add(jsldHort, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

    // Set properties for sliders
    jsldHort.setMaximum(50);
    jsldHort.setPaintLabels(true);
    jsldHort.setPaintTicks(true);
    jsldHort.setMajorTickSpacing(10);
    jsldHort.setMinorTickSpacing(1);
    jsldHort.setPaintTrack(false);
    jsldVert.setInverted(true);
    jsldVert.setMaximum(10);
    jsldVert.setPaintLabels(true);
    jsldVert.setPaintTicks(true);
    jsldVert.setMajorTickSpacing(10);
    jsldVert.setMinorTickSpacing(1);

    // Register listener for the sliders
    jsldHort.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
      @Override /** Handle scroll-bar adjustment actions */
      public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
        // getValue() and getMaximumValue() return int, but for better
        // precision, use double
        double value = jsldHort.getValue();
        double maxValue = jsldHort.getMaximum();
        double newX = (value * messagePanel.getWidth() / maxValue);
        messagePanel.setXCoordinate((int)newX);
      }
    });
    jsldVert.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
      @Override /** Handle scroll-bar adjustment actions */
      public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
        // getValue() and getMaximum() return int, but for better
        // precision, use double
        double value = jsldVert.getValue();
        double maxValue = jsldVert.getMaximum();
      }
    });
  }
```
double newY = (value * messagePanel.getHeight() / maximumValue);
messagePanel.setYCoordinate((int)newY);
}
}

JSlider is similar to JScrollPane but has more features. As shown in this example, you can specify maximum, labels, major ticks, and minor ticks on a JSlider (lines 31–35). You can also choose to hide the track (line 36). Since the default values of a vertical slider decrease from top to bottom, the setInverted method reverses the order (line 37).

JSlider fires ChangeEvent when the slider is changed. The listener needs to implement the stateChanged handler in ChangeListener (lines 45–68). Note that JScrollPane fires AdjustmentEvent when the scroll bar is adjusted.

17.20 How do you create a horizontal slider? How do you create a vertical slider?

17.21 What event can a slider fire when the user changes the value on a slider? What is the corresponding interface for the event? What is the handler defined in the interface?

17.22 How do you get the value from a slider? How do you get the maximum value from a slider?

17.8 Creating Multiple Windows

Multiple windows can be created in one program.

Occasionally, you may want to create multiple windows in an application so that the application can open a new window to perform a specified task. The new windows are called subwindows, and the main frame is called the main window.

Listing 17.8 gives a program that creates a main window with a text area in the scroll pane and a button named Show Histogram. When the user clicks the button, a new window appears that displays a histogram to show the occurrences of the letters in the text area. Figure 17.15 contains a sample run of the program.

![Figure 17.15](image)

**Figure 17.15** The histogram is displayed in a separate frame.

Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Define a main class for the frame named MultipleWindowsDemo in Listing 17.8.
   Add a text area inside a scroll pane, and place the scroll pane in the center of the frame.
   Create a button Show Histogram and place it in the south of the frame.

2. Define a subclass of JPanel named Histogram in Listing 17.9. The class contains a data field named count of the int[] type, which counts the occurrences of 26 letters.
   The values in count are displayed in the histogram.
3. Implement the `actionPerformed` handler in `MultipleWindowsDemo`, as follows:

   a. Create an instance of `Histogram`. Count the letters in the text area and set the count in the `Histogram` object.

   b. Create a new frame and place the `Histogram` object in the center of frame. Display the frame.

**Listing 17.8 MultipleWindowsDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class MultipleWindowsDemo extends JFrame {
    private JTextArea jta;
    private JButton jbtShowHistogram = new JButton("Show Histogram");
    private Histogram histogram = new Histogram();

    // Create a new frame to hold the histogram panel
    private JFrame histogramFrame = new JFrame();

    public MultipleWindowsDemo() {
        // Store text area in a scroll pane
        JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(jta);
        scrollPane.setPreferredSize(new Dimension(300, 200));
        jta.setWrapStyleWord(true);
        jta.setLineWrap(true);
        // Place scroll pane and button in the frame
        add(scrollPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(jbtShowHistogram, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        // Register listener
        jbtShowHistogram.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override /** Handle the button action */
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                // Count the letters in the text area
                int[] count = countLetters();
                // Set the letter count to histogram for display
                histogram.showHistogram(count);
                // Show the frame
                histogramFrame.setVisible(true);
            }
        });
        // Add the histogram panel to the frame
        histogramFrame.add(histogram);
        histogramFrame.pack();
        histogramFrame.setTitle("Histogram");
    }

    /** Count the letters in the text area */
    private int[] countLetters() {
        // Count for 26 letters
        int[] count = new int[26];
        // Get contents from the text area
    }
```

String text = jta.getText();

// Count occurrences of each letter (case insensitive)
for (int i = 0; i < text.length(); i++) {
    char character = text.charAt(i);
    if (character >= 'A' && character <= 'Z') {
        count[character - 'A']++;
    } else if (character >= 'a' && character <= 'z') {
        count[character - 'a']++;
    }
}

return count; // Return the count array

public static void main(String[] args) {
    MultipleWindowsDemo frame = new MultipleWindowsDemo();
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setTitle("MultipleWindowsDemo");
    frame.pack();
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

LISTING 17.9  Histogram.java

import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class Histogram extends JPanel {
    // Count the occurrences of 26 letters
    private int[] count;

    /** Set the count and display histogram */
    public void showHistogram(int[] count) {
        this.count = count;
        repaint();
    }

    @Override /** Paint the histogram */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        if (count == null) return; // No display if count is null
        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Find the panel size and bar width and interval dynamically
        int width = getWidth();
        int height = getHeight();
        int interval = (width - 40) / count.length;
        int individualWidth = (int)((width - 40) / 24) * 0.60;

        // Find the maximum count. The maximum count has the highest bar
        int maxCount = 0;
        for (int i = 0; i < count.length; i++) {
            if (maxCount < count[i])
                maxCount = count[i];
        }
// x is the start position for the first bar in the histogram
int x = 30;

// Draw a horizontal base line
g.drawLine(10, height - 45, width - 10, height - 45);
for (int i = 0; i < count.length; i++) {
  // Find the bar height
  int barHeight = 
    (int)(((double)count[i] / (double)maxCount) * (height - 55));
  // Display a bar (i.e., rectangle)
g.drawRect(x, height - 45 - barHeight, individualWidth, barHeight);
  // Display a letter under the base line
  g.drawString((char)(65 + i) + "", x, height - 30);
  // Move x for displaying the next character
  x += interval;
}
@override
public Dimension getPreferredSize() {
  return new Dimension(300, 300);
}

The program contains two classes: MultipleWindowsDemo and Histogram. Their relationship is shown in Figure 17.16.

MultipleWindowsDemo is a frame that holds a text area in a scroll pane and a button. Histogram is a subclass of JPanel that displays a histogram for the occurrences of letters in the text area.

In Listing 17.8, MultipleWindowsDemo.java, when the user clicks the Show Histogram button, the handler counts the occurrences of letters in the text area (line 29). Letters are counted regardless of their case. Nonletter characters are not counted. The count is stored in an int array of 26 elements (line 48). The first element in the array stores the count for the letter a or A, and the last element stores the count for the letter z or Z (lines 57–63). The count array is passed to the histogram for display (line 32).

The MultipleWindowsDemo class contains a main method. The main method creates an instance of MultipleWindowsDemo and displays the frame (lines 69–74). The
MultipleWindowsDemo class also contains an instance of JFrame, named histogramFrame (line 8), which holds an instance of Histogram. When the user clicks the Show Histogram button, histogramFrame is set as visible to display the histogram (line 35).

The height and width of the bars in the histogram are determined dynamically according to the window size of the histogram.

You cannot add an instance of JFrame to a container. For example, adding histogramFrame to the main frame would cause a runtime exception. However, you can create a frame instance and set it visible to launch a new window.

17.23 Explain how to create and show multiple windows in an application.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. You learned how to handle events for JCheckBox, JRadioButton, and JTextField.

2. You learned how to create graphical user interfaces using the Swing GUI components JTextArea, JComboBox, JList, JScrollPane, and JSlider. You also learned how to handle events on these components.

3. You learned how to launch multiple windows using JFrame.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Sections 17.2–17.5

*17.1 (Use radio buttons) Write a GUI program as shown in Figure 17.17. You can use buttons to move the message left and right and use the radio buttons to change the background color for the message displayed in the message panel.

Figure 17.17 The <= and => buttons move the message on the panel, and the radio buttons change the background color for the message.

*17.2 (Select geometric figures) Write a program that draws various figures, as shown in Figure 17.18. The user selects a figure from a radio button and uses a check box to specify whether it is filled. (Hint: Use the FigurePanel class introduced in Listing 13.3 to display a figure.)

**17.3 (Traffic lights) Write a program that simulates a traffic light. The program lets the user select one of three lights: red, yellow, or green. When a radio button is selected, the light is turned on, and only one light can be on at a time (see Figure 17.19). No light is on when the program starts.
Sections 17.6–17.8

**17.4  (Text viewer)** Write a program that displays a text file in a text area, as shown in Figure 17.20a. The user enters a file name in a text field and clicks the View button; the file is then displayed in a text area.

**17.5  (Create a histogram for occurrences of letters)** The program in Listing 17.8, MultipleWindowsDemo.java, displays a histogram to show the occurrences of each letter in a text area. Reuse the Histogram class created in Listing 17.9 to write a program that will display a histogram on a panel. The histogram should show the occurrences of each letter in a text file, as shown in Figure 17.20b. Assume that the letters are not case sensitive.

- Place the panel that will display the histogram in the center of the frame.
- Place a label and a text field in a panel, and put the panel in the south side of the frame. The text file will be entered from this text field.
- Pressing the Enter key on the text field causes the program to count the occurrences of each letter and display the count in a histogram.
**17.6** *(Create a miles/kilometers converter)* Write a program that converts miles and kilometers, as shown in Figure 17.21. If you enter a value in the Mile text field and press the *Enter* key, the corresponding kilometer measurement is displayed in the Kilometer text field. Likewise, if you enter a value in the Kilometer text field and press the *Enter* key, the corresponding miles is displayed in the Mile text field.

![Figure 17.21](image1.png)

**Figure 17.21** The program converts miles to kilometers, and vice versa.

**17.7** *(Set clock time)* Write a program that displays a clock and sets the time with the input from three text fields, as shown in Figure 17.22. Use the *StillClock* in Listing 13.10.

![Figure 17.22](image2.png)

**Figure 17.22** The program displays the time specified in the text fields.

**17.8** *(Select a font)* Write a program that can dynamically change the font of a message to be displayed on a panel. The message can be displayed in bold and italic at the same time, and/or it can be displayed in the center of the panel. You can select the font name or font size from combo boxes, as shown in Figure 17.23. The available font names can be obtained using `getAvailableFontFamilyNames()` in `GraphicsEnvironment` (see Section 12.8, The *Font* Class). The combo box for the font size is initialized with numbers from 1 to 100.

![Figure 17.23](image3.png)

**Figure 17.23** You can dynamically set the font for the message.
**17.9** *(Demonstrate `JLabel` properties)* Write a program to let the user dynamically set the properties `horizontalAlignment`, `verticalAlignment`, `horizontalTextAlignment`, and `verticalTextAlignment`, as shown in Figure 17.24.

![Figure 17.24](image)

**Figure 17.24** You can set the alignment and text-position properties of a label dynamically.

*17.10* *(Mandelbrot fractal)* Programming Exercise 15.20 displays Mandelbrot fractal. Note that the values 77, 58, and 159 in line 15 in the `MandelbrotCanvas` class in Programming Exercise 15.20 impact the color of the image. Revise the program to let the user enter these values from text fields dynamically, as shown in Figure 17.25a.

![Figure 17.25](image)

**Figure 17.25** (a) The program enables the user to set the colors dynamically. (b) You can set a text field’s properties for the horizontal alignment and column size dynamically.
*17.11 (Demonstrate JTextField properties) Write a program that sets the horizontal-alignment and column-size properties of a text field dynamically, as shown in Figure 17.25b.

*17.12 (Demonstrate JTextArea properties) Write a program that demonstrates the wrapping styles of the text area. The program uses a check box to indicate whether the text area is wrapped. If the text area is wrapped, you can specify whether it is wrapped by characters or by words, as shown in Figure 17.26.

*17.13 (Compare loans with various interest rates) Rewrite Programming Exercise 4.21 to create a user interface, as shown in Figure 17.27. Your program should let the user enter the loan amount and loan period in the number of years from a text field, and it should display the monthly and total payments for each interest rate starting from 5 percent to 8 percent, with increments of one-eighth, in a text area.

*17.14 (Use JComboBox and JList) Write a program that demonstrates selecting items in a list. The program uses a combo box to specify a selection mode, as shown in Figure 17.28. When you select items, they are displayed in a label below the list.

Figure 17.26 You can set the options to wrap a text area dynamically by characters or by words.

Figure 17.27 The program displays a table for monthly payments and total payments on a given loan based on various interest rates.

Figure 17.28 You can choose single selection, single-interval selection, or multiple-interval selection in a list.
Sections 17.6–17.8

**17.15** *(Use JScrollBar)* Write a program that uses scroll bars to select the foreground color for a label, as shown in Figure 17.29. Three horizontal scroll bars are used for selecting the color’s red, green, and blue components. Use a title border on the panel that holds the scroll bars.

![Panel with GridLayout for three labels](image1)

**Figure 17.29** The foreground color changes in the label as you adjust the scroll bars.

**17.16** *(Use JSlider)* Revise the preceding exercise using sliders.

**17.17** *(Display a calendar)* Write a program that displays the calendar for the current month. You can use the Prior and Next buttons to show the calendar of the previous or next month. Display the dates in the current month in black and display the dates in the previous month and next month in gray, as shown in Figure 17.30.

![JPanel with GridLayout](image2)

**Figure 17.30** The program displays the calendar for the current month.

*17.18* *(Revise Listing 17.8, MultipleWindowsDemo.java)* Instead of displaying the occurrences of the letters using the Histogram component in Listing 17.8, use a bar chart, so that the display is as shown in Figure 17.31.

![Panel with BorderLayout](image3)

**Figure 17.31** The number of occurrences of each letter is displayed in a bar chart.
**17.19** *(Display country flag and flag description)* Listing 17.4, ComboBoxDemo.java, gives a program that lets users view a country’s flag image and description by selecting the country from a combo box. The description is a string coded in the program. Rewrite the program to read the text description from a file. Suppose that the descriptions are stored in the files `description0.txt`, `description1.txt`, ..., and `description8.txt` under the `text` directory for the nine countries Canada, China, Denmark, France, Germany, India, Norway, the United Kingdom, and the United States, in this order.

**17.20** *(Slide show)* Programming Exercise 16.13 developed a slide show using images. Rewrite that program to develop a slide show using text files. Suppose ten text files named `slide0.txt`, `slide1.txt`, ..., and `slide9.txt` are stored in the `text` directory. Each slide displays the text from one file. Each slide is shown for one second, and the slides are displayed in order. When the last slide finishes, the first slide is redisplayed, and so on. Use a text area to display the slide.

**17.21** *(Retrieve files from Web)* Write a Java program that retrieves a file from a Web server, as shown in Figure 17.32. The user interface includes a text field in which to enter the URL of the file name, a text area in which to show the file, and a button that can be used to submit an action. A label is added at the bottom of the applet to indicate the status, such as *File loaded successfully* or *Network connection problem*.

![Figure 17.32](image-url) The program displays the contents of a specified file on the Internet.
Objectives

- To convert GUI applications into applets (§18.2).
- To embed applets in Web pages (§18.3).
- To run applets from Web browsers and from the appletviewer command (§§18.3.1–18.3.2).
- To understand the applet security sandbox model (§18.4).
- To write a Java program that can run both as an application and as an applet (§18.5).
- To override the applet life-cycle methods init, start, stop, and destroy (§18.6).
- To pass string values to applets from HTML (§18.7).
- To develop an animation for a bouncing ball (§18.8).
- To develop an applet for the tic-tac-toe game (§18.9).
- To locate resources (images and audio) using the URL class (§18.10).
- To play audio in any Java program (§18.11).
18.1 Introduction

Java applets are Java programs running from a Web browser.

When browsing the Web, often the graphical user interface and animation you see have been developed using Java. The Java programs that run from a Web browser are called Java applets. How do you write Java applets with graphics, images, and audio? This chapter will show you how.

18.2 Developing Applets

Java applets are instances of the Applet class. JApplet is a subclass of Applet, and it is suitable for developing applets using Swing components.

So far, you have used and written Java applications. Everything you have learned about writing applications, however, applies also to writing applets. Applications and applets share many common programming features, although they differ slightly in some aspects. For example, every application must have a main method, which is invoked by the Java interpreter. Java applets, on the other hand, do not need a main method. They run in the Web browser environment. Because applets are embedded in a Web page, Java provides special features that enable applets to run from a Web browser.

The Applet class provides the essential framework that enables applets to be run from a Web browser. While every Java application has a main method that is executed when the application starts, applets, because they don’t have a main method, depend on the browser to run them. Every applet is an instance of java.applet.Applet. The Applet class is an AWT class and is not designed to work with Swing components. To use Swing components in Java applets, you need to define a Java applet that extends javax.swing.JApplet, which is a subclass of java.applet.Applet.

Every Java GUI program you have developed can be converted into an applet by replacing JFrame with JApplet and deleting the main method. Figure 18.1a shows a Java GUI application program, which can be converted into a Java applet as shown in Figure 18.1b.

Listing 18.1 gives the complete code for the applet.

```
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayLabel extends JFrame {
    public DisplayLabel() {
        add(new JLabel("Great!", JLabel.CENTER));
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JFrame frame = new DisplayLabel();
        frame.setTitle("DisplayLabel");
        frame.setSize(200, 100);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

```
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayLabel extends JApplet {
    public DisplayLabel() {
        add(new JLabel("Great!", JLabel.CENTER));
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        JApplet frame = new DisplayLabel();
        frame.setTitle("DisplayLabel");
        frame.setSize(200, 100);
        frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
        frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

(a) GUI application (b) Applet

**Figure 18.1** You can convert a GUI application into an applet.

**Listing 18.1** DisplayLabel.java
Like JFrame, JApplet is a container that can contain other GUI components (see the GUI class diagrams in Figure 12.1). The default layout manager for JApplet is BorderLayout. So, the label is placed in the center of the applet (line 5).

18.1 Is every applet an instance of java.applet.Applet?
18.2 Is javax.swing.JApplet a subclass of java.applet.Applet?

18.3 The HTML File and the <applet> Tag

To run an applet, you need to create an HTML file with an <applet> tag for embedding the applet.

HTML is a markup language that presents static documents on the Web. It uses tags to instruct the Web browser how to render a Web page and contains a tag called <applet> that incorporates applets into a Web page.

The HTML file in Listing 18.2 embeds the applet DisplayLabel.class.

LISTING 18.2 DisplayLabel.html

```html
<html>
<head>
  <title>Java Applet Demo</title>
</head>
<body>
  <applet
    code = "DisplayLabel.class"
    width = 250
    height = 50
  ></applet>
</body>
</html>
```

An HTML tag is an instruction to the Web browser. The browser interprets the tag and decides how to display or otherwise treat the subsequent contents of the HTML document. Tags are enclosed inside brackets (< >). The first word in a tag, called the tag name, describes tag functions. A tag can have additional attributes, sometimes with values after an equals sign, which further define the tag’s action. For example, in the preceding HTML file, <applet> is the tag name, and code, width, and height are attributes. The width and height attributes specify the rectangular viewing area of the applet.

Most tags have a start tag and a corresponding end tag. The tag has a specific effect on the region between the start tag and the end tag. For example, <applet...></applet> tells the browser to display an applet. An end tag is always the start tag’s name preceded by a slash.

An HTML document begins with the <html> tag, which declares that the document is written in HTML. Each document has two parts, a head and a body, defined by <head> and <body> tags, respectively. The head part contains the document title, including the <title> tag and other information the browser can use when rendering the document, and the body part holds the actual contents of the document. The header is optional. For more information, refer to Supplement V.A, HTML and XHTML Tutorial.

The complete syntax of the <applet> tag is as follows:

```html
<applet
  [codebase = applet_url]
```
code = classfilename.class
width = applet_viewing_width in pixels
height = applet_viewing_height in pixels
[archive = archivefile]
[vspace = vertical_margin]
[hspace = horizontal_margin]
[align = applet_alignment]
[alt = alternative_text]

The code, width, and height attributes are required; all the others are optional. The <param> tag will be introduced in Section 18.7, Passing Strings to Applets. The other attributes are explained below.

codebase attribute
- codebase specifies the base from which your classes are loaded. If this attribute is not used, the Web browser loads the applet from the directory in which the HTML page is located. If your applet is located in a different directory from the HTML page, you must specify the applet_url for the browser to load the applet. This attribute enables you to load the class from anywhere on the Internet. The classes used by the applet are dynamically loaded when needed.

archive attribute
- archive instructs the browser to load an archive file that contains all the class files needed to run the applet. Archiving allows the Web browser to load all the classes from a single compressed file at one time, thus reducing loading time and improving performance. To create archives, see Supplement III.Q, Packaging and Deploying Java Projects.

- vspace and hspace specify the size, in pixels, of the blank margin to pad around the applet vertically and horizontally.

- align specifies how the applet will be aligned in the browser. One of nine values is used: left, right, top, texttop, middle, absmiddle, baseline, bottom, or abssbottom.

- alt specifies the text to be displayed in case the browser cannot run Java.

18.3.1 Viewing Applets from a Web Browser

To display an applet from a Web browser, open the applet’s HTML file (e.g., DisplayLabel.html). Its output is shown in Figure 18.2a.

To make your applet accessible on the Web, you need to store the DisplayLabel.class and DisplayLabel.html files on a Web server, as shown in Figure 18.3. You can view the applet
18.3.2 Viewing Applets Using the Applet Viewer Utility

You can test the applet using the applet viewer utility, which can be launched from the DOS prompt using the `appletviewer` command, as shown in Figure 18.4a. Its output is shown in Figure 18.4b.

![Applet Viewer: DisplayLabel.class](image)

The applet viewer functions as a browser. It is convenient for testing applets during development without launching a Web browser.

18.4 Applet Security Restrictions

Applet security restrictions ensure that safety is maintained when running applets.

Java uses the so-called “sandbox security model” for executing applets to prevent destructive programs from damaging the system on which the browser is running. Applets are not allowed to use resources outside the “sandbox.” Specifically, the sandbox restricts the following activities:

- Applets are not allowed to read from, or write to, the file system of the computer. Otherwise, they could damage the files and spread viruses.

- Applets are not allowed to run programs on the browser’s computer. Otherwise, they might call destructive local programs and damage the local system on the user’s computer.

- Applets are not allowed to establish connections between the user’s computer and any other computer, except for the server where the applets are stored. This restriction prevents the applet from connecting the user’s computer to another computer without the user’s knowledge.
Check Point

MyProgrammingLab

Key Point

VideoNote

Run applets standalone

You can create signed applets to circumvent the security restrictions. See Supplement III.S, Signed Applets, for detailed instructions on how to create signed applets.

18.5 List some security restrictions on applets.

18.5 Enabling Applets to Run as Applications

You can add a main method in the applet to enable the applet to run as a standalone application.

Despite some differences, the JFrame class and the JApplet class have a lot in common. Since they both are subclasses of the Container class, all their user-interface components, layout managers, and event-handling features are the same. Applications, however, are invoked from the static main method by the Java interpreter, and applets are run by the Web browser. The Web browser creates an instance of the applet using the applet’s no-arg constructor and controls and executes the applet.

In general, an applet can be converted into an application without loss of functionality. An application can be converted into an applet as long as it does not violate the security restrictions imposed on applets. You can implement a main method in an applet to enable the applet to run as an application. This feature has both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, it blurs the difference between applets and applications: You can write a class that is both an applet and an application. From the standpoint of practicality, it is convenient to be able to run a program both ways.

How do you write such programs? Suppose you have an applet named MyApplet. To enable it to run as an application, you only need to add a main method in the applet, as follows:

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a frame
    JFrame frame = new JFrame("Applet is in the frame");
    // Create an instance of the applet
    MyApplet applet = new MyApplet();
    // Add the applet to the frame
    frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    // Display the frame
    frame.setSize(300, 300);
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}
```

You can revise the DisplayLabel class in Listing 18.1 to enable it to run as a standalone application (often abbreviated as “run standalone”) by adding a main method, as shown in Listing 18.3.

Listing 18.3 New DisplayLabel.java with a main Method

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayLabel extends JApplet {
    public DisplayLabel() {
        add(new JLabel("Great!", JLabel.CENTER));
    }
}
```
public static void main(String[] args) {

    // Create a frame
    JFrame frame = new JFrame("Applet is in the frame");

    // Create an instance of the applet
    DisplayLabel applet = new DisplayLabel();

    // Add the applet to the frame
    frame.add(applet);

    // Display the frame
    frame.setSize(300, 100);  // Center the frame
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

When the applet is run from a Web browser, the browser creates an instance of the applet and displays it. When the applet is run standalone, the main method is invoked to create a frame (line 10) to hold the applet. The applet is created (line 13) and added to the frame (line 16). The frame is displayed in line 22.

Note that you can add an applet to a container, but not a frame to a container. A frame is a top-level container that cannot be embedded in another container.

18.6 How do you add components to a JApplet? What is the default layout manager of JApplet?

18.7 Can you place a frame in an applet?

18.8 Can you place an applet in a frame?

18.9 What are the differences between applications and applets? How do you run an application, and how do you run an applet? Is the compilation process different for applications and applets?

### 18.6 Applet Life-Cycle Methods

The Web browser controls and executes applets using the applet life-cycle methods.

Applets are actually run from the applet container, which is a plug-in of a Web browser. A plug-in is a software component that can be added into a larger software to provide additional functions. The Applet class contains the init(), start(), stop(), and destroy() methods, known as the life-cycle methods. These methods are called by the applet container to control the execution of an applet. They are implemented with an empty body in the Applet class, so they do nothing by default. You may override them in a subclass of Applet to perform desired operations. Figure 18.5 shows how the applet container calls these methods.

![Figure 18.5](image-url)
18.6.1 The init Method

The init method is invoked after the applet is created. If a subclass of Applet has an initialization to perform, it should override this method. The functions usually implemented in this method include getting string parameter values from the <applet> tag in the HTML page.

18.6.2 The start Method

The start method is invoked after the init method. It is also called when the user returns to the Web page containing the applet after surfing other pages.

A subclass of Applet overrides this method if it has any operation that needs to be performed whenever the Web page containing the applet is visited. An applet with animation, for example, might start the timer to resume animation.

18.6.3 The stop Method

The stop method is the opposite of the start method. The start method is called when the user moves back to the page that contains the applet. The stop method is invoked when the user leaves the page.

A subclass of Applet overrides this method if it has any operation to be performed each time the Web page containing the applet is no longer visible. An applet with animation, for example, might stop the timer to pause animation.

18.6.4 The destroy Method

The destroy method is invoked when the browser exits normally to inform the applet that it is no longer needed and should release any resources it has allocated. The stop method is always called before the destroy method.

A subclass of Applet overrides this method if it has any operation to be performed before it is destroyed. Usually, you won’t need to override this method unless you want to release specific resources that the applet created.

18.10 Describe the init(), start(), stop(), and destroy() methods in the Applet class.

18.11 Why does the applet in (a) below display nothing? Why does the applet in (b) have a runtime NullPointerException on the highlighted line?

(a)

```java
import javax.swing.*;
public class WelcomeApplet extends JApplet {
    public WelcomeApplet() {
        JLabel jlblMessage = new JLabel("It is Java");
    }
}
```

(b)

```java
import javax.swing.*;
public class WelcomeApplet extends JApplet {
    private JLabel jlblMessage;
    public WelcomeApplet() {
        JLabel jlblMessage = new JLabel("It is Java");
    }

    @Override
    public void init() {
        add(jlblMessage);
    }
}
```
18.7 Passing Strings to Applets

You can pass string parameters from an HTML file to an applet.

In Section 9.7, Command-Line Arguments, you learned how to pass strings to Java applications from a command line. Strings are passed to the `main` method as an array of strings. When the application starts, the `main` method can use these strings. There is no `main` method in an applet, however, and applets are not run from the command line by the Java interpreter.

How, then, can applets accept arguments? In this section, you will learn how to pass strings to Java applets. To be passed to an applet, a parameter must be defined in the HTML file and must be read by the applet when it is initialized. Parameters are defined using the `<param>` tag. The `<param>` tag must be embedded in the `<applet>` tag. Its syntax is:

```
<param name = parametername value = stringvalue />
```

The `<param>` tag defines a parameter and its corresponding string value.

**Note**
No comma separates the parameter name from the parameter value in the HTML code. The HTML parameter names are not case sensitive.

Suppose you want to write an applet to display a message. The message is passed as a parameter. In addition, you want the message to be displayed at a specific location with x-coordinate and y-coordinate, which are passed as two parameters. The parameters and their values are listed in Table 18.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter Name</th>
<th>Parameter Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MESSAGE</td>
<td>&quot;Welcome to Java&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The HTML source file is given in Listing 18.4.

**LISTING 18.4 DisplayMessage.html**

```html
<html>
<head>
  <title>Passing Strings to Java Applets</title>
</head>
<body>
  <p>This applet gets a message from the HTML page and displays it.</p>
  <applet
code = "DisplayMessage.class"
width = 200
height = 50
alt = "You must have a Java-enabled browser to view the applet"
>
  <param name = MESSAGE value = "Welcome to Java" />
  <param name = X value = 20 />
</applet>
</body>
</html>
```
To read the parameter from the applet, use the following method defined in the `Applet` class:

```java
public String getParameter(String parametername);
```

This returns the value of the specified parameter.

The applet is given in Listing 18.5. A sample run of the applet is shown in Figure 18.6.

**Listing 18.5 DisplayMessage.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayMessage extends JApplet {
    @Override
    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        // Get parameter values from the HTML file
        String message = getParameter("MESSAGE");
        int x = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("X"));
        int y = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("Y"));

        // Create a message panel
        MessagePanel messagePanel = new MessagePanel(message);
        messagePanel.setXCoordinate(x);
        messagePanel.setYCoordinate(y);

        // Add the message panel to the applet
        add(messagePanel);
    }
}
```

![Applet Viewer: DisplayMessage class](image)

**Figure 18.6** The applet displays the message *Welcome to Java* passed from the HTML page.

The program gets the parameter values from the HTML file in the `init` method. The values are strings obtained using the `getParameter` method (lines 7–9). Because `x` and `y` are `ints`, the program uses `Integer.parseInt(string)` to parse a digital string into an `int` value.

If you change *Welcome to Java* in the HTML file to *Welcome to HTML*, and reload the HTML file in the Web browser, you should see *Welcome to HTML* displayed. Similarly, the `x` and `y` values can be changed to display the message in a desired location.

**Caution**

The `Applet`'s `getParameter` method can be invoked only after an instance of the applet is created. Therefore, this method cannot be invoked in the constructor of the applet class. You should invoke it from the `init` method.
You can add a main method to enable this applet to run as a standalone application. The applet takes the parameters from the HTML file when it runs as an applet and takes the parameters from the command line when it runs standalone. The program, as shown in Listing 18.6, is identical to DisplayMessage except for the addition of a new main method and of a variable named isStandalone to indicate whether it is running as an applet or as an application.

**Listing 18.6 DisplayMessageApp.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.Font;
import java.awt.BorderLayout;

public class DisplayMessageApp extends JApplet {
    private String message = "A default message"; // Message to display
    private int x = 20; // Default x-coordinate
    private int y = 20; // Default y-coordinate

    /** Determine whether it is an application */
    private boolean isStandalone = false;

    @Override /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        if (!isStandalone) {
            // Get parameter values from the HTML file
            message = getParameter("MESSAGE");
            x = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("X"));
            y = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("Y"));
        }

        // Create a message panel
        MessagePanel messagePanel = new MessagePanel(message);
        messagePanel.setFont(new Font("SansSerif", Font.BOLD, 20));
        messagePanel.setXCoordinate(x);
        messagePanel.setYCoordinate(y);

        // Add the message panel to the applet
        add(messagePanel);
    }

    /** Main method to display a message */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a frame
        JFrame frame = new JFrame("DisplayMessageApp");

        // Create an instance of the applet
        DisplayMessageApp applet = new DisplayMessageApp();

        // It runs as an application
        applet.isStandalone = true;

        // Get parameters from the command line
        applet.getCommandLineParameters(args);

        // Add the applet instance to the frame
        frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
}
```
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```java
// Invoke applet's init method
applet.init();
applet.start();

// Display the frame
frame.setSize(300, 300);
frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null); // Center the frame
frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
frame.setVisible(true);
}

/** Get command-line parameters */
private void getCommandLineParameters(String[] args) {
    // Check usage and get x, y and message
    if (args.length != 3) {
        System.out.println(
            "Usage: java DisplayMessageApp x y message"
        );
        System.exit(1);
    }
    else {
        x = Integer.parseInt(args[0]);
        y = Integer.parseInt(args[1]);
        message = args[2];
    }
}
}
```

When you run the program as an applet, the `main` method is ignored. When you run it as an application, the `main` method is invoked. Sample runs of the program as an application and as an applet are shown in Figure 18.7.

![DisplayMessageApp class running as an applet](a)

![DisplayMessageApp class running as an application](b)

**Figure 18.7** The `DisplayMessageApp` class can run as an applet in (a) and as an application in (b).

The `main` method creates a `JFrame` object `frame` and creates a `JApplet` object `applet`, then places the applet `applet` into the frame `frame` and invokes its `init` method. The application runs just like an applet.

The `main` method sets `isStandalone` as `true` (line 45) so that it does not attempt to retrieve HTML parameters when the `init` method is invoked.

The `setVisible(true)` method (line 61) is invoked after the components are added to the applet, and the applet is added to the frame to ensure that the components will be visible. Otherwise, the components are not shown when the frame starts.

**Important Pedagogical Note**

From now on, all the GUI examples will be created as applets with a `main` method. Thus, you will be able to run the program either as an applet or as an application. For brevity, the `main` method is not listed in the text.

**Check Point**

18.12 How do you pass parameters to an applet?

18.13 Where is the `getParameter` method defined?
What is wrong if the `DisplayMessage` applet is revised as follows?

```
public class DisplayMessage extends JApplet {
    /** Initialize the applet */
    public DisplayMessage() {
        // Get parameter values from the HTML file
        String message = getParameter("MESSAGE");
        int x = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("X"));
        int y = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("Y"));

        // Create a message panel
        MessagePanel messagePanel = new MessagePanel(message);
        messagePanel.setXCoordinate(x);
        messagePanel.setYCoordinate(y);

        // Add the message panel to the applet
        add(messagePanel);
    }
}
```

```
public class DisplayMessage extends JApplet {
    private String message;
    private int x;
    private int y;

    @Override
    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        // Get parameter values from the HTML file
        message = getParameter("MESSAGE");
        x = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("X"));
        y = Integer.parseInt(getParameter("Y"));

        // Create a message panel
        MessagePanel messagePanel = new MessagePanel(message);
        messagePanel.setXCoordinate(x);
        messagePanel.setYCoordinate(y);

        // Add the message panel to the applet
        add(messagePanel);
    }
}
```

(a) Revision 1

(b) Revision 2

18.8 Case Study: Bouncing Ball

This section presents an applet that displays a ball bouncing in a panel. The applet uses two buttons to suspend and resume the bouncing movement, and uses a scroll bar to control the bouncing speed, as shown in Figure 18.8.

Here are the major steps to write this program:

1. Define a subclass of `JPanel` named `Ball` to display a ball bouncing, as shown in Listing 18.7.
2. Define a subclass of `JPanel` named `BallControl` to set the ball speed with a scroll bar, and two control buttons `Suspend` and `Resume`, as shown in Listing 18.8.
3. Define an applet named `BounceBallApp` to contain an instance of `BallControl` and enable the applet to run as a standalone application, as shown in Listing 18.9.

The relationship among these classes is shown in Figure 18.9.
LISTING 18.7 Ball.java

```java
import javax.swing.Timer;
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class Ball extends JPanel {

    private int x = 0; // Current ball position
    private int y = 0;
    private int dx = 2; // Increment on ball's x-coordinate
    private int dy = 2; // Increment on ball's y-coordinate
    private int radius = 5; // Ball radius
    private int delay = 10; // Timer delay

    // Create a timer with the specified delay in milliseconds
    private Timer timer = new Timer(delay, new TimerListener());

    public Ball() {
        timer.start();
    }

    // Handle the action event
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        repaint();
    }

    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        g.setColor(Color.red);
        // Check boundaries
        if (x < 0 || x > getWidth())
            dx *= -1;
    }

    // TimerListener implements ActionListener
    private class TimerListener implements ActionListener {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            repaint();
        }
    }
}
```

**Figure 18.9** BounceBallApp contains BallControl, and BallControl contains Ball.
if (y < 0 || y > getHeight())
    dy *= -1;

// Adjust ball position
x += dx;
y += dy;
g.fillOval(x - radius, y - radius, radius * 2, radius * 2);
}

public void suspend() {
    timer.stop(); // Suspend timer
}

public void resume() {
    timer.start(); // Resume timer
}

public void setDelay(int delay) {
    this.delay = delay;
timer.setDelay(delay);
}

The use of Timer to control animation was introduced in Section 16.11, Animation Using the Timer Class. Ball extends JPanel to display a moving ball. The timer listener implements ActionListener to listen for ActionEvent (line 21). Line 10 creates a Timer for a Ball. The timer is started in line 18 when a Ball is constructed. The timer fires an ActionEvent at a fixed rate. The listener responds in line 24 to repaint the ball to animate ball movement. The center of the ball is at (x, y), which changes to (x + dx, y + dy) on the next display (lines 41–42). When the ball is out of the horizontal boundary, the sign of dx is changed (from positive to negative, or vice versa) (lines 35–36). This causes the ball to change its horizontal movement direction. When the ball is out of the vertical boundary, the sign of dy is changed (from positive to negative, or vice versa) (lines 37–38). This causes the ball to change its vertical movement direction. The suspend and resume methods (lines 46–52) can be used to stop and start the timer. The setDelay(int) method (lines 54–57) sets a new delay.

Listing 18.8 BallControl.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class BallControl extends JPanel {
    private Ball ball = new Ball();
    private JButton jbtSuspend = new JButton("Suspend");
    private JButton jbtResume = new JButton("Resume");
    private JScrollBar jsbDelay = new JScrollBar();

    public BallControl() {
        // Group buttons in a panel
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtSuspend);
        panel.add(jbtResume);

        // Add ball and buttons to the panel
        ball.setBorder(new javax.swing.border.LineBorder(Color.red));
        jsbDelay.setOrientation(JScrollBar.HORIZONTAL);
        ball.setDelay(jsbDelay.getMaximum());
        setLayout(new BorderLayout());
```

add(jsbDelay, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(ball, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listeners
jbtSuspend.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        ball.suspend();
    }
});

jbtResume.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        ball.resume();
    }
});

jsbDelay.addAdjustmentListener(new AdjustmentListener() {
    @Override
    public void adjustmentValueChanged(AdjustmentEvent e) {
        ball.setDelay(jsbDelay.getMaximum() - e.getValue());
    }
});

The BallControl class extends JPanel to display the ball with a scroll bar and two control buttons. When the Suspend button is clicked, the ball’s suspend() method is invoked to suspend the ball’s movement (line 30). When the Resume button is clicked, the ball’s resume() method is invoked to resume the ball’s movement (line 36). The bouncing speed can be changed using the scroll bar.

LISTING 18.9 BounceBallApp.java

import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class BounceBallApp extends JApplet {
    public BounceBallApp() {
        add(new BallControl());
    }
}

The BounceBallApp class simply places an instance of BallControl in the applet. The main method is provided in the applet (not displayed in the listing for brevity) so that you can also run it standalone.

18.15 How does the program make the ball moving?

18.16 How does the code in Listing 18.7 Ball.java change the direction of the ball movement?

18.17 What does the program do when the Suspend button is clicked? What does the program do when the Resume button is clicked?

18.9 Case Study: Developing a Tic-Tac-Toe Game

This section develops an applet for playing tic-tac-toe.

From the many examples in this and earlier chapters you have learned about objects, classes, arrays, class inheritance, GUI, event-driven programming, and applets. Now it is time to put
what you have learned to work in developing comprehensive projects. In this section, we will develop a Java applet with which to play the popular game of tic-tac-toe.

Two players take turns marking an available cell in a $3 \times 3$ grid with their respective tokens (either X or O). When one player has placed three tokens in a horizontal, vertical, or diagonal row on the grid, the game is over and that player has won. A draw (no winner) occurs when all the cells on the grid have been filled with tokens and neither player has achieved a win. Figure 18.10 shows the representative sample runs of the example.

![Figure 18.10](image)

(a) The X player won the game  (b) Draw—no winners  (c) The O player won the game

**Figure 18.10** Two players play a tic-tac-toe game.

All the examples you have seen so far show simple behaviors that are easy to model with classes. The behavior of the tic-tac-toe game is somewhat more complex. To create classes that model the behavior, you need to study and understand the game.

Assume that all the cells are initially empty, and that the first player takes the X token and the second player the O token. To mark a cell, the player points the mouse to the cell and clicks it. If the cell is empty, the token (X or O) is displayed. If the cell is already filled, the player’s action is ignored.

From the preceding description, it is obvious that a cell is a GUI object that handles the mouse-click event and displays tokens. Such an object could be either a button or a panel. Drawing on panels is more flexible than drawing on buttons, because on a panel the token (X or O) can be drawn in any size, but on a button it can be displayed only as a text label. Therefore, a panel should be used to model a cell. How do you know the state of the cell (empty, X, or O)? You use a property named `token` of the `char` type in the `Cell` class. The `Cell` class is responsible for drawing the token when an empty cell is clicked, so you need to write the code for listening to the `MouseEvent` and for painting the shapes for tokens X and O. The `Cell` class can be defined as shown in Figure 18.11.

![Figure 18.11](image)

```java
javax.swing.JPanel

Cell

- token: char
  + getToken(): char
  + setToken(token: char): void
  # paintComponent(g: Graphics): void
```

**Figure 18.11** The `Cell` class paints the token in a cell.
The tic-tac-toe board consists of nine cells, created using `new Cell[3][3]`. To determine which player’s turn it is, you can introduce a variable named `whoseTurn` of the `char` type. `whoseTurn` is initially 'X', then changes to 'O', and subsequently changes between 'X' and 'O' whenever a new cell is occupied. When the game is over, set `whoseTurn` to ' '.

How do you know whether the game is over, whether there is a winner, and who the winner, if any, is? You can define a method named `isWon(char token)` to check whether a specified token has won and a method named `isFull()` to check whether all the cells are occupied.

Clearly, two classes emerge from the foregoing analysis. One is the `Cell` class, which handles operations for a single cell; the other is the `TicTacToe` class, which plays the whole game and deals with all the cells. The relationship between these two classes is shown in Figure 18.12.

Since the `Cell` class is only to support the `TicTacToe` class, it can be defined as an inner class in `TicTacToe`. The complete program is given in Listing 18.10.

**Listing 18.10  TicTacToe.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.LineBorder;

public class TicTacToe extends JApplet {
    // Indicate which player has a turn; initially it is the X player
    private char whoseTurn = 'X';

    // Create and initialize cells
    private Cell[][] cells = new Cell[3][3];

    // Create and initialize a status label
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel("X's turn to play");

    /** Initialize UI */
    public TicTacToe() {
        // Panel p to hold cells
```
JPanel p = new JPanel(new GridLayout(3, 3, 0, 0));
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        p.add(cells[i][j] = new Cell());

// Set line borders on the cells' panel and the status label
p.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.red, 1));
jlblStatus.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.yellow, 1));

// Place the panel and the label for the applet
add(p, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

/** Determine whether the cells are all occupied */
public boolean isFull() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
            if (cells[i][j].getToken() == ' ')
                return false;
    return true;
}

/** Determine whether the player with the specified token wins */
public boolean isWon(char token) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
        if ((cells[i][0].getToken() == token)
            && (cells[i][1].getToken() == token)
            && (cells[i][2].getToken() == token)) {
            return true;
        }

    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        if ((cells[0][j].getToken() == token)
            && (cells[1][j].getToken() == token)
            && (cells[2][j].getToken() == token)) {
            return true;
        }

    if ((cells[0][0].getToken() == token)
        && (cells[1][1].getToken() == token)
        && (cells[2][2].getToken() == token)) {
        return true;
    }

    if ((cells[0][2].getToken() == token)
        && (cells[1][1].getToken() == token)
        && (cells[2][0].getToken() == token)) {
        return true;
    }

    return false;
}

// An inner class for a cell
public class Cell extends JPanel {
    // Token used for this cell
    private char token = ' ';
public Cell() {
    setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black, 1)); // Set cell's border
   .addMouseListener(new MyMouseListener()); // Register listener
}

/** Return token */
public char getToken() {
    return token;
}

/** Set a new token */
public void setToken(char c) {
    token = c;
    repaint();
}

@Override /** Paint the cell */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);

    if (token == 'X') {
        g.drawLine(10, 10, getWidth() - 10, getHeight() - 10);
        g.drawLine(getWidth() - 10, 10, 10, getHeight() - 10);
    } else if (token == 'O') {
        g.drawOval(10, 10, getWidth() - 20, getHeight() - 20);
    }
}

private class MyMouseListener extends MouseAdapter {
    @Override /** Handle mouse click on a cell */
    public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
        // If cell is empty and game is not over
        if (token == ' ' && whoseTurn != ' ') {
            setToken(whoseTurn); // Set token in the cell
            if (isWon(whoseTurn)) {
                jlblStatus.setText(whoseTurn + " won! The game is over");
                whoseTurn = ' '; // Game is over
            } else if (isFull()) {
                jlblStatus.setText("Draw! The game is over");
                whoseTurn = ' '; // Game is over
            } else {
                // Change the turn
                whoseTurn = (whoseTurn == 'X') ? 'O' : 'X';
                // Display whose turn
                jlblStatus.setText(whoseTurn + "'s turn");
            }
        }
    }
}

The TicTacToe class initializes the user interface with nine cells placed in a panel of GridLayout (lines 19–22). A label named jlblStatus is used to show the status of the game (line 14). The variable whoseTurn (line 8) is used to track the next type of token to be
placed in a cell. The methods isFull (lines 34–41) and isWon (lines 44–72) are for checking the status of the game.

Since Cell is an inner class in TicTacToe, the variable (whoseTurn) and methods (isFull and isWon) defined in TicTacToe can be referenced from the Cell class. The inner class makes programs simple and concise. If Cell were not defined as an inner class of TicTacToe, you would have to pass an object of TicTacToe to Cell in order for the variables and methods in TicTacToe to be used in Cell. You will rewrite the program without using an inner class in Programming Exercise 18.6.

The listener for MouseEvent is registered for the cell (line 81). If an empty cell is clicked and the game is not over, a token is set in the cell (line 113). If the game is over, whoseTurn is set to ' ' (lines 118, 122). Otherwise, whoseTurn is alternated to a new turn (line 126).

**Tip**
Use an incremental approach in developing and testing a Java project of this kind. For example, this program can be divided into five steps:

1. Lay out the user interface and display a fixed token X on a cell.
2. Enable the cell to display a fixed token X upon a mouse click.
3. Coordinate between the two players so as to display tokens X and O alternately.
4. Check whether a player wins, or whether all the cells are occupied without a winner.
5. Implement displaying a message on the label upon each move by a player.

**18.18** When the game starts, what value is in whoseTurn? When the game is over, what value is in whoseTurn?

**18.19** What happens when the user clicks on an empty cell if the game is not over? What happens when the user clicks on an empty cell if the game is over?

**18.20** How does the program check whether a player wins? How does the program check whether all cells are filled?

**18.21** Delete super.paintComponent(g) on line 97 in TicTacToe.java in Listing 18.10 and run the program to see what happens.

### 18.10 Locating Resources Using the URL Class

*You can use the URL class to load a resource file for an applet, as long as the resource file is located in the applet’s class directory.*

You have used the ImageIcon class to create an icon from an image file and used the setIcon method or the constructor to place the icon in a GUI component, such as a button or a label. For example, the following statements create an ImageIcon and set it on a JLabel object jlb1:

```java
ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon("c:\book\image\us.gif");
jlb1.setIcon(imageIcon);
```

This approach presents a problem. The file location is fixed, because it uses the absolute file path on the Windows platform. As a result, the program cannot run on other platforms and cannot run as an applet. Assume that image/us.gif is under the class directory. You can circumvent this problem by using a relative path as follows:

```java
ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon("image/us.gif");
```

This works fine with Java applications on all platforms but not with Java applets, because applets cannot load local files. To enable it to work with both applications and applets, you need to locate the file’s URL (Uniform Resource Locator).
The `java.net.URL` class was used to locate a text file on the Internet in Section 14.13. It can also be used to locate image files and audio files on the Internet. In general, a `URL` object is a pointer to a “resource” on a local machine or a remote host. A resource can be a file or a directory.

The `URL` class can be used to locate a resource file from a class in a way that is independent of the file’s location, as long as the resource file is located in the class directory. Recall that the class directory is where the class is stored. To obtain the `URL` object for a file from a class, use the following statement in the applet or application:

```java
Class metaObject = this.getClass();
URL url = metaObject.getResource(resourceFilename);
```

You can now create an `ImageIcon` using

```java
ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon(url);
```

Listing 18.11 gives the code that displays an image from `image/us.gif` in the class directory. The file `image/us.gif` is under the class directory, and its `URL` object is obtained using the `getResource` method (line 5). A label with an image icon is created in line 6. The image icon is obtained from the `URL` object.

**LISTING 18.11  DisplayImageWithURL.java**

```java
1 import javax.swing.*;
2 3 public class DisplayImageWithURL extends JApplet {
```
18.11 Playing Audio in Any Java Program

The Applet class contains the methods for obtaining an AudioClip object for an audio file. The AudioClip object contains the methods for playing audio files.

There are several formats for audio files. Java programs can play audio files in the WAV, AIFF, MIDI, AU, and RMF formats.

To play an audio file in Java (application or applet), first create an audio clip object for the file. The audio clip is created once and can be played repeatedly without reloading the file. To create an audio clip, use the static method newAudioClip() in the java.applet.Applet class:

    AudioClip audioClip = Applet.newAudioClip(url);

Audio originally could be played only from Java applets. For this reason, the AudioClip interface is in the java.applet package. Since JDK 1.2, audio can be played in any Java program.

The following statements, for example, create an AudioClip for the beep.au audio file in the class directory:

    Class metaObject = this.getClass();
    URL url = metaObject.getResource("beep.au");
    AudioClip audioClip = Applet.newAudioClip(url);

If you replace the code in lines 5–6 with the following code,

    add(new JLabel(new ImageIcon("image/us.gif")));

you can still run the program as a standalone application, but not as an applet from a browser, as shown in Figure 18.13.

![Figure 18.13](image-url)

**Figure 18.13** The applet loads an image from an image file located in the same directory as the applet.

18.22 How do you create a URL object for the file image/us.gif in the class directory?
18.23 How do you create an ImageIcon from the file image/us.gif in the class directory?
To manipulate a sound for an audio clip, use the `play()`, `loop()`, and `stop()` methods in `java.applet.AudioClip`, as shown in Figure 18.14.

![Interface](java.applet.AudioClip)

- `play()`: Starts playing this audio clip. Each time this method is called, the clip is restarted from the beginning.
- `loop()`: Plays the clip repeatedly.
- `stop()`: Stops playing the clip.

**Figure 18.14** The `AudioClip` interface provides the methods for playing sound.

Listing 18.12 gives the code that displays the Danish flag and plays the Danish national anthem repeatedly. The image file `image/denmark.gif` and audio file `audio/denmark.mid` are stored under the class directory. Line 12 obtains the URL object for the audio file, line 13 creates an audio clip for the file, and line 14 repeatedly plays the audio.

### Listing 18.12 DisplayImagePlayAudio.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.net.URL;
import java.applet.*;

public class DisplayImagePlayAudio extends JApplet {

private AudioClip audioClip;

get image URL
create a label

public DisplayImagePlayAudio() {

    URL urlForImage = getClass().getResource("image/denmark.gif");
    add(new JLabel(new ImageIcon(urlForImage)));

    get audio URL
create an audio clip
play audio repeatedly

    URL urlForAudio = getClass().getResource("audio/denmark.mid");
    audioClip = Applet.newAudioClip(urlForAudio);
    audioClip.loop();
}

@Override
public void start() {

    if (audioClip != null) audioClip.loop();
}

@Override
public void stop() {

    if (audioClip != null) audioClip.stop();
}

main method omitted
```

The `stop` method (lines 23–25) stops the audio when the applet is not displayed, and the `start` method (lines 18–20) restarts the audio when the applet is redisplayed. Try to run this applet without the `stop` and `start` methods from a browser and observe the effect.

Run this program as a standalone application from the main method and from a Web browser to test it. Recall that, for brevity, the `main` method in all applets is not printed in the text.

- **Check Point 18.24** What types of audio files are used in Java?
- **Check Point 18.25** How do you create an audio clip from the file `anthem/us.mid` in the class directory?
- **Check Point 18.26** How do you play, repeatedly play, and stop an audio clip?
18.12 Case Study: National Flags and Anthems

This case study presents an applet that displays a nation’s flag and plays its anthem.

The images in the applet are for seven national flags, named flag0.gif, flag1.gif, ..., flag6.gif for Denmark, Germany, China, India, Norway, the U.K., and the U.S. They are stored under the image directory in the class path. The audio consists of national anthems for these seven nations, named anthem0.mid, anthem1.mid, ..., and anthem6.mid. They are stored under the audio directory in the class path.

The program enables the user to select a nation from a combo box and then displays its flag and plays its anthem. The user can suspend the audio by clicking the Suspend button and resume it by clicking the Resume button, as shown in Figure 18.15.

Figure 18.15 The applet displays a sequence of images and plays audio.

The program is given in Listing 18.13.

Listing 18.13 FlagAnthem.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.applet.*;

public class FlagAnthem extends JApplet {

    private final static int NUMBER_OF_NATIONS = 7;
    private int current = 0;
    private ImageIcon[] icons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
    private AudioClip[] audioClips = new AudioClip[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
    private AudioClip currentAudioClip;

    private JLabel jlblImageLabel = new JLabel();
    private JButton jbtnResume = new JButton("Resume");
    private JButton jbtnSuspend = new JButton("Suspend");
    private JComboBox jcboNations = new JComboBox(new Object[]
        {"Denmark", "Germany", "China", "India", "Norway", "UK", "US"});

    public FlagAnthem() {
        // Load image icons and audio clips
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_NATIONS; i++) {
            icons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/flag" + i + ".gif"));
            audioClips[i] = Applet.newAudioClip(getClass().getResource("audio/anthem" + i + ".mid"));
        }
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
```

Audio and image

VideoNote

Audio and image

Key Point

Audio and image

GUI components

create icons

create audio clips

create UI

Audio and image
A label is created in line 13 to display a flag image. An array of flag images for seven nations is created in lines 22–23. An array of audio clips is created in lines 24–25. The image files and audio files are stored in the same directory as the applet class file so these files can be located using the `getResource` method.

The combo box for country names is created in lines 16–17. When a new country name in the combo box is selected, the current presentation is stopped and a new selected nation is presented (lines 51–53).
The `presentNation(index)` method (lines 63–68) presents a nation with the specified index. It sets a new image in the label (line 64), synchronizes with the combo box by setting the selected index (line 65), and plays the new audio (line 67).

The applet’s `start` and `stop` methods are overridden to resume and suspend the audio (lines 70–78).

18.27 Which code sets the initial image icon? Which code plays the initial audio clip?
18.28 What does the program do when the Suspend button is clicked? What does the program do when the Resume button is clicked?

### Key Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Page</th>
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<td>applet</td>
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<td>signed applet</td>
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<tr>
<td>tag</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Chapter Summary

1. `JApplet` is a subclass of `Applet`. It is used for developing Java applets with Swing components.

2. The applet class file must be specified, using the `<applet>` tag in an HTML file to tell the Web browser where to find the applet. The applet can accept string parameters from HTML using the `<param>` tag.

3. The `applet container` controls and executes applets through the `init`, `start`, `stop`, and `destroy` methods in the `Applet` class.

4. When an applet is loaded, the applet container creates an instance of it by invoking its no-arg constructor. The `init` method is invoked after the applet is created. The `start` method is invoked after the `init` method. It is also called whenever the applet becomes active again after the page containing the applet is revisited. The `stop` method is invoked when the applet becomes inactive.

5. The `destroy` method is invoked when the browser exits normally to inform the applet that it is no longer needed and should release any resources it has allocated. The `stop` method is always called before the `destroy` method.

6. Applications and applets are very similar. An applet can easily be converted into an application, and vice versa. Moreover, an applet can be written with a `main` method to run standalone.

7. You can pass arguments to an applet using the `param` attribute in the applet’s tag in HTML. To retrieve the value of the parameter, invoke the `getParameter(paramName)` method.

8. The `Applet`’s `getParameter` method can be invoked only after an instance of the applet is created. Therefore, this method cannot be invoked in the constructor of the applet class. You should invoke this method from the `init` method.

9. You learned how to incorporate images and audio in Java applications and applets. To load audio and images for Java applications and applets, you have to create a URL object for the audio and image file. The resource files must be stored in the class directory.
10. To play an audio, create an audio clip from the URL object for the audio source. You can use the AudioClip’s play() method to play it once, the loop() method to play it repeatedly, and the stop() method to stop it.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

*Pedagogical Note*

For every applet in the exercise, add a main method to enable it to run as a stand-alone application.

**Sections 18.2–18.6**

18.1 *(Loan calculator)* Revise Listing 16.7, LoanCalculator.java, to be an applet for computing loan payment.

18.2 *(Convert applications to applets)* Rewrite ClockAnimation in Listing 16.12 as an applet and enable it to run standalone.

*18.3 *(Guess capitals and states)* Revise Programming Exercise 9.17 to write an applet that repeatedly prompts the user to enter a capital for a state or vice versa, as shown in Figure 18.16a. Upon clicking the Answer button, the program gets the user input from the text field, reports whether the answer is correct in a message dialog box (Figure 18.16b–c), shows the correct count and total count, and then displays the next question. The user can specify whether to let the program generate a question randomly or sequentially, and whether to generate questions for a capital or a state.

![Figure 18.16](image)

(a) (b) (c)

**Figure 18.16** The applet tests the user knowledge on states and capitals.

*18.4 *(Pass strings to applets)* Rewrite Listing 18.5, DisplayMessage.java, to display a message with a standard color, font, and size. The message, x, y, color, fontname, and fontsize are parameters in the <applet> tag, as shown below:

```
<applet
code = "Exercise18_04.class"
width = 200
height = 50
alt = "You must have a Java-enabled browser to view the applet"
>
<param name = MESSAGE value = "Welcome to Java" />
<param name = X value = 40 />
<param name = Y value = 50 />
<param name = COLOR value = "red" />
```
**18.5** (Game: a clock learning tool) Develop a clock applet to show a first-grade student how to read a clock. Modify Programming Exercise 13.19 to display a detailed clock with an hour hand and a minute hand in an applet, as shown in Figure 18.17a. The hour and minute values are randomly generated. The hour is between 0 and 11, and the minute is 0, 15, 30, or 45. Upon a mouse click, a new random time is displayed on the clock.

**18.6** (Game: tic-tac-toe) Rewrite the program in Listing 18.10 TicTacToe.java with the following modifications:

- Define Cell as a separate class rather than an inner class.
- Add a button named New Game, as shown in Figure 18.17b. Clicking the New Game button starts a new game.

**18.7** (Financial application: tax calculator) Create an applet to compute tax, as shown in Figure 18.17c. The applet lets the user select the tax status and enter the taxable income to compute the tax based on the 2001 federal tax rates, as shown in Programming Exercise 10.8.

**18.8** (Create a calculator) Use various panels of FlowLayout, GridLayout, and BorderLayout to lay out the following calculator and to implement addition (+), subtraction (−), division (/), square root (sqrt), and modulus (%) functions (see Figure 18.18a).

**Figure 18.17** (a) Upon a mouse click on the clock, the clock time is randomly displayed. (b) Clicking the New Game button starts a new game. (c) The tax calculator computes the tax for the specified taxable income and tax status.

**Figure 18.18** (a) Exercise 18.8 is a Java implementation of a popular calculator. (b) Exercise 18.9 converts between decimal, hex, and binary numbers.
18.9  
*(Convert numbers)* Write an applet that converts between decimal, hex, and binary numbers, as shown in Figure 18.18b. When you enter a decimal value in the decimal-value text field and press the *Enter* key, its corresponding hex and binary numbers are displayed in the other two text fields. Likewise, you can enter values in the other fields and convert them accordingly.

18.10  
**(Repaint a partial area)** When you repaint the entire viewing area of a panel, sometimes only a tiny portion of the viewing area is changed. You can improve the performance by repainting only the affected area, but do not invoke `super.paintComponent(g)` when repainting the panel, because this will cause the entire viewing area to be cleared. Use this approach to write an applet to display the temperatures of each hour during the last 24 hours in a histogram. Suppose that temperatures between 50 and 90 degrees Fahrenheit are obtained randomly and are updated every hour. The temperature of the current hour needs to be redisplayed, while the others remain unchanged. Use a unique color to highlight the temperature for the current hour (see Figure 18.19a).

18.11  
**(Simulation: a running fan)** Write a Java applet that simulates a running fan, as shown in Figure 18.19b. The buttons *Start*, *Stop*, and *Reverse* control the fan. The scrollbar controls the fan’s speed. Create a class named `Fan`, a subclass of `JPanel`, to display the fan. This class also contains the methods to suspend and resume the fan, set its speed, and reverse its direction. Create a class named `FanControl` that contains a fan, and three buttons and a scroll bar to control the fan. Create a Java applet that contains an instance of `FanControl`.

18.12  
**(Control a group of fans)** Write a Java applet that displays three fans in a group, with control buttons to start and stop all of them, as shown in Figure 18.20.

18.13  
****(Create an elevator simulator)* Write an applet that simulates an elevator going up and down (see Figure 18.21). The buttons on the left indicate the floor where the passenger is now located. The passenger must click a button on the left to
request that the elevator come to his or her floor. On entering the elevator, the passenger clicks a button on the right to request that it go to the specified floor.

**18.14 (Control a group of clocks)** Write a Java applet that displays three clocks in a group, with control buttons to start and stop all of them, as shown in Figure 18.22.

![Figure 18.22](image)

**Figure 18.22** Three clocks run independently with individual control and group control.

**Sections 18.10–18.12**

**18.15 (Enlarge and shrink an image)** Write an applet that will display a sequence of images from a single image file in different sizes. Initially, the viewing area for this image has a width of 300 and a height of 300. Your program should continuously shrink the viewing area by 1 in width and 1 in height until it reaches a width of 50 and a height of 50. At that point, the viewing area should continuously enlarge by 1 in width and 1 in height until it reaches a width of 300 and a height of 300. The viewing area should shrink and enlarge (alternately) to create animation for the single image.

**18.16 (Simulate a stock ticker)** Write a Java applet that displays a stock-index ticker (see Figure 18.23). The stock-index information is passed from the `<param>` tag in the HTML file. Each index has four parameters: Index Name (e.g., S&P

![Figure 18.23](image)

**Figure 18.23** The program displays a stock-index ticker.
**18.17** (Racing cars) Write an applet that simulates four cars racing, as shown in Figure 18.24a. You can set the speed for each car, with maximum 100.

**18.18** (Show national flags) Write an applet that introduces national flags, one after the other, by presenting each one’s photo, name, and description (see Figure 18.24b) along with audio that reads the description. Suppose your applet displays the flags of eight countries. Assume that the photo image files, named flag0.gif, flag1.gif, and so on, up to flag7.gif, are stored in a subdirectory named image in the applet’s directory. The length of each audio is less than 10 seconds. Assume that the name and description of each country’s flag are passed from the HTML using the parameters name0, name1, ..., name7, and description0, description1, ..., and description7. Pass the number of countries as an HTML parameter using numberOfCountries. Here is an example:

```html
<param name = "numberOfCountries" value = 8>
<param name = "name0" value = "Canada">
<param name = "description0" value = "The Canadian ... ">
```

**Hint**
Use the DescriptionPanel class to display the image, name, and the text. The DescriptionPanel class was introduced in Listing 17.2.

**18.19** (Bouncing balls) The example in Section 18.8 simulates a bouncing ball. Extend the example to allow multiple balls, as shown in Figure 18.25a. You can use the + I or – I button to increase or decrease the number of the balls, and use the Suspend and Resume buttons to freeze the balls or resume bouncing. For each ball, assign a random color.
Programming Exercises

(a) The applet allows you to add or remove bouncing balls. (b) Click Play to play an audio clip once, click Loop to play an audio repeatedly, and click Stop to terminate playing.

**18.20 (Play, loop, and stop a sound clip) Write an applet that meets the following requirements:

- Get an audio file from the class directory.
- Place three buttons labeled Play, Loop, and Stop, as shown in Figure 18.25b.
- If you click the Play button, the audio file is played once. If you click the Loop button, the audio file keeps playing repeatedly. If you click the Stop button, the playing stops.
- The applet can run as an application.

**18.21 (Create an alarm clock) Write an applet that will display a digital clock with a large display panel that shows the hour, minute, and second. This clock should allow the user to set an alarm. Figure 18.26a shows an example of such a clock. To turn on the alarm, check the Alarm check box. To specify the alarm time, click the Set alarm button to display a new frame, as shown in Figure 18.26b. You can set the alarm time in the frame.

**18.22 (Create an image animator with audio) Create animation using the applet shown in Figure 18.27 to meet the following requirements:

- Allow the user to specify the animation speed in a text field.
- Get the number of frames and the image’s file-name prefix from the user. For example, if the user enters n for the number of frames and L for the image prefix, then the files are L1, L2, and so on, to Ln. Assume that the images are stored in the image directory, a subdirectory of the applet’s directory.
- Allow the user to specify an audio file name. The audio file is stored in the same directory as the applet. The sound is played while the animation runs.
Figure 18.27 This applet lets the user select image files, an audio file, and the animation speed.

**18.23** *(Simulation: raise flag and play anthem)* Create an applet that displays a flag rising up, as shown in Figure 16.1b–d. As the national flag rises, play the national anthem. (You may use a flag image and anthem audio file from Listing 18.13.)

Comprehensive

***18.24** *(Game: bean-machine animation)* Write an applet that enhances the bean machine animation in Programming Exercise 16.22. The applet lets you set the number of slots, as shown in Figure 18.28. Click *Start* to start or restart the animation and click *Stop* to stop.

Figure 18.28 The applet controls a bean-machine animation.

**18.25** *(Game: guess birthdays)* Listing 3.3, GuessBirthday.java, gives a program for guessing a birthday. Create an applet for guessing birthdays as shown in Figure 18.29. The applet prompts the user to check whether the date is in any of the five sets. The date is displayed in the text field upon clicking the *Guess Birthday* button.

***18.26** *(Game: math quiz)* Listing 3.1, AdditionQuiz.java, and Listing 3.4, SubtractionQuiz.java, generate and grade math quizzes. Write an applet that allows
the user to select a question type and difficulty level, as shown in Figure 18.30a. When the user clicks the Start button, the program begins to generate a question. After the user enters an answer with the Enter key, a new question is displayed. When the user clicks the Start button, the elapsed time is displayed. The time is updated every second until the Stop button is clicked. The correct count is updated whenever a correct answer is made.

***18.27 (Graphs) A graph consists of vertices and edges that connect vertices. Write a program that enables the user to draw vertices and edges dynamically, as shown in Figure 18.31. The radius of each vertex is 20 pixels. Implement the following functions: (1) The user clicks the left-mouse button to place a vertex centered at the mouse point, provided that the mouse point is not inside or too
close to an existing vertex. (2) The user clicks the right-mouse button inside an existing vertex to remove the vertex. (3) The user presses a mouse button inside a vertex and drags to another vertex and then releases the button to create an edge. (4) The user drags a vertex while pressing the CTRL key to move a vertex.

**18.28** (Geometry: two circles intersect?) The Circle2D class was defined in Programming Exercise 10.11. Write an applet that enables the user to specify the location and size of the circles and displays whether the two circles intersect, as shown in Figure 18.32a. Enable the user to point the mouse inside a circle and drag it. As the circle is being dragged, the circle’s center coordinates in the text fields are updated.

**18.29** (Geometry: two rectangles intersect?) The MyRectangle2D class was defined in Programming Exercise 10.13. Write an applet that enables the user to specify the location and size of the rectangles and displays whether the two rectangles intersect, as shown in Figure 18.32b. Enable the user to point the mouse inside a rectangle and drag it. As the rectangle is being dragged, the rectangle’s center coordinates in the text fields are updated.

**18.30** (Geometry: two triangles intersect?) The Triangle2D class was defined in Programming Exercise 10.12. Write an applet that enables the user to specify the location of the two triangles and displays whether the two triangles intersect, as shown in Figure 18.32c.

**18.31** (Count-up stopwatch) Write an applet that simulates a stopwatch, as shown in Figure 18.33a. When the user clicks the Start button, the button’s label

---

**Figure 18.32** Check whether two circles, two rectangles, and two triangles are overlapping.

**Figure 18.33** (a)–(c) The applet counts up the time. (d) The applet counts down the time.
Programming Exercises

*18.32  (Count-down stopwatch) Write an applet that allows the user to enter time in seconds in the text field and press the Enter key to count down the minutes, as shown in Figure 18.33(d). The remaining seconds are redisplayed every one second. When the minutes are expired, the program starts to play music continuously.

**18.33  (Pattern recognition: consecutive four equal numbers) Write an applet for Programming Exercise 7.19, as shown in Figure 18.34a–b. Let the user enter the numbers in the text fields in a grid of 6 rows and 7 columns. The user can click the Solve button to highlight a sequence of four equal numbers, if it exists.

***18.34  (Game: connect four) Programming Exercise 7.20 enables two players to play the connect-four game on the console. Rewrite the program using an applet, as shown in Figure 18.34c. The applet enables two players to place red and yellow discs in turn. To place a disk, the player needs to click on an available cell. An available cell is unoccupied and its downward neighbor is occupied. The applet flashes the four winning cells if a player wins and reports no winners if all cells are occupied with no winners.

***18.35  (Game: play connect four with computer) Revise Exercise 18.34 to play the game with the computer. The program lets the user make a move first, followed by a move by the computer. The minimum requirement is for the computer to make a legal move. You are encouraged to design good strategies for the computer to make intelligent moves.

**18.36  (Geometry: display angles) Write a program that enables the user to drag the vertices of a triangle and displays the angles dynamically as the triangle shape changes, as shown in Figure 18.35a. Change the mouse cursor to the cross-hair shape when the mouse is moved close to a vertex. The formula to compute angles A, B, and C are as follows (see Figure 18.35b):

\[
A = \text{Math.acos}((a * a - b * b - c * c) / (-2 * b * c)) \\
B = \text{Math.acos}((b * b - a * a - c * c) / (-2 * a * c)) \\
C = \text{Math.acos}((c * c - b * b - a * a) / (-2 * a * b))
\]
**18.37**  
*(Geometry: intersecting point)* Write a program that displays two line segments with their end points, and their intersecting point. Initially, the end points are at \((20, 20)\) and \((56, 130)\) for line 1 and at \((100, 20)\) and \((16, 130)\) for line 2. The user can use the mouse to drag a point and dynamically display the intersecting point, as shown in Figure 18.35c. *Hint:* See Programming Exercise 3.25 for finding the intersecting point of two unbounded lines.
Binary I/O

Objectives

- To discover how I/O is processed in Java (§19.2).
- To distinguish between text I/O and binary I/O (§19.3).
- To read and write bytes using FileInputStream and FileOutputStream (§19.4.1).
- To filter data using the base classes FilterInputStream and FilterOutputStream (§19.4.2).
- To read and write primitive values and strings using DataInputStream and DataOutputStream (§19.4.3).
- To improve I/O performance by using BufferedInputStream and BufferedOutputStream (§19.4.4).
- To write a program that copies a file (§19.5).
- To store and restore objects using ObjectOutputStream and ObjectInputStream (§19.6).
- To implement the Serializable interface to make objects serializable (§19.6.1).
- To serialize arrays (§19.6.2).
- To read and write files using the RandomAccessFile class (§19.7).
19.1 Introduction

Java provides many classes for performing text I/O and binary I/O.

Files can be classified as either text or binary. A file that can be processed (read, created, or modified) using a text editor such as Notepad on Windows or vi on UNIX is called a text file. All the other files are called binary files. You cannot read binary files using a text editor—they are designed to be read by programs. For example, Java source programs are stored in text files and can be read by a text editor, but Java class files are stored in binary files and are read by the JVM.

Although it is not technically precise and correct, you can envision a text file as consisting of a sequence of characters and a binary file as consisting of a sequence of bits. Characters in a text file are encoded using a character encoding scheme such as ASCII or Unicode. For example, the decimal integer 199 is stored as the sequence of the three characters 1, 9, 9 in a text file, and the same integer is stored as a byte-type value C7 in a binary file, because decimal 199 equals hex C7 (199 = 12 × 16 + 7). The advantage of binary files is that they are more efficient to process than text files.

Java offers many classes for performing file input and output. These can be categorized as text I/O classes and binary I/O classes. In Section 14.11, File Input and Output, you learned how to read and write strings and numeric values from/to a text file using Scanner and PrintWriter. This chapter introduces the classes for performing binary I/O.

19.2 How Is Text I/O Handled in Java?

Text data is read using the Scanner class and written using the PrintWriter class.

Recall that a File object encapsulates the properties of a file or a path but does not contain the methods for reading/writing data from/to a file. In order to perform I/O, you need to create objects using appropriate Java I/O classes. The objects contain the methods for reading/writing data from/to a file. For example, to write text to a file named temp.txt, you can create an object using the PrintWriter class as follows:

```java
PrintWriter output = new PrintWriter("temp.txt");
```

You can now invoke the print method on the object to write a string to the file. For example, the following statement writes Java 101 to the file.

```java
output.print("Java 101");
```

The next statement closes the file.

```java
output.close();
```

There are many I/O classes for various purposes. In general, these can be classified as input classes and output classes. An input class contains the methods to read data, and an output class contains the methods to write data. PrintWriter is an example of an output class, and Scanner is an example of an input class. The following code creates an input object for the file temp.txt and reads data from the file.

```java
Scanner input = new Scanner(new File("temp.txt"));
System.out.println(input.nextLine());
```

If temp.txt contains the text Java 101, input.nextLine() returns the string "Java 101".

Figure 19.1 illustrates Java I/O programming. An input object reads a stream of data from a file, and an output object writes a stream of data to a file. An input object is also called an input stream and an output object an output stream.
19.3 Text I/O vs. Binary I/O

*Binary I/O does not involve encoding or decoding and thus is more efficient than text I/O.*

Computers do not differentiate between binary files and text files. All files are stored in binary format, and thus all files are essentially binary files. Text I/O is built upon binary I/O to provide a level of abstraction for character encoding and decoding, as shown in Figure 19.2a. Encoding and decoding are automatically performed for text I/O. The JVM converts Unicode to a file-specific encoding when writing a character, and it converts a file-specific encoding to Unicode when reading a character. For example, suppose you write the string "199" using text I/O to a file. Each character is written to the file. Since the Unicode for character 1 is 0x0031, the Unicode 0x0031 is converted to a code that depends on the encoding scheme for the file. (Note that the prefix 0x denotes a hex number.) In the United States, the default encoding for text files on Windows is ASCII. The ASCII code for character 1 is 49 (0x31) in...
hex) and for character 9 is 57 (0x39 in hex). Thus, to write the characters 199, three bytes—0x31, 0x39, and 0x39—are sent to the output, as shown in Figure 19.2a.

Binary I/O does not require conversions. If you write a numeric value to a file using binary I/O, the exact value in the memory is copied into the file. For example, a byte-type value 199 is represented as 0xC7 (199 = 12 × 16^1 + 7) in the memory and appears exactly as 0xC7 in the file, as shown in Figure 19.2b. When you read a byte using binary I/O, one byte value is read from the input.

In general, you should use text input to read a file created by a text editor or a text output program, and use binary input to read a file created by a Java binary output program.

Binary I/O is more efficient than text I/O, because binary I/O does not require encoding and decoding. Binary files are independent of the encoding scheme on the host machine and thus are portable. Java programs on any machine can read a binary file created by a Java program. This is why Java class files are binary files. Java class files can run on a JVM on any machine.

Note
For consistency, this book uses the extension .txt to name text files and .dat to name binary files.

19.3 What are the differences between text I/O and binary I/O?
19.4 How is a Java character represented in the memory, and how is a character represented in a text file?
19.5 If you write the string "ABC" to an ASCII text file, what values are stored in the file?
19.6 If you write the string "100" to an ASCII text file, what values are stored in the file? If you write a numeric byte-type value 100 using binary I/O, what values are stored in the file?
19.7 What is the encoding scheme for representing a character in a Java program? By default, what is the encoding scheme for a text file on Windows?

19.4 Binary I/O Classes

The abstract InputStream is the root class for reading binary data and the abstract OutputStream is the root class for writing binary data.

The design of the Java I/O classes is a good example of applying inheritance, where common operations are generalized in superclasses, and subclasses provide specialized operations. Figure 19.3 lists some of the classes for performing binary I/O. InputStream is the root for

![Diagram of I/O classes](image)
19.4 Binary I/O Classes

The abstract `java.io.InputStream` class defines the methods for the input stream of bytes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>+read()</code>: int</td>
<td>Reads the next byte of data from the input stream. The value byte is returned as an int value in the range 0 to 255. If no byte is available because the end of the stream has been reached, the value –1 is returned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+read(b: byte[])</code>: int</td>
<td>Reads up to <code>b.length</code> bytes into array <code>b</code> from the input stream and returns the actual number of bytes read. Returns –1 at the end of the stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+read(b: byte[], off: int, len: int)</code>: int</td>
<td>Reads bytes from the input stream and stores them in <code>b[off]</code>, <code>b[off+1]</code>, . . . , <code>b[off+len-1]</code>. The actual number of bytes read is returned. Returns –1 at the end of the stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+available()</code>: int</td>
<td>Returns an estimate of the number of bytes that can be read from the input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+close()</code>: void</td>
<td>Closes this input stream and releases any system resources occupied by it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+skip(n: long)</code>: long</td>
<td>Skips over and discards <code>n</code> bytes of data from this input stream. The actual number of bytes skipped is returned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+markSupported()</code>: boolean</td>
<td>Tests whether this input stream supports the mark and reset methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+mark(readlimit: int)</code>: void</td>
<td>Marks the current position in this input stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+reset()</code>: void</td>
<td>Repositions this stream to the position at the time the mark method was last called on this input stream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 19.4** The abstract `InputStream` class defines the methods for the input stream of bytes.

Note

All the methods in the binary I/O classes are declared to throw `java.io.IOException` or a subclass of `java.io.IOException`.

The abstract `java.io.OutputStream` class defines the methods for the output stream of bytes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>+write(int b)</code>: void</td>
<td>Writes the specified byte to this output stream. The parameter <code>b</code> is an int value. (byte)<code>b</code> is written to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+write(b: byte[])</code>: void</td>
<td>Writes all the bytes in array <code>b</code> to the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+write(b: byte[], off: int, len: int)</code>: void</td>
<td>Writes <code>b[off]</code>, <code>b[off+1]</code>, . . . , <code>b[off+len-1]</code> into the output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+close()</code>: void</td>
<td>Closes this output stream and releases any system resources occupied by it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+flush()</code>: void</td>
<td>Flushes this output stream and forces any buffered output bytes to be written out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 19.5** The abstract `OutputStream` class defines the methods for the output stream of bytes.

### 19.4.1 FileInputStream/FileOutputStream

`FileInputStream/FileOutputStream` is for reading/writing bytes from/to files. All the methods in these classes are inherited from `InputStream` and `OutputStream`. `FileInputStream/FileOutputStream` does not introduce new methods. To construct a `FileInputStream`, use the constructors shown in Figure 19.6.

A `java.io.FileNotFoundException` will occur if you attempt to create a `FileInputStream` with a nonexistent file.

To construct a `FileOutputStream`, use the constructors shown in Figure 19.7.

If the file does not exist, a new file will be created. If the file already exists, the first two constructors will delete the current content of the file. To retain the current content and append new data into the file, use the last two constructors and pass `true` to the `append` parameter.
Almost all the methods in the I/O classes throw `java.io.IOException`. Therefore, you have to declare `java.io.IOException` to throw in the method or place the code in a try-catch block, as shown below:

```
public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
    // Perform I/O operations
}
```  

Listing 19.1 uses binary I/O to write ten byte values from 1 to 10 to a file named `temp.dat` and reads them back from the file.

**Listing 19.1 TestFileStream.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class TestFileStream {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        // Create an output stream to the file
        FileOutputStream output = new FileOutputStream("temp.dat");

        // Output values to the file
        for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++)
            output.write(i);

        // Close the output stream
        output.close();
    }
}
```
19.4 Binary I/O Classes

```java
// Create an input stream for the file
FileInputStream input = new FileInputStream("temp.dat");

// Read values from the file
int value;
while ((value = input.read()) != -1) {
    System.out.print(value + " ");
}

// Close the output stream
input.close();
```

A `FileOutputStream` is created for the file `temp.dat` in line 6. The `for` loop writes ten byte values into the file (lines 9–10). Invoking `write(i)` is the same as invoking `write((byte)i)`. Line 13 closes the output stream. Line 16 creates a `FileInputStream` for the file `temp.dat`. Values are read from the file and displayed on the console in lines 19–21. The expression `((value = input.read()) != -1)` (line 20) reads a byte from `input.read()`, assigns it to `value`, and checks whether it is `-1`. The input value of `-1` signifies the end of a file.

The file `temp.dat` created in this example is a binary file. It can be read from a Java program but not from a text editor, as shown in Figure 19.8.

![Binary data](image)

**Figure 19.8** A binary file cannot be displayed in text mode.

**Tip**
When a stream is no longer needed, always close it using the `close()` method. Not closing streams may cause data corruption in the output file, or other programming errors.

**Note**
The root directory for the file is the classpath directory. For the example in this book, the root directory is `c:\book`, so the file `temp.dat` is located at `c:\book`. If you wish to place `temp.dat` in a specific directory, replace line 6 with

```java
FileOutputStream output = new FileOutputStream("directory/temp.dat");
```

**Note**
An instance of `FileInputStream` can be used as an argument to construct a `Scanner`, and an instance of `FileOutputStream` can be used as an argument to construct a `PrintWriter`. You can create a `PrintWriter` to append text into a file using
new PrintWriter(new FileOutputStream("temp.txt", true));

If temp.txt does not exist, it is created. If temp.txt already exists, new data are appended to the file.

19.4.2 FilterInputStream/FilterOutputStream

Filter streams are streams that filter bytes for some purpose. The basic byte input stream provides a read method that can be used only for reading bytes. If you want to read integers, doubles, or strings, you need a filter class to wrap the byte input stream. Using a filter class enables you to read integers, doubles, and strings instead of bytes and characters. FilterInputStream and FilterOutputStream are the base classes for filtering data. When you need to process primitive numeric types, use DataInputStream and DataOutputStream to filter bytes.

19.4.3 DataInputStream/DataOutputStream

DataInputStream reads bytes from the stream and converts them into appropriate primitive type values or strings. DataOutputStream converts primitive type values or strings into bytes and outputs the bytes to the stream.

DataInputStream extends FilterInputStream and implements the DataInput interface, as shown in Figure 19.9. DataOutputStream extends FilterOutputStream and implements the DataOutput interface, as shown in Figure 19.10.

DataInputStream implements the methods defined in the DataInput interface to read primitive data type values and strings. DataOutputStream implements the methods defined in the DataOutput interface to write primitive data type values and strings. Primitive values are copied from memory to the output without any conversions. Characters in a string may be written in several ways, as discussed in the next section.

Characters and Strings in Binary I/O

A Unicode character consists of two bytes. The writeChar(char c) method writes the Unicode of character c to the output. The writeChars(String s) method writes the Unicode for each character in the string s to the output. The writeBytes(String s) method writes the lower byte of the Unicode for each character in the string s to the output. The high byte of the Unicode is discarded. The writeBytes method is suitable for strings that consist
of ASCII characters, since an ASCII code is stored only in the lower byte of a Unicode. If a string consists of non-ASCII characters, you have to use the `writeChars` method to write the string.

The `writeUTF(String s)` method writes two bytes of length information to the output stream, followed by the modified UTF-8 representation of every character in the string `s`. UTF-8 is a coding scheme that allows systems to operate with both ASCII and Unicode. Most operating systems use ASCII. Java uses Unicode. The ASCII character set is a subset of the Unicode character set. Since most applications need only the ASCII character set, it is a waste to represent an 8-bit ASCII character as a 16-bit Unicode character. The modified UTF-8 scheme stores a character using one, two, or three bytes. Characters are coded in one byte if their code is less than or equal to \(0x7F\), in two bytes if their code is greater than \(0x7F\) and less than or equal to \(0x7FF\), or in three bytes if their code is greater than \(0x7FF\).

The initial bits of a UTF-8 character indicate whether a character is stored in one byte, two bytes, or three bytes. If the first bit is 0, it is a one-byte character. If the first bits are 110, it is the first byte of a two-byte sequence. If the first bits are 1110, it is the first byte of a three-byte sequence. The information that indicates the number of characters in a string is stored in the first two bytes preceding the UTF-8 characters. For example, `writeUTF("ABCDEF")` actually writes eight bytes (i.e., 00 06 41 42 43 44 45 46) to the file, because the first two bytes store the number of characters in the string.

The `writeUTF(String s)` method converts a string into a series of bytes in the UTF-8 format and writes them into an output stream. The `readUTF()` method reads a string that has been written using the `writeUTF` method.

The UTF-8 format has the advantage of saving a byte for each ASCII character, because a Unicode character takes up two bytes and an ASCII character in UTF-8 only one byte. If most of the characters in a long string are regular ASCII characters, using UTF-8 is more efficient.

Creating `DataInputStream/DataOutputStream`

`DataInputStream/DataOutputStream` are created using the following constructors (see Figures 19.9 and 19.10):

```
public DataInputStream(InputStream instream)
public DataOutputStream(OutputStream outstream)
```
The following statements create data streams. The first statement creates an input stream for the file `in.dat`; the second statement creates an output stream for the file `out.dat`.

```java
dataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream("in.dat"));
dataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("out.dat"));
```

Listing 19.2 writes student names and scores to a file named `temp.dat` and reads the data back from the file.

**Listing 19.2  TestDataStream.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class TestDataStream {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        // Create an output stream for file temp.dat
        DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("temp.dat"));

        // Write student test scores to the file
        output.writeUTF("John");
        output.writeDouble(85.5);
        output.writeUTF("Susan");
        output.writeDouble(185.5);
        output.writeUTF("Kim");
        output.writeDouble(105.25);

        // Close output stream
        output.close();

        // Create an input stream for file temp.dat
        DataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream("temp.dat"));

        // Read student test scores from the file
        System.out.println(input.readUTF() + " " + input.readDouble());
        System.out.println(input.readUTF() + " " + input.readDouble());
        System.out.println(input.readUTF() + " " + input.readDouble());
    }
}
```

```
John 85.5
Susan 185.5
Kim 105.25
```

A `DataOutputStream` is created for file `temp.dat` in lines 6–7. Student names and scores are written to the file in lines 10–15. Line 18 closes the output stream. A `DataInputStream` is created for the same file in lines 21–22. Student names and scores are read back from the file and displayed on the console in lines 25–27.

`DataInputStream` and `DataOutputStream` read and write Java primitive type values and strings in a machine-independent fashion, thereby enabling you to write a data file on one machine and read it on another machine that has a different operating system or file structure. An application uses a data output stream to write data that can later be read by a program using a data input stream.
Caution

You have to read data in the same order and format in which they are stored. For example, since names are written in UTF-8 using `writeUTF`, you must read names using `readUTF`.

Detecting the End of a File

If you keep reading data at the end of an `InputStream`, an `EOFException` will occur. This exception can be used to detect the end of a file, as shown in Listing 19.3.

**Listing 19.3 DetectEndOfFile.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class DetectEndOfFile {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            DataOutputStream output =
                new DataOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("test.dat"));
            output.writeDouble(4.5);
            output.writeDouble(43.25);
            output.writeDouble(3.2);
            output.close();

            DataInputStream input =
                new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream("test.dat"));
            while (true) {
                System.out.println(input.readDouble());
            }
        } catch (EOFException ex) {
            System.out.println("All data were read");
        } catch (IOException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}
```

The program writes three double values to the file using `DataOutputStream` (lines 6–10), and reads the data using `DataInputStream` (lines 13–14). When reading past the end of the file, an `EOFException` is thrown. The exception is caught in line 19.

### 19.4.4 BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream

`BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream` can be used to speed up input and output by reducing the number of disk reads and writes. Using `BufferedInputStream`, the whole block of data on the disk is read into the buffer in the memory once. The individual data are then delivered to your program from the buffer, as shown in Figure 19.11a. Using `BufferedOutputStream`, the individual data are first written to the buffer in the memory. When the buffer is full, all data in the buffer is written to the disk once, as shown in Figure 19.11b.
BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream does not contain new methods. All the methods in BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream are inherited from the InputStream/OutputStream classes. BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream manages a buffer behind the scene and automatically reads/writes data from/to disk on demand.

You can wrap a BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream on any InputStream/OutputStream using the constructors shown in Figures 19.12 and 19.13.
If no buffer size is specified, the default size is 512 bytes. You can improve the performance of the `TestDataStream` program in Listing 19.2 by adding buffers in the stream in lines 6–7 and 21–22, as follows:

```java
DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("temp.dat")));
DataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream("temp.dat")));
```

**Tip**
You should always use buffered I/O to speed up input and output. For small files, you may not notice performance improvements. However, for large files—over 100 MB—you will see substantial improvements using buffered I/O.

19.8 Why do you have to declare to throw `IOException` in the method or use a try-catch block to handle `IOException` for Java I/O programs?

19.9 Why should you always close streams?


19.11 Does `FileInputStream/FileOutputStream` introduce any new methods beyond the methods inherited from `InputStream/OutputStream`? How do you create a `FileInputStream/FileOutputStream`?

19.12 What will happen if you attempt to create an input stream on a nonexistent file? What will happen if you attempt to create an output stream on an existing file? Can you append data to an existing file?

19.13 How do you append data to an existing text file using `java.io.PrintWriter`?

19.14 Suppose a file contains an unspecified number of `double` values. Theses values were written to the file using the `writeDouble` method using a `DataOutputStream`. How do you write a program to read all these values? How do you detect the end of a file?

19.15 What is written to a file using `writeByte(91)` on a `FileOutputStream`?

19.16 How do you check the end of a file in an input stream (`FileInputStream`, `DataInputStream`)?

19.17 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
import java.io.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            FileInputStream fis = new FileInputStream("test.dat");
        } catch (IOException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        } catch (FileNotFoundException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}
```

19.18 Suppose you run the program on Windows using the default ASCII encoding. After the program is finished, how many bytes are in the file `t.txt`? Show the contents of each byte.
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```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws java.io.IOException {
        java.io.PrintWriter output = new java.io.PrintWriter("t.txt");
        output.printf("%s", "1234");
        output.printf("%s", "5678");
        output.close();
    }
}
```

19.19 After the program is finished, how many bytes are in the file t.dat? Show the contents of each byte.

```java
import java.io.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("t.dat"));
        output.writeInt(1234);
        output.writeInt(5678);
        output.close();
    }
}
```

19.20 For each of the following statements on a `DataOutputStream output`, how many bytes are sent to the output?

```java
        output.writeChar('A');
        output.writeChars("BC");
        output.writeUTF("DEF");
```

19.21 What are the advantages of using buffered streams? Are the following statements correct?

```java
        BufferedInputStream input1 = new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream("t.dat"));

        DataInputStream input2 = new DataInputStream(new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream("t.dat")));

        ObjectInputStream input3 = new ObjectInputStream(new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream("t.dat")));
```

19.5 Case Study: Copying Files

This section develops a useful utility for copying files.

In this section, you will learn how to write a program that lets users copy files. The user needs to provide a source file and a target file as command-line arguments using the command:

```
java Copy source target
```

The program copies the source file to the target file and displays the number of bytes in the file. The program should alert the user if the source file does not exist or if the target file already exists. A sample run of the program is shown in Figure 19.14.
19.5 Case Study: Copying Files

To copy the contents from a source file to a target file, it is appropriate to use an input stream to read bytes from the source file and an output stream to send bytes to the target file, regardless of the file’s contents. The source file and the target file are specified from the command line. Create an `InputFileStream` for the source file and an `OutputFileStream` for the target file. Use the `read()` method to read a byte from the input stream, and then use the `write(b)` method to write the byte to the output stream. Use `BufferedInputStream` and `BufferedOutputStream` to improve the performance. Listing 19.4 gives the solution to the problem.

**Listing 19.4 Copy.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class Copy {
    /** Main method */
    @param args[0] for source file
    @param args[1] for target file
    */
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        // Check command-line parameter usage
        if (args.length != 2) {
            System.out.println("Usage: java Copy sourceFile targetFile");
            System.exit(1);
        }

        // Check whether source file exists
        File sourceFile = new File(args[0]);
        if (!sourceFile.exists()) {
            System.out.println("Source file " + args[0] + " does not exist");
            System.exit(2);
        }

        // Check whether target file exists
        File targetFile = new File(args[1]);
        if (targetFile.exists()) {
            System.out.println("Target file " + args[1] + " already exists");
            System.exit(3);
        }

        // Create an input stream
        BufferedInputStream input =
```
The program first checks whether the user has passed the two required arguments from the command line in lines 10–14.

The program uses the `File` class to check whether the source file and target file exist. If the source file does not exist (lines 18–22) or if the target file already exists (lines 25–30), the program ends.

An input stream is created using `BufferedInputStream` wrapped on `FileInputStream` in lines 33–34, and an output stream is created using `BufferedOutputStream` wrapped on `FileOutputStream` in lines 37–38.

The expression `((r = input.read()) != -1)` (line 42) reads a byte from `input.read()`, assigns it to `r`, and checks whether it is `-1`. The input value of `-1` signifies the end of a file. The program continuously reads bytes from the input stream and sends them to the output stream until all of the bytes have been read.

**Check Point**

19.22 How does the program check if a file already exists?

19.23 How does the program detect the end of the file while reading data?

19.24 How does the program count the number of bytes read from the file?

**19.6 Object I/O**

`ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream` classes can be used to read/write serializable objects.

`DataInputStream/DataOutputStream` enables you to perform I/O for primitive type values and strings. `ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream` enables you to perform I/O for objects in addition to primitive type values and strings. Since `ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream` contains all the functions of `DataInputStream/DataOutputStream`, you can replace `DataInputStream/DataOutputStream` completely with `ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream`.

`ObjectInputStream` extends `InputStream` and implements `ObjectInput` and `ObjectStreamConstants`, as shown in Figure 19.15. `ObjectInput` is a subinterface of `DataInput` (`DataInput` is shown in Figure 19.9). `ObjectStreamConstants` contains the constants to support `ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream`. 
Object I/O

Reads an object.

java.io.InputStream
java.io.ObjectInputStream
+ObjectInputStream(in: InputStream)
+readObject(): Object

«interface» java.io.DataInput
«interface» java.io.ObjectInput
«interface» ObjectStreamConstants

FIGURE 19.15 ObjectInputStream can read objects, primitive type values, and strings.

ObjectOutputStream extends OutputStream and implements ObjectOutput and ObjectStreamConstants, as shown in Figure 19.16. ObjectOutput is a subinterface of DataOutput (DataOutput is shown in Figure 19.10).

Writes an object.

java.io.OutputStream
java.io.ObjectOutputStream
+ObjectOutputStream(out: OutputStream)
+writeObject(o: Object): void

«interface» java.io.DataOutput
«interface» java.io.ObjectOutput
«interface» ObjectStreamConstants

FIGURE 19.16 ObjectOutputStream can write objects, primitive type values, and strings.

You can wrap an ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream on any InputStream/OutputStream using the following constructors:

// Create an ObjectInputStream
public ObjectInputStream(InputStream in)

// Create an ObjectOutputStream
public ObjectOutputStream(OutputStream out)

Listing 19.5 writes student names, scores, and the current date to a file named object.dat.

LISTING 19.5 TestObjectOutputStream.java

1 import java.io.*;
2
3 public class TestObjectOutputStream {
4    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
5        // Create an output stream for file object.dat
6        ObjectOutputStream output =
7        new ObjectOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("object.dat"));
8
9        // Write a string, double value, and object to the file

    output.writeUTF("John Doe: 89.5, 90.0, 92.0, 95.5, 97.0");
10        output.writeDouble(3.14159);
11        output.writeObject(new Student("Alice Smith", 98.0));
12    }
13    }
14
15    class Student {
16        private String name;
17        private double score;
18
19        public Student(String name, double score) {
20            this.name = name;
21            this.score = score;
22        }
23
24        public String getName() {
25            return name;
26        }
27
28        public double getScore() {
29            return score;
30        }
31    }

An `ObjectOutputStream` is created to write data into the file `object.dat` in lines 6–7. A string, a double value, and an object are written to the file in lines 10–12. To improve performance, you may add a buffer in the stream using the following statement to replace lines 6–7:

```java
ObjectOutputStream output = new ObjectOutputStream(
    new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("object.dat")));
```

Multiple objects or primitives can be written to the stream. The objects must be read back from the corresponding `ObjectInputStream` with the same types and in the same order as they were written. Java’s safe casting should be used to get the desired type. Listing 19.6 reads data from `object.dat`.

**Listing 19.6 TestObjectInputStream.java**

```
import java.io.*;

public class TestObjectInputStream {

    public static void main(String[] args) throws ClassNotFoundException, IOException {

        // Create an input stream for file object.dat
        ObjectInputStream input = new ObjectInputStream(new FileInputStream("object.dat"));

        // Write a string, double value, and object to the file
        String name = input.readUTF();
        double score = input.readDouble();
        java.util.Date date = (java.util.Date)(input.readObject());
        System.out.println(name + "  " + score + "  " + date);

        // Close input stream
        input.close();
    }
}
```

The `readObject()` method may throw `java.langClassNotFoundException`, because when the JVM restores an object, it first loads the class for the object if the class has not been loaded. Since `ClassNotFoundException` is a checked exception, the `main` method declares to throw it in line 5. An `ObjectInputStream` is created to read input from `object.dat` in lines 7–8. You have to read the data from the file in the same order and format as they were written to the file. A string, a double value, and an object are read in lines 11–13. Since `readObject()` returns an `Object`, it is cast into `Date` and assigned to a `Date` variable in line 13.
19.6 Object I/O

19.6.1 The **Serializable** Interface

Not every object can be written to an output stream. Objects that can be so written are said to be **serializable**. A serializable object is an instance of the `java.io.Serializable` interface, so the object’s class must implement `Serializable`.

The **Serializable** interface is a marker interface. Since it has no methods, you don’t need to add additional code in your class that implements `Serializable`. Implementing this interface enables the Java serialization mechanism to automate the process of storing objects and arrays.

To appreciate this automation feature, consider what you otherwise need to do in order to store an object. Suppose you want to store a `JButton` object. To do this you need to store all the current values of the properties (e.g., color, font, text, alignment) in the object. Since `JButton` is a subclass of `AbstractButton`, the property values of `AbstractButton` have to be stored as well as the properties of all the superclasses of `AbstractButton`. If a property is of an object type (e.g., `background` of the `Color` type), storing it requires storing all the property values inside this object. As you can see, this would be a very tedious process. Fortunately, you don’t have to go through it manually. Java provides a built-in mechanism to automate the process of writing objects. This process is referred to as **object serialization**, which is implemented in `ObjectOutputStream`. In contrast, the process of reading objects is referred to as **object deserialization**, which is implemented in `ObjectInputStream`.

Many classes in the Java API implement `Serializable`. The utility classes, such as `java.util.Date`, and all the Swing GUI component classes implement `Serializable`. Attempting to store an object that does not support the `Serializable` interface would cause a `java.io.NotSerializableException`.

When a serializable object is stored, the class of the object is encoded; this includes the class name and the signature of the class, the values of the object’s instance variables, and the closure of any other objects referenced by the object. The values of the object’s static variables are not stored.

**Note**

**nonserializable fields**

If an object is an instance of `Serializable` but contains nonserializable instance data fields, can it be serialized? The answer is no. To enable the object to be serialized, mark these data fields with the `transient` keyword to tell the JVM to ignore them when writing the object to an object stream. Consider the following class:

```
public class C implements java.io.Serializable {
    private int v1;
    private static double v2;
    private transient A v3 = new A();
}

class A { } // A is not serializable
```

When an object of the `C` class is serialized, only variable `v1` is serialized. Variable `v2` is not serialized because it is a static variable, and variable `v3` is not serialized because it is marked `transient`. If `v3` were not marked `transient`, a `java.io.NotSerializableException` would occur.

**Note**

**duplicate objects**

If an object is written to an object stream more than once, will it be stored in multiple copies? No, it will not. When an object is written for the first time, a serial number is created for it. The JVM writes the complete contents of the object along with the serial...
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Binary I/O
number into the object stream. After the first time, only the serial number is stored if the
same object is written again. When the objects are read back, their references are the
same, since only one object is actually created in the memory.

19.6.2

Serializing Arrays

An array is serializable if all its elements are serializable. An entire array can be saved into a
file using writeObject and later can be restored using readObject. Listing 19.7 stores an
array of five int values and an array of three strings and reads them back to display on the
console.

LISTING 19.7 TestObjectStreamForArray.java

output stream

store array

input stream

restore array

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import java.io.*;
public class TestObjectStreamForArray {
public static void main(String[] args)
throws ClassNotFoundException, IOException {
int[] numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
String[] strings = {"John", "Susan", "Kim"};
// Create an output stream for file array.dat
ObjectOutputStream output = new ObjectOutputStream(new
FileOutputStream("array.dat", true));
// Write arrays to the object output stream
output.writeObject(numbers);
output.writeObject(strings);
// Close the stream
output.close();
// Create an input stream for file array.dat
ObjectInputStream input =
new ObjectInputStream(new FileInputStream("array.dat"));
int[] newNumbers = (int[])(input.readObject());
String[] newStrings = (String[])(input.readObject());
// Display arrays
for (int i = 0; i < newNumbers.length; i++)
System.out.print(newNumbers[i] + " ");
System.out.println();
for (int i = 0; i < newStrings.length; i++)
System.out.print(newStrings[i] + " ");
// Close the stream
input.close();
}
}

1 2 3 4 5
John Susan Kim

Lines 14–15 write two arrays into file array.dat. Lines 24–25 read two arrays back in the
same order they were written. Since readObject() returns Object, casting is used to cast
the objects into int[] and String[].


19.25 What types of objects can be stored using the `ObjectOutputStream`? What is the method for writing an object? What is the method for reading an object? What is the return type of the method that reads an object from `ObjectInputStream`?

19.26 If you serialize two objects of the same type, will they take the same amount of space? If not, give an example.

19.27 Is it true that any instance of `java.io.Serializable` can be successfully serialized? Are the static variables in an object serialized? How do you mark an instance variable not to be serialized?

19.28 Can you write an array to an `ObjectOutputStream`?

19.29 Is it true that `DataInputStream/DataOutputStream` can always be replaced by `ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream`?

19.30 What will happen when you attempt to run the following code?

```java
import java.io.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        ObjectOutputStream output =
                new ObjectOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("object.dat"));
        output.writeObject(new A);
    }
}

class A implements Serializable {
    B b = new B();
}

class B {
}
```

19.7 Random-Access Files

Java provides the `RandomAccessFile` class to allow a file to be read from and written to at random locations.

All of the streams you have used so far are known as read-only or write-only streams. The external files of these streams are sequential files that cannot be updated without creating a new file. However, it is often necessary to modify files. Java provides the `RandomAccessFile` class to allow a file to be read from and written to at random locations.

The `RandomAccessFile` class implements the `DataInput` and `DataOutput` interfaces, as shown in Figure 19.17. The `DataInput` interface (see Figure 19.9) defines the methods for reading primitive type values and strings (e.g., `readInt`, `readDouble`, `readChar`, `readBoolean`, `readUTF`), and the `DataOutput` interface (see Figure 19.10) defines the methods for writing primitive type values and strings (e.g., `writeInt`, `writeDouble`, `writeChar`, `writeBoolean`, `writeUTF`).

When creating a `RandomAccessFile`, you can specify one of two modes: `r` or `rw`. Mode `r` means that the stream is read-only, and mode `rw` indicates that the stream allows both read and write. For example, the following statement creates a new stream, `raf`, that allows the program to read from and write to the file `test.dat`:

```java
RandomAccessFile raf = new RandomAccessFile("test.dat", "rw");
```

If `test.dat` already exists, `raf` is created to access it; if `test.dat` does not exist, a new file named `test.dat` is created, and `raf` is created to access the new file. The method `raf.length()` returns the number of bytes in `test.dat` at any given time. If you append new data into the file, `raf.length()` increases.
Chapter 19  Binary I/O

RandomAccessFile

+RandomAccessFile(file: File, mode: String)
+RandomAccessFile(name: String, mode: String)
+close(): void
+getFilePointer(): long
+length(): long
+read(): int
+read(b: byte[]): int
+read(b: byte[], off: int, len: int): int
+seek(pos: long): void
+setLength(newLength: long): void
+skipBytes(int n): int
+write(b: byte[]): void
+write(b: byte[], off: int, len: int): void

java.io.RandomAccessFile

«interface» java.io.DataInput
«interface» java.io.DataOutput

Creates a RandomAccessFile stream with the specified File object and mode.
Creates a RandomAccessFile stream with the specified file name string and mode.
Closes the stream and releases the resource associated with it.
Returns the offset, in bytes, from the beginning of the file to where the next read or write occurs.
Returns the length of this file.
Reads a byte of data from this file and returns –1 at the end of stream.
Reads up to b.length bytes of data from this file into an array of bytes.
Reads up to len bytes of data from this file into an array of bytes.
Sets the offset (in bytes specified in pos) from the beginning of the stream to where the next read or write occurs.
Sets a new length for this file.
Skips over n bytes of input.
Writes b.length bytes from the specified byte array to this file, starting at the current file pointer.
Writes len bytes from the specified byte array, starting at offset off, to this file.

FIGURE 19.17  RandomAccessFile implements the DataInput and DataOutput interfaces with additional methods to support random access.

Tip
If the file is not intended to be modified, open it with the r mode. This prevents unintentional modification of the file.

file pointer

A random-access file consists of a sequence of bytes. A special marker called a file pointer is positioned at one of these bytes. A read or write operation takes place at the location of the file pointer. When a file is opened, the file pointer is set at the beginning of the file. When you read or write data to the file, the file pointer moves forward to the next data item. For example, if you read an int value using readInt(), the JVM reads 4 bytes from the file pointer, and now the file pointer is 4 bytes ahead of the previous location, as shown in Figure 19.18.

For a RandomAccessFile raf, you can use the raf.seek(position) method to move the file pointer to a specified position. raf.seek(0) moves it to the beginning of the file, and raf.seek(raf.length()) moves it to the end of the file. Listing 19.8 demonstrates

FIGURE 19.18  After an int value is read, the file pointer is moved 4 bytes ahead.
RandomAccessFile. A large case study of using RandomAccessFile to organize an address book is given in Supplement VI.B.

**LISTING 19.8 TestRandomAccessFile.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class TestRandomAccessFile {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws IOException {
        // Create a random-access file
        RandomAccessFile inout = new RandomAccessFile("inout.dat", "rw");

        // Clear the file to destroy the old contents, if any
        inout.setLength(0);

        // Write new integers to the file
        for (int i = 0; i < 200; i++)
            inout.writeInt(i);

        // Display the current length of the file
        System.out.println("Current file length is " + inout.length());

        // Retrieve the first number
        inout.seek(0); // Move the file pointer to the beginning
        System.out.println("The first number is " + inout.readInt());

        // Retrieve the second number
        inout.seek(1 * 4); // Move the file pointer to the second number
        System.out.println("The second number is " + inout.readInt());

        // Retrieve the tenth number
        inout.seek(9 * 4); // Move the file pointer to the tenth number
        System.out.println("The tenth number is " + inout.readInt());

        // Modify the eleventh number
        inout.writeInt(555);

        // Append a new number
        inout.seek(inout.length()); // Move the file pointer to the end
        inout.writeInt(999);

        // Display the new length
        System.out.println("The new length is " + inout.length());

        // Retrieve the new eleventh number
        inout.seek(10 * 4); // Move the file pointer to the next number
        System.out.println("The eleventh number is " + inout.readInt());

        inout.close();
    }
}
```

Current file length is 800  
The first number is 0  
The second number is 1  
The tenth number is 9  
The new length is 804  
The eleventh number is 555
A `RandomAccessFile` is created for the file named `inout.dat` with mode `rw` to allow both read and write operations in line 6.

`inout.setLength(0)` sets the length to 0 in line 9. This, in effect, destroys the old contents of the file.

The `for` loop writes 200 `int` values from 0 to 199 into the file in lines 12–13. Since each `int` value takes 4 bytes, the total length of the file returned from `inout.length()` is now 800 (line 16), as shown in the sample output.

Invoking `inout.seek(0)` in line 19 sets the file pointer to the beginning of the file. `inout.readInt()` reads the first value in line 20 and moves the file pointer to the next number. The second number is read in line 24.

`inout.seek(9 * 4)` (line 27) moves the file pointer to the tenth number. `inout.readInt()` reads the tenth number and moves the file pointer to the eleventh number in line 28. `inout.writeInt(555)` writes a new eleventh number at the current position (line 31). The previous eleventh number is destroyed.

`inout.seek(inout.length())` moves the file pointer to the end of the file (line 34). `inout.writeInt(999)` writes a 999 to the file. Now the length of the file is increased by 4, so `inout.length()` returns 804 (line 38).

`inout.seek(10 * 4)` moves the file pointer to the eleventh number in line 41. The new eleventh number, 555, is displayed in line 42.

19.31 Can `RandomAccessFile` streams read and write a data file created by `DataOutputStream`? Can `RandomAccessFile` streams read and write objects?

19.32 Create a `RandomAccessFile` stream for the file `address.dat` to allow the updating of student information in the file. Create a `DataOutputStream` for the file `address.dat`. Explain the differences between these two statements.

19.33 What happens if the file `test.dat` does not exist when you attempt to compile and run the following code?

```java
import java.io.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            RandomAccessFile raf =
                new RandomAccessFile("test.dat", "r");
            int i = raf.readInt();
        }
        catch (IOException ex) {
            System.out.println("IO exception");
        }
    }
}
```

**Key Terms**

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>binary I/O</td>
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<td>file pointer</td>
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CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. I/O can be classified into text I/O and binary I/O. Text I/O interprets data in sequences of characters. Binary I/O interprets data as raw binary values. How text is stored in a file depends on the encoding scheme for the file. Java automatically performs encoding and decoding for text I/O.

2. The InputStream and OutputStream classes are the roots of all binary I/O classes. FileInputStream/FileOutputStream associates a file for input/output. BufferedInputStream/BufferedOutputStream can be used to wrap any binary I/O stream to improve performance. DataInputStream/DataOutputStream can be used to read/write primitive values and strings.

3. ObjectInputStream/ObjectOutputStream can be used to read/write objects in addition to primitive values and strings. To enable object serialization, the object’s defining class must implement the java.io.Serializable marker interface.

4. The RandomAccessFile class enables you to read and write data to a file. You can open a file with the r mode to indicate that it is read-only, or with the rw mode to indicate that it is updateable. Since the RandomAccessFile class implements DataInput and DataOutput interfaces, many methods in RandomAccessFile are the same as those in DataInputStream and DataOutputStream.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

Section 19.3

*19.1  (Create a text file) Write a program to create a file named Exercise19_01.txt if it does not exist. Append new data to it if it already exists. Write 100 integers created randomly into the file using text I/O. Integers are separated by a space.

Section 19.4

*19.2  (Create a binary data file) Write a program to create a file named Exercise19_02.dat if it does not exist. Append new data to it if it already exists. Write 100 integers created randomly into the file using binary I/O.

*19.3  (Sum all the integers in a binary data file) Suppose a binary data file named Exercise19_03.dat has been created and its data are created using writeInt(int) in DataOutputStream. The file contains an unspecified number of integers. Write a program to find the sum of the integers.

*19.4  (Convert a text file into UTF) Write a program that reads lines of characters from a text file and writes each line as a UTF-8 string into a binary file. Display the sizes of the text file and the binary file. Use the following command to run the program:

    java Exercise19_04 Welcome.java Welcome.utf
Section 19.6

*19.5 (Store objects and arrays in a file) Write a program that stores an array of the five int values 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, a Date object for the current time, and the double value 5.5 into the file named Exercise19_05.dat.

*19.6 (Store Loan objects) The Loan class in Listing 10.2 does not implement Serializable. Rewrite the Loan class to implement Serializable. Write a program that creates five Loan objects and stores them in a file named Exercise19_06.dat.

*19.7 (Restore objects from a file) Suppose a file named Exercise19_07.dat has been created using the ObjectOutputStream. The file contains Loan objects. The Loan class in Listing 10.2 does not implement Serializable. Rewrite the Loan class to implement Serializable. Write a program that reads the Loan objects from the file and computes the total loan amount. Suppose you don’t know how many Loan objects are in the file. Use EOFException to end the loop.

Section 19.7

*19.8 (Update count) Suppose you want to track how many times a program has been executed. You can store an int to count the file. Increase the count by 1 each time this program is executed. Let the program be Exercise19_08 and store the count in Exercise19_08.dat.

***19.9 (Address book) Supplement VI.B has a case study of using random-access files for creating and manipulating an address book. Modify the case study by adding an Update button, as shown in Figure 19.19, to enable the user to modify the address that is being displayed.

**19.10 (Split files) Suppose you want to back up a huge file (e.g., a 10-GB AVI file) to a CD-R. You can achieve it by splitting the file into smaller pieces and backing up these pieces separately. Write a utility program that splits a large file into smaller ones using the following command:

```
java Exercise19_10 SourceFile numberOfPieces
```

The command creates the files SourceFile.1, SourceFile.2, . . . , SourceFile.n, where n is numberOfPieces and the output files are about the same size.

**19.11 (Split files GUI) Rewrite Exercise 19.10 with a GUI, as shown in Figure 19.20a.

*19.12 (Combine files) Write a utility program that combines the files together into a new file using the following command:

```
java Exercise19_12 SourceFile1 . . . SourceFilen TargetFile
```

The command combines SourceFile1, . . . , and SourceFilen into TargetFile.
19.13 (Combine files GUI) Rewrite Exercise 19.12 with a GUI, as shown in Figure 19.20b.

19.14 (Encrypt files) Encode the file by adding 5 to every byte in the file. Write a program that prompts the user to enter an input file name and an output file name and saves the encrypted version of the input file to the output file.

19.15 (Decrypt files) Suppose a file is encrypted using the scheme in Programming Exercise 19.14. Write a program to decode an encrypted file. Your program should prompt the user to enter an input file name for the encrypted file and an output file name for the unencrypted version of the input file.

19.16 (Frequency of characters) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the name of an ASCII text file and displays the frequency of the characters in the file.

19.17 (BitOutputStream) Implement a class named `BitOutputStream`, as shown in Figure 19.21, for writing bits to an output stream. The `writeBit(char bit)` method stores the bit in a byte variable. When you create a `BitOutputStream`, the byte is empty. After invoking `writeBit('1')`, the byte becomes `00000001`. After invoking `writeBit("0101")`, the byte becomes `00010101`. The first three bits are not filled yet. When a byte is full, it is sent to the output stream. Now the byte is reset to empty. You must close the stream by invoking the `close()` method. If the byte is neither empty nor full, the `close()` method first fills the zeros to make a full 8 bits in the byte, and then outputs the byte and closes the stream. For a hint, see Programming Exercise 4.46. Write a test program that sends the bits `010000100100001001101` to the file named `Exercise19_17.dat`.

**19.17**

`BitOutputStream` outputs a stream of bits to a file.

*19.18 (View bits) Write the following method that displays the bit representation for the last byte in an integer:

```java
public static String getBits(int value)
```
For a hint, see Programming Exercise 4.46. Write a program that prompts the user to enter a file name, reads bytes from the file, and displays each byte’s binary representation.

**19.19** (View hex) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a file name, reads bytes from the file, and displays each byte’s hex representation. (*Hint:* You can first convert the byte value into an 8-bit string, then convert the bit string into a two-digit hex string.)

**19.20** (Binary editor) Write a GUI application that lets the user enter a file name in the text field and press the Enter key to display its binary representation in a text area. The user can also modify the binary code and save it back to the file, as shown in Figure 19.22a.

**19.21** (Hex editor) Write a GUI application that lets the user enter a file name in the text field and press the Enter key to display its hex representation in a text area. The user can also modify the hex code and save it back to the file, as shown in Figure 19.22b.

**Figure 19.22** The programs enable the user to manipulate the contents of the file in (a) binary and (b) hex.
CHAPTER 20

RECURSION

Objectives

- To describe what a recursive method is and the benefits of using recursion (§20.1).
- To develop recursive methods for recursive mathematical functions (§§20.2–20.3).
- To explain how recursive method calls are handled in a call stack (§§20.2–20.3).
- To solve problems using recursion (§20.4).
- To use an overloaded helper method to design a recursive method (§20.5).
- To implement a selection sort using recursion (§20.5.1).
- To implement a binary search using recursion (§20.5.2).
- To get the directory size using recursion (§20.6).
- To solve the Towers of Hanoi problem using recursion (§20.7).
- To draw fractals using recursion (§20.8).
- To discover the relationship and difference between recursion and iteration (§20.9).
- To know tail-recursive methods and why they are desirable (§20.10).
Chapter 20  Recursion

20.1 Introduction

Recursion is a technique that leads to elegant solutions to problems that are difficult to program using simple loops.

Suppose you want to find all the files under a directory that contain a particular word. How do you solve this problem? There are several ways to do so. An intuitive and effective solution is to use recursion by searching the files in the subdirectories recursively.

H-trees, depicted in Figure 20.1, are used in a very large-scale integration (VLSI) design as a clock distribution network for routing timing signals to all parts of a chip with equal propagation delays. How do you write a program to display H-trees? A good approach is to use recursion.

To use recursion is to program using recursive methods—that is, to use methods that invoke themselves. Recursion is a useful programming technique. In some cases, it enables you to develop a natural, straightforward, simple solution to an otherwise difficult problem. This chapter introduces the concepts and techniques of recursive programming and illustrates with examples of how to “think recursively.”

20.2 Case Study: Computing Factorials

A recursive method is one that invokes itself.

Many mathematical functions are defined using recursion. Let's begin with a simple example. The factorial of a number \( n \) can be recursively defined as follows:

\[
0! = 1; \\
n! = n \times (n - 1)!; \quad n > 0
\]

How do you find \( n! \) for a given \( n \)? To find \( 1! \) is easy, because you know that \( 0! \) is 1, and \( 1! \) is \( 1 \times 0! \). Assuming that you know \( (n - 1)! \), you can obtain \( n! \) immediately by using \( n \times (n - 1)! \). Thus, the problem of computing \( n! \) is reduced to computing \( (n - 1)! \). When computing \( (n - 1)! \), you can apply the same idea recursively until \( n \) is reduced to 0.

Let \( \text{factorial}(n) \) be the method for computing \( n! \). If you call the method with \( n = 0 \), it immediately returns the result. The method knows how to solve the simplest case, which is referred to as the base case or the stopping condition. If you call the method with \( n > 0 \), it reduces the problem into a subproblem for computing the factorial of \( n - 1 \). The subproblem is essentially the same as the original problem, but it is simpler or smaller. Because the subproblem has the same property as the original problem, you can call the method with a different argument, which is referred to as a recursive call.

The recursive algorithm for computing \( \text{factorial}(n) \) can be simply described as follows:

\[
\text{if } (n == 0) \\
\text{return } 1;
\]
else
    return n * factorial(n - 1);

A recursive call can result in many more recursive calls, because the method keeps on dividing a subproblem into new subproblems. For a recursive method to terminate, the problem must eventually be reduced to a stopping case, at which point the method returns a result to its caller. The caller then performs a computation and returns the result to its own caller. This process continues until the result is passed back to the original caller. The original problem can now be solved by multiplying n by the result of factorial(n - 1).

Listing 20.1 gives a complete program that prompts the user to enter a nonnegative integer and displays the factorial for the number.

**LISTING 20.1 ComputeFactorial.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeFactorial {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a nonnegative integer: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();
        // Display factorial
        System.out.println("Factorial of " + n + " is " + factorial(n));
    }

    /** Return the factorial for the specified number */
    public static long factorial(int n) {
        if (n == 0) // Base case
            return 1;
        else
            return n * factorial(n - 1); // Recursive call
    }
}
```

Enter a nonnegative integer: 4
Factorial of 4 is 24

Enter a nonnegative integer: 10
Factorial of 10 is 3628800

The `factorial` method (lines 16–21) is essentially a direct translation of the recursive mathematical definition for the factorial into Java code. The call to `factorial` is recursive because it calls itself. The parameter passed to `factorial` is decremented until it reaches the base case of 0.

You see how to write a recursive method. How does recursion work? Figure 20.2 illustrates the execution of the recursive calls, starting with n = 4. The use of stack space for recursive calls is shown in Figure 20.3.
Figure 20.2 Invoking `factorial(4)` spawns recursive calls to `factorial`.

Figure 20.3 When `factorial(4)` is being executed, the `factorial` method is called recursively, causing stack space to dynamically change.
20.3 Case Study: Computing Fibonacci Numbers

In some cases, recursion enables you to create an intuitive, straightforward, simple solution to a problem.

The factorial method in the preceding section could easily be rewritten without using recursion. In this section, we show an example for creating an intuitive solution to a problem using recursion. Consider the well-known Fibonacci-series problem:
The series:  0  1  1  2  3  5  8  13  21  34  55  89  ...  
indices:  0  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10  11

The Fibonacci series begins with 0 and 1, and each subsequent number is the sum of the preceding two. The series can be recursively defined as:

\[
\text{fib}(0) = 0; \\
\text{fib}(1) = 1; \\
\text{fib}(\text{index}) = \text{fib}(\text{index} - 2) + \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1); \text{index} \geq 2
\]

The Fibonacci series was named for Leonardo Fibonacci, a medieval mathematician, who originated it to model the growth of the rabbit population. It can be applied in numeric optimization and in various other areas.

How do you find \(\text{fib}(\text{index})\) for a given \(\text{index}\)? It is easy to find \(\text{fib}(2)\), because you know \(\text{fib}(0)\) and \(\text{fib}(1)\). Assuming that you know \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 2)\) and \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 1)\), you can obtain \(\text{fib}(\text{index})\) immediately. Thus, the problem of computing \(\text{fib}(\text{index})\) is reduced to computing \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 2)\) and \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 1)\). When doing so, you apply the idea recursively until \(\text{index}\) is reduced to 0 or 1.

The base case is \(\text{index} = 0\) or \(\text{index} = 1\). If you call the method with \(\text{index} = 0\) or \(\text{index} = 1\), it immediately returns the result. If you call the method with \(\text{index} \geq 2\), it divides the problem into two subproblems for computing \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 1)\) and \(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 2)\) using recursive calls. The recursive algorithm for computing \(\text{fib}(\text{index})\) can be simply described as follows:

```java
if (index == 0) 
    return 0;
else if (index == 1) 
    return 1;
else 
    return fib(index - 1) + fib(index - 2);
```

Listing 20.2 gives a complete program that prompts the user to enter an index and computes the Fibonacci number for that index.

**LISTING 20.2  ComputeFibonacci.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ComputeFibonacci {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter an index for a Fibonacci number: ");
        int index = input.nextInt();

        // Find and display the Fibonacci number
        System.out.println("The Fibonacci number at index "+ index + " is "+ fib(index));
    }

    /** The method for finding the Fibonacci number */
    public static long fib(long index) {
        if (index == 0) // Base case
            return 0;
        ...
Enter an index for a Fibonacci number: 1
The Fibonacci number at index 1 is 1

Enter an index for a Fibonacci number: 6
The Fibonacci number at index 6 is 8

Enter an index for a Fibonacci number: 7
The Fibonacci number at index 7 is 13

The program does not show the considerable amount of work done behind the scenes by the computer. Figure 20.4, however, shows the successive recursive calls for evaluating \( \text{fib}(4) \). The original method, \( \text{fib}(4) \), makes two recursive calls, \( \text{fib}(3) \) and \( \text{fib}(2) \), and then returns \( \text{fib}(3) + \text{fib}(2) \). But in what order are these methods called? In Java, operands are evaluated from left to right, so \( \text{fib}(2) \) is called after \( \text{fib}(3) \) is completely evaluated. The labels in Figure 20.4 show the order in which the methods are called.

![Diagram showing recursive calls](image)

**Figure 20.4** Invoking \( \text{fib}(4) \) spawns recursive calls to \( \text{fib} \).

As shown in Figure 20.4, there are many duplicated recursive calls. For instance, \( \text{fib}(2) \) is called twice, \( \text{fib}(1) \) three times, and \( \text{fib}(0) \) twice. In general, computing \( \text{fib}(\text{index}) \) requires roughly twice as many recursive calls as does computing \( \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1) \). As you try larger index values, the number of calls substantially increases, as shown in Table 20.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>index</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of calls</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>21891</td>
<td>2,692,537</td>
<td>331,160,281</td>
<td>2,075,316,483</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 20  Recursion

**Pedagogical Note**
The recursive implementation of the `fib` method is very simple and straightforward, but it isn't efficient, since it requires more time and memory to run recursive methods. See Programming Exercise 20.2 for an efficient solution using loops. Though it is not practical, the recursive `fib` method is a good example of how to write recursive methods.

20.7 Show the output of the following two programs:

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        xMethod(5);
    }

    public static void xMethod(int n) {
        if (n > 0) {
            System.out.print(n + " ");
            xMethod(n - 1);
        }
    }
}
```

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        xMethod(5);
    }

    public static void xMethod(int n) {
        if (n > 0) {
            System.out.print(n + " ");
            xMethod(n - 1);
            System.out.print(n + " ");
        }
    }
}
```

20.8 What is wrong in the following method?

```java
public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        xMethod(1234567);
    }

    public static void xMethod(double n) {
        if (n != 0) {
            System.out.print(n);
            xMethod(n / 10);
        }
    }
}
```

20.9 How many times is the `fib` method in Listing 20.2 invoked for `fib(6)`?

20.4 Problem Solving Using Recursion

If you think recursively, you can solve many problems using recursion.

The preceding sections presented two classic recursion examples. All recursive methods have the following characteristics:

- **if-else**
  - The method is implemented using an `if-else` or a `switch` statement that leads to different cases.

- **base cases**
  - One or more base cases (the simplest case) are used to stop recursion.

- **reduction**
  - Every recursive call reduces the original problem, bringing it increasingly closer to a base case until it becomes that case.

In general, to solve a problem using recursion, you break it into subproblems. Each subproblem is the same as the original problem but smaller in size. You can apply the same approach to each subproblem to solve it recursively.
Recursion is everywhere. It is fun to think recursively. Consider drinking coffee. You may describe the procedure recursively as follows:

```java
public static void drinkCoffee(Cup cup) {
    if (!cup.isEmpty()) {
        cup.takeOneSip(); // Take one sip
        drinkCoffee(cup);
    }
}
```

Assume `cup` is an object for a cup of coffee with the instance methods `isEmpty()` and `takeOneSip()`. You can break the problem into two subproblems: one is to drink one sip of coffee and the other is to drink the rest of the coffee in the cup. The second problem is the same as the original problem but smaller in size. The base case for the problem is when the cup is empty.

Consider the problem of printing a message \( n \) times. You can break the problem into two subproblems: one is to print the message one time and the other is to print it \( n - 1 \) times. The second problem is the same as the original problem but it is smaller in size. The base case for the problem is \( n == 0 \). You can solve this problem using recursion as follows:

```java
public static void nPrintln(String message, int times) {
    if (times >= 1) {
        System.out.println(message);
        nPrintln(message, times - 1);
    } // The base case is times == 0
}
```

Note that the `fib` method in the preceding section returns a value to its caller, but the `drinkCoffee` and `nPrintln` methods are `void` and they do not return a value.

If you think recursively, you can use recursion to solve many of the problems presented in earlier chapters of this book. Consider the palindrome problem in Listing 9.1. Recall that a string is a palindrome if it reads the same from the left and from the right. For example, “mom” and “dad” are palindromes, but “uncle” and “aunt” are not. The problem of checking whether a string is a palindrome can be divided into two subproblems:

- Check whether the first character and the last character of the string are equal.
- Ignore the two end characters and check whether the rest of the substring is a palindrome.

The second subproblem is the same as the original problem but smaller in size. There are two base cases: (1) the two end characters are not the same, and (2) the string size is 0 or 1. In case 1, the string is not a palindrome; in case 2, the string is a palindrome. The recursive method for this problem can be implemented as shown in Listing 20.3.

**Listing 20.3  RecursivePalindromeUsingSubstring.java**

```java
public class RecursivePalindromeUsingSubstring {
    public static boolean isPalindrome(String s) {
        if (s.length() <= 1) // Base case
            return true;
        else if (s.charAt(0) != s.charAt(s.length() - 1)) // Base case
            return false;
        else
            return isPalindrome(s.substring(1, s.length() - 1));
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
```
Chapter 20  Recursion

```java
public class RecursivePalindrome {
    public static boolean isPalindrome(String s) {
        return isPalindrome(s, 0, s.length() - 1);
    }

    private static boolean isPalindrome(String s, int low, int high) {
        if (high <= low) // Base case
            return true;
        else if (s.charAt(low) != s.charAt(high)) // Base case
            return false;
        else
            return isPalindrome(s, low + 1, high - 1);
    }
}
```

The `substring` method in line 8 creates a new string that is the same as the original string except without the first and last characters. Checking whether a string is a palindrome is equivalent to checking whether the substring is a palindrome if the two end characters in the original string are the same.

20.10 Describe the characteristics of recursive methods.

20.11 For the `isPalindrome` method in Listing 20.3, what are the base cases? How many times is this method called when invoking `isPalindrome("abdxcdba")`?

20.12 Show the call stack for `isPalindrome("abcba")` using the method defined in Listing 20.3.

20.5 Recursive Helper Methods

*Sometimes you can find a recursive solution by slightly changing the original problem. This new method is called a recursive helper method.*

The recursive `isPalindrome` method in Listing 20.3 is not efficient, because it creates a new string for every recursive call. To avoid creating new strings, you can use the low and high indices to indicate the range of the substring. These two indices must be passed to the recursive method. Since the original method is `isPalindrome(String s)`, you have to create the new method `isPalindrome(String s, int low, int high)` to accept additional information on the string, as shown in Listing 20.4.

**LISTING 20.4  RecursivePalindrome.java**

```java
public class RecursivePalindrome {
    public static boolean isPalindrome(String s) {
        return isPalindrome(s, 0, s.length() - 1);
    }

    private static boolean isPalindrome(String s, int low, int high) {
        if (high <= low) // Base case
            return true;
        else if (s.charAt(low) != s.charAt(high)) // Base case
            return false;
        else
            return isPalindrome(s, low + 1, high - 1);
    }
}
```
20.5 Recursive Helper Methods

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    System.out.println("Is moon a palindrome? " + isPalindrome("moon"));
    System.out.println("Is noon a palindrome? " + isPalindrome("noon"));
    System.out.println("Is a a palindrome? " + isPalindrome("a"));
    System.out.println("Is aba a palindrome? " + isPalindrome("aba"));
    System.out.println("Is ab a palindrome? " + isPalindrome("ab"));
}
```

Two overloaded isPalindrome methods are defined. The first, isPalindrome(String s), checks whether a string is a palindrome, and the second, isPalindrome(String s, int low, int high), checks whether a substring s(low..high) is a palindrome. The first method passes the string s with low = 0 and high = s.length() – 1 to the second method. The second method can be invoked recursively to check a palindrome in an ever-shrinking substring. It is a common design technique in recursive programming to define a second method that receives additional parameters. Such a method is known as a recursive helper method.

Helper methods are very useful in designing recursive solutions for problems involving strings and arrays. The sections that follow give two more examples.

### 20.5.1 Recursive Selection Sort

Selection sort was introduced in Section 6.11.1. Recall that it finds the smallest element in the list and swaps it with the first element. It then finds the smallest element remaining and swaps it with the first element in the remaining list, and so on until the remaining list contains only a single element. The problem can be divided into two subproblems:

- Find the smallest element in the list and swap it with the first element.
- Ignore the first element and sort the remaining smaller list recursively.

The base case is that the list contains only one element. Listing 20.5 gives the recursive sort method.

#### Listing 20.5 RecursiveSelectionSort.java

```java
public class RecursiveSelectionSort {
    public static void sort(double[] list) {
        // Sort the entire list
    }

    private static void sort(double[] list, int low, int high) {
        if (low < high) {
            // Find the smallest number and its index in list[low .. high]
            int indexOfMin = low;
            double min = list[low];
            for (int i = low + 1; i <= high; i++) {
                if (list[i] < min) {
                    min = list[i];
                    indexOfMin = i;
                }
            }
            // Swap the smallest in list[low .. high] with list[low]
            list[indexOfMin] = list[low];
            list[low] = min;
        }
    }
}
```
Two overloaded sort methods are defined. The first method, sort(double[] list), sorts an array in list[0..list.length - 1] and the second method, sort(double[] list, int low, int high), sorts an array in list[low..high]. The second method can be invoked recursively to sort an ever-shrinking subarray.

20.5.2 Recursive Binary Search

Binary search was introduced in Section 6.10.2. For binary search to work, the elements in the array must be in an increasing order. The binary search first compares the key with the element in the middle of the array. Consider the following three cases:

- Case 1: If the key is less than the middle element, recursively search for the key in the first half of the array.
- Case 2: If the key is equal to the middle element, the search ends with a match.
- Case 3: If the key is greater than the middle element, recursively search for the key in the second half of the array.

Case 1 and Case 3 reduce the search to a smaller list. Case 2 is a base case when there is a match. Another base case is that the search is exhausted without a match. Listing 20.6 gives a clear, simple solution for the binary search problem using recursion.

### Listing 20.6 Recursive Binary Search Method

```java
public class RecursiveBinarySearch {
    public static int recursiveBinarySearch(int[] list, int key) {
        int low = 0;
        int high = list.length - 1;
        return recursiveBinarySearch(list, key, low, high);
    }

    private static int recursiveBinarySearch(int[] list, int key, int low, int high) {
        if (low > high) // The list has been exhausted without a match
            return -low - 1;
        int mid = (low + high) / 2;
        if (key < list[mid])
            return recursiveBinarySearch(list, key, low, mid - 1);
        else if (key == list[mid])
            return mid;
        else
            return recursiveBinarySearch(list, key, mid + 1, high);
    }
}
```

The first method finds a key in the whole list. The second method finds a key in the list with index from low to high.

The first binarySearch method passes the initial array with low = 0 and high = list.length - 1 to the second binarySearch method. The second method is invoked recursively to find the key in an ever-shrinking subarray.
20.13 Show the call stack for `isPalindrome("abcba")` using the method defined in Listing 20.4.

20.14 Show the call stack for `selectionSort(new double[]{2, 3, 5, 1})` using the method defined in Listing 20.5.

20.15 What is a recursive helper method?

20.6 Case Study: Finding the Directory Size

**Recursive methods are efficient for solving problems with recursive structures.**

The preceding examples can easily be solved without using recursion. This section presents a problem that is difficult to solve without using recursion. The problem is to find the size of a directory. The size of a directory is the sum of the sizes of all files in the directory. A directory `d` may contain subdirectories. Suppose a directory contains files `f₁, f₂, ... , fₘ` and subdirectories `d₁, d₂, ... , dₙ`, as shown in Figure 20.5.

![Figure 20.5](image)

A directory contains files and subdirectories.

The size of the directory can be defined recursively as follows:

\[
\text{size}(d) = \text{size}(f₁) + \text{size}(f₂) + \ldots + \text{size}(fₘ) + \text{size}(d₁) + \text{size}(d₂) + \ldots + \text{size}(dₙ)
\]

The `File` class, introduced in Section 14.10, can be used to represent a file or a directory and obtain the properties for files and directories. Two methods in the `File` class are useful for this problem:

- The `length()` method returns the size of a file.
- The `listFiles()` method returns an array of `File` objects under a directory.

Listing 20.7 gives a program that prompts the user to enter a directory or a file and displays its size.

**LISTING 20.7 DirectorySize.java**

```java
import java.io.File;
import java.util.Scanner;

public class DirectorySize {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Prompt the user to enter a directory or a file
        System.out.print("Enter a directory or a file: ");
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        String directory = input.nextLine();
        String size = getSize(new File(directory)) + " bytes";
        // Display the size
        System.out.println(size);
    }
}
```

public static long getSize(File file) {
    long size = 0; // Store the total size of all files

    if (file.isDirectory()) {
        File[] files = file.listFiles(); // All files and subdirectories
        for (int i = 0; files != null && i < files.length; i++) {
            size += getSize(files[i]); // Recursive call
        }
    }
    else { // Base case
        size += file.length();
    }
    return size;
}
All the disks are initially placed on tower A.

Only one disk can be moved at a time, and it must be the smallest disk on a tower.

The objective of the problem is to move all the disks from A to B with the assistance of C. For example, if you have three disks, the steps to move all of the disks from A to B are shown in Figure 20.6.

Figure 20.6 The goal of the Towers of Hanoi problem is to move disks from tower A to tower B without breaking the rules.

Note
The Towers of Hanoi is a classic computer-science problem, to which many websites are devoted. One of them worth looking at is www.cut-the-knot.com/recurrence/hanoi.html.

In the case of three disks, you can find the solution manually. For a larger number of disks, however—even for four—the problem is quite complex. Fortunately, the problem has an inherently recursive nature, which leads to a straightforward recursive solution.

The base case for the problem is $n = 1$. If $n == 1$, you could simply move the disk from A to B. When $n > 1$, you could split the original problem into the following three subproblems and solve them sequentially.

1. Move the first $n - 1$ disks from A to C with the assistance of tower B, as shown in Step 1 in Figure 20.7.
2. Move disk $n$ from A to B, as shown in Step 2 in Figure 20.7.
3. Move $n - 1$ disks from C to B with the assistance of tower A, as shown in Step 3 in Figure 20.7.
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![Diagram](image)

**FIGURE 20.7** The Towers of Hanoi problem can be decomposed into three subproblems.

The following method moves \( n \) disks from the fromTower to the toTower with the assistance of the auxTower:

```java
void moveDisks(int n, char fromTower, char toTower, char auxTower)
```

The algorithm for the method can be described as:

```java
if (n == 1) // Stopping condition
    Move disk 1 from the fromTower to the toTower;
else {
    moveDisks(n - 1, fromTower, auxTower, toTower);
    Move disk n from the fromTower to the toTower;
    moveDisks(n - 1, auxTower, toTower, fromTower);
}
```

Listing 20.8 gives a program that prompts the user to enter the number of disks and invokes the recursive method `moveDisks` to display the solution for moving the disks.

**LISTING 20.8  TowersOfHanoi.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class TowersOfHanoi {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a Scanner
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter number of disks: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();
        // Find the solution recursively
        System.out.println("The moves are: ");
        moveDisks(n, 'A', 'B', 'C');
    }
}
```
20.7 Case Study: Towers of Hanoi

```java
/** The method for finding the solution to move n disks
 from fromTower to toTower with auxTower */

public static void moveDisks(int n, char fromTower,
        char toTower, char auxTower) {
    if (n == 1) // Stopping condition
        System.out.println("Move disk "+n+" from "+
                fromTower+" to "+toTower);
    else {
        moveDisks(n - 1, fromTower, auxTower, toTower);
        System.out.println("Move disk "+n+" from "+
                fromTower+" to "+toTower);
        moveDisks(n - 1, auxTower, toTower, fromTower);
    }
}
```

Enter number of disks: 4  

The moves are:
- Move disk 1 from A to C
- Move disk 2 from A to B
- Move disk 1 from C to B
- Move disk 3 from A to C
- Move disk 1 from B to A
- Move disk 2 from B to C
- Move disk 1 from A to C
- Move disk 4 from A to B
- Move disk 1 from C to B
- Move disk 2 from C to A
- Move disk 1 from B to A
- Move disk 3 from C to B
- Move disk 1 from A to C
- Move disk 2 from A to B
- Move disk 1 from C to B

This problem is inherently recursive. Using recursion makes it possible to find a natural, simple solution. It would be difficult to solve the problem without using recursion.

Consider tracing the program for $n = 3$. The successive recursive calls are shown in Figure 20.8. As you can see, writing the program is easier than tracing the recursive calls.

Figure 20.8  Invoking `moveDisks(3, 'A', 'B', 'C')` spawns calls to `moveDisks` recursively.
system uses stacks to manage the calls behind the scenes. To some extent, recursion provides a level of abstraction that hides iterations and other details from the user.

**20.19** How many times is the `moveDisks` method in Listing 20.8 invoked for `moveDisks(5, 'A', 'B', 'C')`?

## 20.8 Case Study: Fractals

*Using recursion is ideal for displaying fractals, because fractals are inherently recursive.*

A fractal is a geometrical figure, but unlike triangles, circles, and rectangles, fractals can be divided into parts, each of which is a reduced-size copy of the whole. There are many interesting examples of fractals. This section introduces a simple fractal, the **Sierpinski triangle**, named after a famous Polish mathematician.

A Sierpinski triangle is created as follows:

1. Begin with an equilateral triangle, which is considered to be a Sierpinski fractal of order (or level) **0**, as shown in Figure 20.9a.

2. Connect the midpoints of the sides of the triangle of order **0** to create a Sierpinski triangle of order **1** (Figure 20.9b).

3. Leave the center triangle intact. Connect the midpoints of the sides of the three other triangles to create a Sierpinski triangle of order **2** (Figure 20.9c).

4. You can repeat the same process recursively to create a Sierpinski triangle of order **3, 4, ...,** and so on (Figure 20.9d).

The problem is inherently recursive. How do you develop a recursive solution for it? Consider the base case when the order is **0**. It is easy to draw a Sierpinski triangle of order **0**.

![Figure 20.9](image.png)  
*Figure 20.9* A Sierpinski triangle is a pattern of recursive triangles.
How do you draw a Sierpinski triangle of order 1? The problem can be reduced to drawing three Sierpinski triangles of order 0. How do you draw a Sierpinski triangle of order 2? The problem can be reduced to drawing three Sierpinski triangles of order 1, so the problem of drawing a Sierpinski triangle of order \( n \) can be reduced to drawing three Sierpinski triangles of order \( n - 1 \).

Listing 20.9 gives a Java applet that displays a Sierpinski triangle of any order, as shown in Figure 20.9. You can enter an order in a text field to display a Sierpinski triangle of the specified order.

**Listing 20.9 SierpinskiTriangle.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class SierpinskiTriangle extends JApplet {
    private JTextField jtfOrder = new JTextField("0", 5); // Order
    private SierpinskiTrianglePanel trianglePanel =
        new SierpinskiTrianglePanel(); // To display the pattern

    public SierpinskiTriangle() {
        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(new JLabel("Enter an order: "));
        panel.add(jtfOrder);
        jtfOrder.setHorizontalAlignment(SwingConstants.RIGHT);
        add(trianglePanel);
        add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

        jtfOrder.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                trianglePanel.setOrder(Integer.parseInt(jtfOrder.getText()));
            }
        });
    }

    static class SierpinskiTrianglePanel extends JPanel {
        private int order = 0;

        /** Set a new order */
        public void setOrder(int order) {
            this.order = order;
            repaint();
        }

        @Override
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);

            // Select three points in proportion to the panel size
            Point p1 = new Point(getWidth() / 2, 10);
            Point p2 = new Point(10, getHeight() - 10);
            Point p3 = new Point(getWidth() - 10, getHeight() - 10);
```
The initial triangle has three points set in proportion to the panel size (lines 44–46). If \( \text{order} == 0 \), the \texttt{displayTriangles(g, order, p1, p2, p3)} method displays a triangle that connects the three points \( p1 \), \( p2 \), and \( p3 \) in lines 55–57, as shown in Figure 20.10a. Otherwise, it performs the following tasks:

1. Obtain the midpoint between \( p1 \) and \( p2 \) (line 61), the midpoint between \( p2 \) and \( p3 \) (line 62), and the midpoint between \( p3 \) and \( p1 \) (line 63), as shown in Figure 20.10b.

2. Recursively invoke \texttt{displayTriangles} with a reduced order to display three smaller Sierpinski triangles (lines 66–68). Note that each small Sierpinski triangle is structurally identical to the original big Sierpinski triangle except that the order of a small triangle is one less, as shown in Figure 20.10b.

A Sierpinski triangle is displayed in a \texttt{SierpinskiTrianglePanel}. The \texttt{order} property in the inner class \texttt{SierpinskiTrianglePanel} specifies the order for the Sierpinski triangle. The \texttt{Point} class, introduced in Section 16.8, Mouse Events, represents a point on a component. The \texttt{midpoint(Point p1, Point p2)} method returns the midpoint between \( p1 \) and \( p2 \) (lines 72–74).

**Check Point**

20.20 How do you obtain the midpoint between two points?

20.21 What is the base case for the \texttt{displayTriangles} method?

20.22 How many times is the \texttt{displayTriangles} method invoked for a Sierpinski triangle of order 0, order 1, order 2, and order \( n \)?
20.9 Recursion vs. Iteration

Recursion is an alternative form of program control. It is essentially repetition without a loop.

When you use loops, you specify a loop body. The repetition of the loop body is controlled by the loop control structure. In recursion, the method itself is called repeatedly. A selection statement must be used to control whether to call the method recursively or not.

Recursion bears substantial overhead. Each time the program calls a method, the system must allocate memory for all of the method’s local variables and parameters. This can consume considerable memory and requires extra time to manage the memory.

Any problem that can be solved recursively can be solved nonrecursively with iterations. Recursion has some negative aspects: it uses up too much time and too much memory. Why, then, should you use it? In some cases, using recursion enables you to specify a clear, simple solution for an inherently recursive problem that would otherwise be difficult to obtain. Examples are the directory-size problem, the Towers of Hanoi problem, and the fractal problem, which are rather difficult to solve without using recursion.

The decision whether to use recursion or iteration should be based on the nature of, and your understanding of, the problem you are trying to solve. The rule of thumb is to use whichever approach can best develop an intuitive solution that naturally mirrors the problem. If an iterative solution is obvious, use it. It will generally be more efficient than the recursive option.

Note

Recursive programs can run out of memory, causing a StackOverflowError.
Tip
If you are concerned about your program's performance, avoid using recursion, because it takes more time and consumes more memory than iteration. In general, recursion can be used to solve the inherent recursive problems such as Towers of Hanoi, recursive directories, and Sierpinski triangles.

## 20.23 Which of the following statements are true?

a. Any recursive method can be converted into a nonrecursive method.

b. Recursive methods take more time and memory to execute than nonrecursive methods.

c. Recursive methods are always simpler than nonrecursive methods.

d. There is always a selection statement in a recursive method to check whether a base case is reached.

## 20.24 What is a cause for a stack-overflow exception?

### 20.10 Tail Recursion

A tail recursive method is efficient for reducing stack size.

A recursive method is said to be tail recursive if there are no pending operations to be performed on return from a recursive call, as illustrated in Figure 20.11a. However, method B in Figure 20.11b is not tail recursive because there are pending operations after a method call is returned.

![Figure 20.11](image)

A tail-recursive method has no pending operations after a recursive call.

For example, the recursive `isPalindrome` method (lines 6–13) in Listing 20.4 is tail recursive because there are no pending operations after recursively invoking `isPalindrome` in line 12. However, the recursive `factorial` method (lines 16–21) in Listing 20.1 is not tail recursive, because there is a pending operation, namely multiplication, to be performed on return from each recursive call.

Tail recursion may be desirable: because the method ends when the last recursive call ends, there is no need to store the intermediate calls in the stack. Some compilers can optimize tail recursion to reduce stack size.

A nontail-recursive method can often be converted to a tail-recursive method by using auxiliary parameters. These parameters are used to contain the result. The idea is to incorporate the pending operations into the auxiliary parameters in such a way that the recursive call no longer has a pending operation. You can define a new auxiliary recursive method with the auxiliary parameters. This method may overload the original method with the same name but a different signature. For example, the `factorial` method in Listing 20.1 is written in a tail-recursive way in Listing 20.10.
LISTING 20.10  ComputeFactorialTailRecursion.java

```java
public class ComputeFactorialTailRecursion {
    /** Return the factorial for a specified number */
    public static long factorial(int n) {
        return factorial(n, 1); // Call auxiliary method
    }

    /** Auxiliary tail-recursive method for factorial */
    private static long factorial(int n, int result) {
        if (n == 0)
            return result;
        else
            return factorial(n - 1, n * result); // Recursive call
    }
}
```

The first `factorial` method (line 3) simply invokes the second auxiliary method (line 4). The second method contains an auxiliary parameter `result` that stores the result for the factorial of `n`. This method is invoked recursively in line 12. There is no pending operation after a call is returned. The final result is returned in line 10, which is also the return value from invoking `factorial(n, 1)` in line 4.

20.25 Identify tail-recursive methods in this chapter.
20.26 Rewrite the `fib` method in Listing 20.2 using tail recursion.

**Key Terms**

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<td>direct recursion</td>
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<td>indirect recursion</td>
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**Chapter Summary**

1. A *recursive method* is one that directly or indirectly invokes itself. For a recursive method to terminate, there must be one or more *base cases*.

2. *Recursion* is an alternative form of program control. It is essentially repetition without a loop control. It can be used to specify simple, clear solutions for inherently recursive problems that would otherwise be difficult to solve.

3. Sometimes the original method needs to be modified to receive additional parameters in order to be invoked recursively. A *recursive helper method* can be defined for this purpose.

4. Recursion bears substantial overhead. Each time the program calls a method, the system must allocate memory for all of the method’s local variables and parameters. This can consume considerable memory and requires extra time to manage the memory.

5. A recursive method is said to be *tail recursive* if there are no pending operations to be performed on return from a recursive call. Some compilers can optimize tail recursion to reduce stack size.
**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 20.2–20.3

*20.1 (Factorial) Using the BigInteger class introduced in Section 10.14, you can find the factorial for a large number (e.g., 100!). Implement the factorial method using recursion. Write a program that prompts the user to enter an integer and displays its factorial.

*20.2 (Fibonacci numbers) Rewrite the fib method in Listing 20.2 using iterations. Hint: To compute fib(n) without recursion, you need to obtain fib(n - 2) and fib(n - 1) first. Let f0 and f1 denote the two previous Fibonacci numbers. The current Fibonacci number would then be f0 + f1. The algorithm can be described as follows:

```java
f0 = 0; // For fib(0)
f1 = 1; // For fib(1)
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    currentFib = f0 + f1;
    f0 = f1;
    f1 = currentFib;
}
// After the loop, currentFib is fib(n)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an index and displays its Fibonacci number.

*20.3 (Compute greatest common divisor using recursion) The gcd(m, n) can also be defined recursively as follows:

- If m % n is 0, gcd(m, n) is n.
- Otherwise, gcd(m, n) is gcd(n, m % n).

Write a recursive method to find the GCD. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter two integers and displays their GCD.

20.4 (Sum series) Write a recursive method to compute the following series:

\[
m(i) = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \ldots + \frac{1}{i}
\]

Write a test program that displays m(i) for i = 1, 2, ..., 10.

20.5 (Sum series) Write a recursive method to compute the following series:

\[
m(i) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{3}{7} + \frac{4}{9} + \frac{5}{11} + \frac{6}{13} + \ldots + \frac{i}{2i + 1}
\]

Write a test program that displays m(i) for i = 1, 2, ..., 10.

*20.6 (Sum series) Write a recursive method to compute the following series:

\[
m(i) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \ldots + \frac{i}{i + 1}
\]

Write a test program that displays m(i) for i = 1, 2, ..., 10.
**20.7** (Fibonacci series) Modify Listing 20.2, ComputeFibonacci.java, so that the program finds the number of times the `fib` method is called. (Hint: Use a static variable and increment it every time the method is called.)

Section 20.4

**20.8** (Print the digits in an integer reversely) Write a recursive method that displays an `int` value reversely on the console using the following header:

```java
public static void reverseDisplay(int value)
```

For example, `reverseDisplay(12345)` displays `54321`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an integer and displays its reversal.

**20.9** (Print the characters in a string reversely) Write a recursive method that displays a string reversely on the console using the following header:

```java
public static void reverseDisplay(String value)
```

For example, `reverseDisplay("abcd")` displays `dcba`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays its reversal.

**20.10** (Occurrences of a specified character in a string) Write a recursive method that finds the number of occurrences of a specified letter in a string using the following method header:

```java
public static int count(String str, char a)
```

For example, `count("Welcome", 'e')` returns `2`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and a character, and displays the number of occurrences for the character in the string.

**20.11** (Sum the digits in an integer using recursion) Write a recursive method that computes the sum of the digits in an integer. Use the following method header:

```java
public static int sumDigits(long n)
```

For example, `sumDigits(234)` returns `2 + 3 + 4 = 9`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter an integer and displays its sum.

Section 20.5

**20.12** (Print the characters in a string reversely) Rewrite Exercise 20.9 using a helper method to pass the substring `high` index to the method. The helper method header is:

```java
public static void reverseDisplay(String value, int high)
```

**20.13** (Find the largest number in an array) Write a recursive method that returns the largest integer in an array. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a list of eight integers and displays the largest element.

**20.14** (Find the number of uppercase letters in a string) Write a recursive method to return the number of uppercase letters in a string. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the number of uppercase letters in the string.

**20.15** (Occurrences of a specified character in a string) Rewrite Exercise 20.10 using a helper method to pass the substring `high` index to the method. The helper method header is:

```java
public static int count(String str, char a, int high)
```
*20.16  (Find the number of uppercase letters in an array) Write a recursive method to return the number of uppercase letters in an array of characters. You need to define the following two methods. The second one is a recursive helper method.

```java
public static int count(char[] chars)
public static int count(char[] chars, int high)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a list of characters in one line and displays the number of uppercase letters in the list.

*20.17  (Occurrences of a specified character in an array) Write a recursive method that finds the number of occurrences of a specified character in an array. You need to define the following two methods. The second one is a recursive helper method.

```java
public static int count(char[] chars, char ch)
public static int count(char[] chars, char ch, int high)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a list of characters in one line, and a character, and displays the number of occurrences of the character in the list.

Sections 20.6–20.10

*20.18  (Towers of Hanoi) Modify Listing 20.8, TowersOfHanoi.java, so that the program finds the number of moves needed to move n disks from tower A to tower B. (Hint: Use a static variable and increment it every time the method is called.)

*20.19  (Sierpinski triangle) Revise Listing 20.9 to develop an applet that lets the user use the + and − buttons to increase or decrease the current order by 1, as shown in Figure 20.12a. The initial order is 0. If the current order is 0, the Decrease button is ignored.

*20.20  (Display circles) Write a Java applet that displays ovals, as shown in Figure 20.12b. The ovals are centered in the panel. The gap between two adjacent ovals is 10 pixels, and the gap between the border of the panel and the largest oval is also 10.

*20.21  (Decimal to binary) Write a recursive method that converts a decimal number into a binary number as a string. The method header is:

```java
public static String decimalToBinary(int value)
```
Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a decimal number and displays its binary equivalent.

*20.22 (Decimal to hex) Write a recursive method that converts a decimal number into a hex number as a string. The method header is:

```java
public static String decimalToHex(int value)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a decimal number and displays its hex equivalent.

*20.23 (Binary to decimal) Write a recursive method that parses a binary number as a string into a decimal integer. The method header is:

```java
public static int binaryToDecimal(String binaryString)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a binary string and displays its decimal equivalent.

*20.24 (Hex to decimal) Write a recursive method that parses a hex number as a string into a decimal integer. The method header is:

```java
public static int hexToDecimal(String hexString)
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a hex string and displays its decimal equivalent.

**20.25 (String permutation) Write a recursive method to print all the permutations of a string. For example, for the string abc, the printout is

```
abc
acb
bac
bca
cab
cba
```

*(Hint: Define the following two methods. The second is a helper method.)*

```java
public static void displayPermutation(String s)
public static void displayPermutation(String s1, String s2)
```

The first method simply invokes `displayPermutation(" ", s)`. The second method uses a loop to move a character from `s2` to `s1` and recursively invokes it with a new `s1` and `s2`. The base case is that `s2` is empty and prints `s1` to the console.

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays all its permutations.

**20.26 (Create a maze) Write an applet that will find a path in a maze, as shown in Figure 20.13a. The maze is represented by an 8 × 8 board. The path must meet the following conditions:

- The path is between the upper-left corner cell and the lower-right corner cell in the maze.
- The applet enables the user to place or remove a mark on a cell. A path consists of adjacent unmarked cells. Two cells are said to be adjacent if they are horizontal or vertical neighbors, but not if they are diagonal neighbors.
- The path does not contain cells that form a square. The path in Figure 20.13b, for example, does not meet this condition. (The condition makes a path easy to identify on the board.)
**20.27** (Koch snowflake fractal) The text presented the Sierpinski triangle fractal. In this exercise, you will write an applet to display another fractal, called the Koch snowflake, named after a famous Swedish mathematician. A Koch snowflake is created as follows:

1. Begin with an equilateral triangle, which is considered to be the Koch fractal of order (or level) 0, as shown in Figure 20.14a.
2. Divide each line in the shape into three equal line segments and draw an outward equilateral triangle with the middle line segment as the base to create a Koch fractal of order 1, as shown in Figure 20.14b.
3. Repeat Step 2 to create a Koch fractal of order 2, 3, ..., and so on, as shown in Figure 20.14c–d.


**20.29** (Number of files in a directory) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a directory and displays the number of the files in the directory.

**20.30** (Find words) Write a program that finds all occurrences of a word in all the files under a directory, recursively. Pass the parameters from the command line as follows:

```
java Exercise20_30 dirName word
```

**20.31** (Replace words) Write a program that replaces all occurrences of a word with a new word in all the files under a directory, recursively. Pass the parameters from the command line as follows:

```
java Exercise20_31 dirName oldWord newWord
```
**20.32** (Game: Knight’s Tour) The Knight’s Tour is an ancient puzzle. The objective is to move a knight, starting from any square on a chessboard, to every other square once, as shown in Figure 20.15a. Note that the knight makes only L-shaped moves (two spaces in one direction and one space in a perpendicular direction). As shown in Figure 20.15b, the knight can move to eight squares. Write a program that displays the moves for the knight in an applet, as shown in Figure 20.15c.

(Figure 20.15) (a) A knight traverses all squares once. (b) A knight makes an L-shaped move. (c) An applet displays a Knight’s Tour path.

(Hint: A brute-force approach for this problem is to move the knight from one square to another available square arbitrarily. Using such an approach, your program will take a long time to finish. A better approach is to employ some heuristics. A knight has two, three, four, six, or eight possible moves, depending on its location. Intuitively, you should attempt to move the knight to the least accessible squares first and leave those more accessible squares open, so there will be a better chance of success at the end of the search.)

**20.33** (Game: Knight’s Tour animation) Write an applet for the Knight’s Tour problem. Your applet should let the user move a knight to any starting square and click the Solve button to animate a knight moving along the path, as shown in Figure 20.16.

(Figure 20.16) A knight traverses along the path.

**20.34** (Game: Eight Queens) The Eight Queens problem is to find a solution to place a queen in each row on a chessboard such that no two queens can attack each other. Write a program to solve the Eight Queens problem using recursion and display the result as shown in Figure 20.17.
**20.35** (*H-tree fractal*) An H-tree (introduced at the beginning of this chapter) is a fractal defined as follows:

1. Begin with a letter H. The three lines of the H are of the same length, as shown in Figure 20.1a.
2. The letter H (in its sans-serif form, \(H\)) has four endpoints. Draw an H centered at each of the four endpoints to an H-tree of order 1, as shown in Figure 20.1b. These Hs are half the size of the H that contains the four endpoints.
3. Repeat Step 2 to create an H-tree of order 2, 3, . . . , and so on, as shown in Figure 20.1c–d.

Write an applet that draws an H-tree, as shown in Figure 20.1.

**20.36** (*Hilbert curve*) The Hilbert curve, first described by German mathematician David Hilbert in 1891, is a space-filling curve that visits every point in a square grid with a size of \(2 \times 2\), \(4 \times 4\), \(8 \times 8\), \(16 \times 16\), or any other power of 2.

Write a Java applet that displays a Hilbert curve for the specified order, as shown in Figure 20.18.

**20.37** (*Sierpinski triangle*) Write a program that prompts the user to enter the order and display the filled Sierpinski triangles as shown in Figure 20.19.

**20.38** (*Recursive tree*) Write an applet to display a recursive tree as shown in Figure 20.20.
Revise Exercise 20.38 to move the tree to where the mouse is dragged.

**20.39** *(Dragging the tree)* Revise Exercise 20.38 to move the tree to where the mouse is dragged.
Generics

Objectives

- To describe the benefits of generics (§21.2).
- To use generic classes and interfaces (§21.2).
- To define generic classes and interfaces (§21.3).
- To explain why generic types can improve reliability and readability (§21.3).
- To define and use generic methods and bounded generic types (§21.4).
- To develop a generic sort method to sort an array of Comparable objects (§21.5).
- To use raw types for backward compatibility (§21.6).
- To explain why wildcard generic types are necessary (§21.7).
- To describe generic type erasure and list certain restrictions and limitations on generic types caused by type erasure (§21.8).
- To design and implement generic matrix classes (§21.9).
21.1 Introduction

*Generics enable you to detect errors at compile time rather than at runtime.*

You have used a generic class `ArrayList` in Chapter 11 and generic interface `Comparable` in Chapter 15. *Generics* let you parameterize types. With this capability, you can define a class or a method with generic types that the compiler can replace with concrete types. For example, Java defines a generic `ArrayList` class for storing the elements of a generic type. From this generic class, you can create an `ArrayList` object for holding strings and an `ArrayList` object for holding numbers. Here, strings and numbers are concrete types that replace the generic type.

The key benefit of generics is to enable errors to be detected at compile time rather than at runtime. A generic class or method permits you to specify allowable types of objects that the class or method can work with. If you attempt to use an incompatible object, the compiler will detect that error.

This chapter explains how to define and use generic classes, interfaces, and methods and demonstrates how generics can be used to improve software reliability and readability. It can be intertwined with Chapter 15, Abstract Classes and Interfaces.

21.2 Motivations and Benefits

The motivation for using Java generics is to detect errors at compile time.

Java has allowed you to define generic classes, interfaces, and methods since JDK 1.5. Several interfaces and classes in the Java API are modified using generics. For example, prior to JDK 1.5 the `java.lang.Comparable` interface was defined as shown in Figure 21.1a, but since JDK 1.5 it is modified as shown in Figure 21.1b.

```
package java.lang;

public interface Comparable {
    public int compareTo(Object o);
}
```

(a) Prior to JDK 1.5

```
package java.lang;

public interface Comparable {
    public int compareTo(Object o);
}
```

(b) Since JDK 1.5

*Figure 21.1*  The `java.lang.Comparable` interface was modified in JDK 1.5 with a generic type.

Here, `<T>` represents a *formal generic type*, which can be replaced later with an *actual concrete type*. Replacing a generic type is called a *generic instantiation*. By convention, a single capital letter such as `E` or `T` is used to denote a formal generic type.

To see the benefits of using generics, let us examine the code in Figure 21.2. The statement in Figure 21.2a declares that `c` is a reference variable whose type is `Comparable` and invokes the `compareTo` method to compare a `Date` object with a string. The code compiles fine, but it has a runtime error because a string cannot be compared with a date.

```
Comparable c = new Date();
System.out.println(c.compareTo("red"));
```

(a) Prior to JDK 1.5

```
Comparable<Date> c = new Date();
System.out.println(c.compareTo("red"));
```

(b) Since JDK 1.5

*Figure 21.2*  The new generic type detects possible errors at compile time.
The statement in Figure 21.2b declares that \( c \) is a reference variable whose type is `Comparable<Date>` and invokes the `compareTo` method to compare a `Date` object with a string. This code generates a compile error, because the argument passed to the `compareTo` method must be of the `Date` type. Since the errors can be detected at compile time rather than at runtime, the generic type makes the program more reliable.

**ArrayList** was introduced in Section 11.11, The **ArrayList** Class. This class has been a generic class since JDK 1.5. Figure 21.3 shows the class diagram for **ArrayList** before and since JDK 1.5, respectively.

![Figure 21.3](image)

**ArrayList** is a generic class since JDK 1.5.

For example, the following statement creates a list for strings:

```java
ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
```

You can now add *only strings* into the list. For instance,

```java
list.add("Red");
```

If you attempt to add a nonstring, a compile error will occur. For example, the following statement is now illegal, because `list` can contain only strings.

```java
list.add(new Integer(1));
```

Generic types must be reference types. You cannot replace a generic type with a primitive type such as `int`, `double`, or `char`. For example, the following statement is wrong:

```java
ArrayList<int> intList = new ArrayList<int>();
```

To create an **ArrayList** object for `int` values, you have to use:

```java
ArrayList<Integer> intList = new ArrayList<Integer>();
```

You can add an `int` value to `intList`. For example,

```java
intList.add(5);
```

Java automatically wraps 5 into `new Integer(5)`. This is called *autoboxing*, as introduced in Section 10.13, Automatic Conversion between Primitive Types and Wrapper Class Types.
Casting is not needed to retrieve a value from a list with a specified element type, because the compiler already knows the element type. For example, the following statements create a list that contains strings, add strings to the list, and retrieve strings from the list.

```java
1. ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
2. list.add("Red");
3. list.add("White");
4. String s = list.get(0); // No casting is needed
```

Prior to JDK 1.5, without using generics, you would have had to cast the return value to `String` as:

```java
String s = (String)(list.get(0)); // Casting needed prior to JDK 1.5
```

If the elements are of wrapper types, such as `Integer`, `Double`, and `Character`, you can directly assign an element to a primitive type variable. This is called autounboxing, as introduced in Section 10.13. For example, see the following code:

```java
1. ArrayList<Double> list = new ArrayList<Double>();
2. list.add(5.5); // 5.5 is automatically converted to new Double(5.5)
3. list.add(3.0); // 3.0 is automatically converted to new Double(3.0)
4. Double doubleObject = list.get(0); // No casting is needed
5. double d = list.get(1); // Automatically converted to double
```

In lines 2 and 3, `5.5` and `3.0` are automatically converted into `Double` objects and added to `list`. In line 4, the first element in `list` is assigned to a `Double` variable. No casting is necessary, because `list` is declared for `Double` objects. In line 5, the second element in `list` is assigned to a `double` variable. The object in `list.get(1)` is automatically converted into a primitive type value.

### 21.1 Are there any compile errors in (a) and (b)?

(a) Prior to JDK 1.5

```java
ArrayList dates = new ArrayList();
dates.add(new Date());
dates.add(new String());
```

(b) Since JDK 1.5

```java
ArrayList<Date> dates = new ArrayList<Date>();
dates.add(new Date());
dates.add(new String());
```

### 21.2 What is wrong in (a)? Is the code in (b) correct?

(a) Prior to JDK 1.5

```java
ArrayList dates = new ArrayList();
dates.add(new Date());
Date date = dates.get(0);
```

(b) Since JDK 1.5

```java
ArrayList<Date> dates = new ArrayList<Date>();
dates.add(new Date());
Date date = dates.get(0);
```

### 21.3 What are the benefits of using generic types?

### 21.3 Defining Generic Classes and Interfaces

A generic type can be defined for a class or interface. A concrete type must be specified when using the class to create an object or using the class or interface to declare a reference variable.
Let us revise the stack class in Section 11.12, Case Study: A Custom Stack Class, to generalize the element type with a generic type. The new stack class, named `GenericStack`, is shown in Figure 21.4 and is implemented in Listing 21.1.

**Listing 21.1 GenericStack.java**

```java
public class GenericStack<E> {
    private java.util.ArrayList<E> list = new java.util.ArrayList<E>();

    public int getSize() {
        return list.size();
    }

    public E peek() {
        return list.get(getSize() - 1);
    }

    public void push(E o) {
        list.add(o);
    }

    public E pop() {
        E o = list.get(getSize() - 1);
        list.remove(getSize() - 1);
        return o;
    }

    public boolean isEmpty() {
        return list.isEmpty();
    }

    @Override
    public String toString() {
        return "stack: " + list.toString();
    }
}
```

The following example creates a stack to hold strings and adds three strings to the stack:

```java
GenericStack<String> stack1 = new GenericStack<String>();
stack1.push("London");
stack1.push("Paris");
stack1.push("Berlin");
```
This example creates a stack to hold integers and adds three integers to the stack:

```java
GenericStack<Integer> stack2 = new GenericStack<Integer>();
stack2.push(1); // autoboxing 1 to new Integer(1)
stack2.push(2);
stack2.push(3);
```

Instead of using a generic type, you could simply make the type element `Object`, which can accommodate any object type. However, using generic types can improve software reliability and readability, because certain errors can be detected at compile time rather than at runtime. For example, because `stack1` is declared `GenericStack<String>`, only strings can be added to the stack. It would be a compile error if you attempted to add an integer to `stack1`.

**Caution**
To create a stack of strings, you use `new GenericStack<String>()`. This could mislead you into thinking that the constructor of `GenericStack` should be defined as

```java
public GenericStack<E>()
```

This is wrong. It should be defined as

```java
public GenericStack()
```

**Note**
Occasionally, a generic class may have more than one parameter. In this case, place the parameters together inside the brackets, separated by commas—for example, `<E1, E2, E3>`.

**Note**
You can define a class or an interface as a subtype of a generic class or interface. For example, the `java.lang.String` class is defined to implement the `Comparable` interface in the Java API as follows:

```java
public class String implements Comparable<String>
```

### 21.4 What is the generic definition for `java.lang.Comparable` in the Java API?

### 21.5 Since you create an instance of `ArrayList` of strings using `new ArrayList<String>()`, should the constructor in the `ArrayList` class be defined as

```java
public ArrayList<E>()
```

### 21.6 Can a generic class have multiple generic parameters?

### 21.7 How do you declare a generic type in a class?

### 21.4 Generic Methods

A generic type can be defined for a static method.

You can define generic interfaces (e.g., the `Comparable` interface in Figure 21.1b) and classes (e.g., the `GenericStack` class in Listing 21.1). You can also use generic types to define generic methods. For example, Listing 21.2 defines a generic method `print` (lines 10–14) to print an array of objects. Line 6 passes an array of integer objects to invoke the generic `print` method. Line 7 invokes `print` with an array of strings.
LISTING 21.2  GenericMethodDemo.java

1  public class GenericMethodDemo {
2      public static void main(String[] args) {
3          Integer[] integers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
5
6          GenericMethodDemo.<Integer>print(integers);
7          GenericMethodDemo.<String>print(strings);
8      }
9
10     public static <E> void print(E[] list) {
11            for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
12                System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
13            System.out.println();
14        }
15    }

To declare a generic method, you place the generic type <E> immediately after the keyword static in the method header. For example,

    public static <E> void print(E[] list)

To invoke a generic method, prefix the method name with the actual type in angle brackets. For example,

    GenericMethodDemo.<Integer>print(integers);
    GenericMethodDemo.<String>print(strings);

or simply invoke it as follows:

    print(integers);
    print(strings);

In the latter case, the actual type is not explicitly specified. The compiler automatically discovers the actual type.

A generic type can be specified as a subtype of another type. Such a generic type is called bounded. For example, Listing 21.3 revises the equalArea method in Listing 15.4, TestGeometricObject.java, to test whether two geometric objects have the same area. The bounded generic type <E extends GeometricObject> (line 7) specifies that E is a generic subtype of GeometricObject. You must invoke equalArea by passing two instances of GeometricObject.

LISTING 21.3  BoundedTypeDemo.java

1  public class BoundedTypeDemo {
2      public static void main(String[] args) {
3          Rectangle rectangle = new Rectangle(2, 2);
4          Circle circle = new Circle(2);
5
6          System.out.println("Same area? " +
7              equalArea(rectangle, circle));
8      }
9
10     public static <E extends GeometricObject> boolean equalArea(
11             E object1, E object2) {
12             return object1.getArea() == object2.getArea();
13         }
14     }
Note
An unbounded generic type <E> is the same as <E> extends Object.

Note
To define a generic type for a class, place it after the class name, such as GenericStack<E>. To define a generic type for a method, place the generic type before the method return type, such as <E> void max(E o1, E o2).

21.8 How do you declare a generic method? How do you invoke a generic method?
21.9 What is a bounded generic type?

21.5 Case Study: Sorting an Array of Objects
You can develop a generic method for sorting an array of Comparable objects.

This section presents a generic method for sorting an array of comparable objects. The objects are instances of the Comparable interface, and they are compared using the compareTo method. To test the method, the program sorts an array of integers, an array of double numbers, an array of characters, and an array of strings. The program is shown in Listing 21.4.

LISTING 21.4 GenericSort.java

```java
public class GenericSort {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create an Integer array
        Integer[] intArray = {new Integer(2), new Integer(4), new Integer(3)};

        // Create a Double array
        Double[] doubleArray = {new Double(3.4), new Double(1.3), new Double(-22.1)};

        // Create a Character array
        Character[] charArray = {new Character('a'), new Character('J'), new Character('r')};

        // Create a String array
        String[] stringArray = {"Tom", "Susan", "Kim"};

        // Sort the arrays
        sort(intArray);
        sort(doubleArray);
        sort(charArray);
        sort(stringArray);

        // Display the sorted arrays
        System.out.print("Sorted Integer objects: ");
        printList(intArray);
        System.out.print("Sorted Double objects: ");
        printList(doubleArray);
        System.out.print("Sorted Character objects: ");
        printList(charArray);
        System.out.print("Sorted String objects: ");
        printList(stringArray);
    }
}
```

sort Integer objects
sort Double objects
sort Character objects
sort String objects
```java
/** Sort an array of comparable objects */
public static <E extends Comparable<E>> void sort(E[] list) {
    E currentMin;
    int currentMinIndex;

    for (int i = 0; i < list.length - 1; i++) {
        // Find the minimum in the list[i+1..list.length-2]
        currentMin = list[i];
        currentMinIndex = i;

        for (int j = i + 1; j < list.length; j++) {
            if (currentMin.compareTo(list[j]) > 0) {
                currentMin = list[j];
                currentMinIndex = j;
            }
        }

        // Swap list[i] with list[currentMinIndex] if necessary;
        if (currentMinIndex != i) {
            list[currentMinIndex] = list[i];
            list[i] = currentMin;
        }
    }

    /** Print an array of objects */
    public static void printList(Object[] list) {
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
        System.out.println();
    }
}
```

Sorted Integer objects: 2 3 4
Sorted Double objects: -22.1 1.3 3.4
Sorted Character objects: J a r
Sorted String objects: Kim Susan Tom

The algorithm for the `sort` method is the same as in Listing 6.8, SelectionSort.java. The `sort` method in that program sorts an array of `double` values. The `sort` method in this example can sort an array of any object type, provided that the objects are also instances of the `Comparable` interface. The generic type is defined as `<E extends Comparable<E>>` (line 36). This has two meanings. First, it specifies that `E` is a subtype of `Comparable`. Second, it specifies that the elements to be compared are of the `E` type as well.

The `sort` method uses the `compareTo` method to determine the order of the objects in the array (line 46). `Integer`, `Double`, `Character`, and `String` implement `Comparable`, so the objects of these classes can be compared using the `compareTo` method. The program creates arrays of `Integer` objects, `Double` objects, `Character` objects, and `String` objects (lines 4–16) and invoke the `sort` method to sort these arrays (lines 19–22).

21.10 Given `int[] list = {1, 2, -1}`, can you invoke `sort(list)` using the `sort` method in Listing 21.4?
21.11 Given `int[] list = {new Integer(1), new Integer(2), new Integer(-1)}`, can you invoke `sort(list)` using the `sort` method in Listing 21.4?
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21.6 Raw Types and Backward Compatibility

A generic class or interface used without specifying a concrete type, called a raw type, enables backward compatibility with earlier versions of Java.

You can use a generic class without specifying a concrete type like this:

```java
GenericStack stack = new GenericStack(); // raw type
```

This is roughly equivalent to

```java
GenericStack<Object> stack = new GenericStack<Object>();
```

A generic class such as `GenericStack` and `ArrayList` used without a type parameter is called a raw type. Using raw types allows for backward compatibility with earlier versions of Java. For example, a generic type has been used in `java.lang.Comparable` since JDK 1.5, but a lot of code still uses the raw type `Comparable`, as shown in Listing 21.5:

**Listing 21.5  Max.java**

```java
1 public class Max {
2     /** Return the maximum of two objects */
3     public static Comparable max(Comparable o1, Comparable o2) {
4         if (o1.compareTo(o2) > 0)
5             return o1;
6         else
7             return o2;
8     }
9 }
```

`Comparable o1` and `Comparable o2` are raw type declarations. Be careful: raw types are unsafe. For example, you might invoke the `max` method using

```java
Max.max("Welcome", 23); // 23 is autoboxed into new Integer(23)
```

This would cause a runtime error, because you cannot compare a string with an integer object. The Java compiler displays a warning on line 3 when compiled with the option `-Xlint:unchecked`, as shown in Figure 21.5.

![Figure 21.5](image_url)

A better way to write the `max` method is to use a generic type, as shown in Listing 21.6.

**Listing 21.6  MaxUsingGenericType.java**

```java
1 public class MaxUsingGenericType {
2     /** Return the maximum of two objects */
3     public static <E extends Comparable<E>> E max(E o1, E o2) {
4         if (o1.compareTo(o2) > 0)
5             return o1;
6         else
7             return o2;
8     }
```

A better way to write the `max` method is to use a generic type, as shown in Listing 21.6.
If you invoke the `max` method using

```java
MaxUsingGenericType.max("Welcome", 23);
```

a compile error will be displayed, because the two arguments of the `max` method in `MaxUsingGenericType` must have the same type (e.g., two strings or two integer objects). Furthermore, the type `E` must be a subtype of `Comparable<E>`.

As another example, in the following code you can declare a raw type `stack` in line 1, assign `new GenericStack<String>` to it in line 2, and push a string and an integer object to the stack in lines 3 and 4.

```java
1  GenericStack stack;
2  stack = new GenericStack<String>();
3  stack.push("Welcome to Java");
4  stack.push(new Integer(2));
```

However, line 4 is unsafe because the stack is intended to store strings, but an `Integer` object is added into the stack. Line 3 should be okay, but the compiler will show warnings for both line 3 and line 4, because it cannot follow the semantic meaning of the program. All the compiler knows is that `stack` is a raw type, and performing certain operations is unsafe. Therefore, warnings are displayed to alert potential problems.

**Tip**
Since raw types are unsafe, this book will not use them from here on.

21.12 What is a raw type? Why is a raw type unsafe? Why is the raw type allowed in Java?

21.13 What is the syntax to declare an `ArrayList` reference variable using the raw type and assign a raw type `ArrayList` object to it?

### 21.7 Wildcard Generic Types

*You can use unbounded wildcards, bounded wildcards, or lower-bound wildcards to specify a range for a generic type.*

What are wildcard generic types and why are they needed? Listing 21.7 gives an example to demonstrate the needs. The example defines a generic `max` method for finding the maximum in a stack of numbers (lines 12–22). The main method creates a stack of integer objects, adds three integers to the stack, and invokes the `max` method to find the maximum number in the stack.

**Listing 21.7 WildCardNeedDemo.java**

```java
1  public class WildCardNeedDemo {
2      public static void main(String[] args) {
3          GenericStack<Integer> intStack = new GenericStack<Integer>();
4          intStack.push(1); // 1 is autoboxed into new Integer(1)
5          intStack.push(2);
6          intStack.push(-2);
7          System.out.print("The max number is "+ max(intStack));
8      }
9  }
```

```java
Key Point
```

- 7. return o2;
- 8. }
- 9. }

If you invoke the `max` method using

```java
// 23 is autoboxed into new Integer(23)
MaxUsingGenericType.max("Welcome", 23);
```

```java
Tip
Since raw types are unsafe, this book will not use them from here on.

21.12 What is a raw type? Why is a raw type unsafe? Why is the raw type allowed in Java?

21.13 What is the syntax to declare an `ArrayList` reference variable using the raw type and assign a raw type `ArrayList` object to it?

### 21.7 Wildcard Generic Types

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**Listing 21.7 WildCardNeedDemo.java**

```java
1  public class WildCardNeedDemo {
2      public static void main(String[] args) {
3          GenericStack<Integer> intStack = new GenericStack<Integer>();
4          intStack.push(1); // 1 is autoboxed into new Integer(1)
5          intStack.push(2);
6          intStack.push(-2);
7          System.out.print("The max number is "+ max(intStack));
8      }
9  }
```
** Find the maximum in a stack of numbers */

```java
public static double max(GenericStack<Number> stack) {
    double max = stack.pop().doubleValue(); // Initialize max
    while (!stack.isEmpty()) {
        double value = stack.pop().doubleValue();
        if (value > max)
            max = value;
    }
    return max;
}
```

The program in Listing 21.7 has a compile error in line 8 because `intStack` is not an instance of `GenericStack<Number>`. Thus, you cannot invoke `max(intStack)`.

The fact is that `Integer` is a subtype of `Number`, but `GenericStack<Integer>` is not a subtype of `GenericStack<Number>`. To circumvent this problem, use wildcard generic types. A wildcard generic type has three forms: `?` and `? extends T`, as well as `? super T`, where `T` is a generic type.

The first form, `?`, called an unbounded wildcard, is the same as `? extends Object`. The second form, `? extends T`, called a bounded wildcard, represents `T` or an unknown subtype of `T`. The third form, `? super T`, called a lower-bound wildcard, denotes `T` or an unknown supertype of `T`.

You can fix the error by replacing line 12 in Listing 21.7 as follows:

```java
public static double max(GenericStack<? extends Number> stack) {
    ??
```

`<? extends Number>` is a wildcard type that represents `Number` or a subtype of `Number`, so it is legal to invoke `max(new GenericStack<Integer>()` or `max(new GenericStack<Double>())`.

Listing 21.8 shows an example of using the `?` wildcard in the `print` method that prints objects in a stack and empties the stack. `<?>` is a wildcard that represents any object type. It is equivalent to `<? extends Object>`. What happens if you replace `GenericStack<?>` with `GenericStack<Object>`? It would be wrong to invoke `print(intStack)`, because `intStack` is not an instance of `GenericStack<Object>`. Please note that `GenericStack<Integer>` is not a subtype of `GenericStack<Object>`, even though `Integer` is a subtype of `Object`.

**Listing 21.8 AnyWildCardDemo.java**

```java
public class AnyWildCardDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        GenericStack<Integer> intStack = new GenericStack<Integer>();
        intStack.push(1); // 1 is autoboxed into new Integer(1)
        intStack.push(2);
        intStack.push(-2);
        print(intStack);
    }
}
```

```java
/** Prints objects and empties the stack */
public static void print(GenericStack<?> stack) {
    while (!stack.isEmpty()) {
        System.out.print(stack.pop() + " ");
    }
}
```

**GenericStack<Number>**

**type**

unbounded wildcard

bounded wildcard

lower-bound wildcard

**GenericStack<Integer>**

**type**

 wildcard type
When is the wildcard `<super T>` needed? Consider the example in Listing 21.9. The example creates a stack of strings in `stack1` (line 3) and a stack of objects in `stack2` (line 4), and invokes `add(stack1, stack2)` (line 8) to add the strings in `stack1` into `stack2`. `GenericStack<super T>` is used to declare `stack2` in line 13. If `<super T>` is replaced by `<T>`, a compile error will occur on `add(stack1, stack2)` in line 8, because `stack1`’s type is `GenericStack<String>` and `stack2`’s type is `GenericStack<Object>`. `<super T>` represents type `T` or a supertype of `T`. `Object` is a supertype of `String`.

**LISTING 21.9 SuperWildCardDemo.java**

```java
1 public class SuperWildCardDemo {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         GenericStack<String> stack1 = new GenericStack<String>();
4         GenericStack<Object> stack2 = new GenericStack<Object>();
5         stack2.push("Java");
6         stack2.push(2);
7         stack1.push("Sun");
8         add(stack1, stack2);
9         AnyWildCardDemo.print(stack2);
10    }
11
12    public static <T> void add(GenericStack<T> stack1,  
13                                  GenericStack<? super T> stack2) {
14        while (!stack1.isEmpty())
15            stack2.push(stack1.pop());
16    }
17 }
```

This program will also work if the method header in lines 12–13 is modified as follows:

```java
    public static <T> void add(GenericStack<T> stack1,  
                                  GenericStack<T> stack2)
```

The inheritance relationship involving generic types and wildcard types is summarized in Figure 21.6. In this figure, `A` and `B` represent classes or interfaces, and `E` is a generic type parameter.

![Figure 21.6 The relationship between generic types and wildcard types.](image)

21.14 Is `GenericStack` the same as `GenericStack<Object>`?

21.15 What are an unbounded wildcard, a bounded wildcard, and a lower-bound wildcard?

21.16 What happens if lines 12–13 in Listing 21.9 are changed to

```java
    public static <T> void add(GenericStack<T> stack1,  
                                  GenericStack<T> stack2)
```
21.17 What happens if lines 12–13 in Listing 21.9 are changed to

```java
public static <T> void add(GenericStack<? extends T> stack1,
                           GenericStack<T> stack2)
```

21.8 Erasure and Restrictions on Generics

The information on generics is used by the compiler but is not available at runtime. This is called type erasure.

Generics are implemented using an approach called type erasure: The compiler uses the generic type information to compile the code, but erases it afterward. Thus, the generic information is not available at runtime. This approach enables the generic code to be backward compatible with the legacy code that uses raw types.

The generics are present at compile time. Once the compiler confirms that a generic type is used safely, it converts the generic type to a raw type. For example, the compiler checks whether the following code in (a) uses generics correctly and then translates it into the equivalent code in (b) for runtime use. The code in (b) uses the raw type.

```
ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();
list.add("Oklahoma");
String state = list.get(0);
```

(a)

```
ArrayList list = new ArrayList();
list.add("Oklahoma");
String state = (String)list.get(0);
```

(b)

When generic classes, interfaces, and methods are compiled, the compiler replaces the generic type with the `Object` type. For example, the compiler would convert the following method in (a) into (b).

```
public static <E> void print(E[] list) {
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
        System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
    System.out.println();
}
```

(a)

```
public static void print(Object[] list) {
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
        System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
    System.out.println();
}
```

(b)

If a generic type is bounded, the compiler replaces it with the bounded type. For example, the compiler would convert the following method in (a) into (b).

```
public static <E extends GeometricObject> boolean equalArea(
    E object1,
    E object2) {
    return object1.getArea() ==
            object2.getArea();
}
```

(a)

```
public static boolean equalArea(
    GeometricObject object1,
    GeometricObject object2) {
    return object1.getArea() ==
            object2.getArea();
}
```

(b)

It is important to note that a generic class is shared by all its instances regardless of its actual concrete type. Suppose `list1` and `list2` are created as follows:

```
ArrayList<String> list1 = new ArrayList<String>();
ArrayList<Integer> list2 = new ArrayList<Integer>();
```
Although `ArrayList<String>` and `ArrayList<Integer>` are two types at compile time, only one `ArrayList` class is loaded into the JVM at runtime. `list1` and `list2` are both instances of `ArrayList`, so the following statements display `true`:

```java
System.out.println(list1 instanceof ArrayList);
System.out.println(list2 instanceof ArrayList);
```

However, the expression `list1 instanceof ArrayList<String>` is wrong. Since `ArrayList<String>` is not stored as a separate class in the JVM, using it at runtime makes no sense.

Because generic types are erased at runtime, there are certain restrictions on how generic types can be used. Here are some of the restrictions:

**Restriction 1: Cannot Use new E()**

You cannot create an instance using a generic type parameter. For example, the following statement is wrong:

```java
E object = new E();
```

The reason is that `new E()` is executed at runtime, but the generic type `E` is not available at runtime.

**Restriction 2: Cannot Use new E[]**

You cannot create an array using a generic type parameter. For example, the following statement is wrong:

```java
E[] elements = new E[capacity];
```

You can circumvent this limitation by creating an array of the `Object` type and then casting it to `E[]`, as follows:

```java
E[] elements = (E[]) new Object[capacity];
```

However, casting to `(E[])` causes an unchecked compile warning. The warning occurs because the compiler is not certain that casting will succeed at runtime. For example, if `E` is `String` and `new Object[]` is an array of `Integer` objects, `(String[]) (new Object[])` will cause a `ClassCastException`. This type of compile warning is a limitation of Java generics and is unavoidable.

Generic array creation using a generic class is not allowed, either. For example, the following code is wrong:

```java
ArrayList<String>[] list = new ArrayList<String>[10];
```

You can use the following code to circumvent this restriction:

```java
ArrayList<String>[] list = (ArrayList<String>[]) new ArrayList[10];
```

However, you will still get a compile warning.

**Restriction 3: A Generic Type Parameter of a Class Is Not Allowed in a Static Context**

Since all instances of a generic class have the same runtime class, the static variables and methods of a generic class are shared by all its instances. Therefore, it is illegal to refer to
Chapter 21 Generics

✓ Point
✓ Check
Key
Point

21.18 What is erasure? Why are Java generics implemented using erasure?

21.19 If your program uses `ArrayList<String>` and `ArrayList<Date>`, does the JVM load both of them?

21.20 Can you create an instance using `new E()` for a generic type `E`? Why?

21.21 Can a method that uses a generic class parameter be static? Why?

21.22 Can you define a custom generic exception class? Why?

21.9 Case Study: Generic Matrix Class

This section presents a case study on designing classes for matrix operations using generic types.

The addition and multiplication operations for all matrices are similar except that their element types differ. Therefore, you can design a superclass that describes the common operations shared by matrices of all types regardless of their element types, and you can create subclasses tailored to specific types of matrices. This case study gives implementations for two types: `int` and `Rational`. For the `int` type, the wrapper class `Integer` should be used to wrap an `int` value into an object, so that the object is passed in the methods for operations.

The class diagram is shown in Figure 21.7. The methods `addMatrix` and `multiplyMatrix` add and multiply two matrices of a generic type `E[][]`. The static method `printResult` displays the matrices, the operator, and their result. The methods `add`, `multiply`, and `zero` are abstract, because their implementations depend on the specific type of the array elements. For example, the `zero()` method returns 0 for the `Integer` type and a generic type parameter for a class in a static method, field, or initializer. For example, the following code is illegal:

```java
public class Test<E> {
    public static void m(E o1) { // Illegal
}

    public static E o1; // Illegal
    static {
        E o2; // Illegal
    }
}
```

Restriction 4: Exception Classes Cannot Be Generic

A generic class may not extend `java.lang.Throwable`, so the following class declaration would be illegal:

```java
public class MyException<T> extends Exception {
}
```

Why? If it were allowed, you would have a `catch` clause for `MyException<T>` as follows:

```java
try {
    ...
} catch (MyException<T> ex) {
    ...
}
```

The JVM has to check the exception thrown from the `try` clause to see if it matches the type specified in a `catch` clause. This is impossible, because the type information is not present at runtime.

21.19 If your program uses `ArrayList<String>` and `ArrayList<Date>`, does the JVM load both of them?

21.20 Can you create an instance using `new E()` for a generic type `E`? Why?

21.21 Can a method that uses a generic class parameter be static? Why?

21.22 Can you define a custom generic exception class? Why?

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21.9 Case Study: Generic Matrix Class

**Figure 21.7** The `GenericMatrix` class is an abstract superclass for `IntegerMatrix` and `RationalMatrix`.

0/1 for the `Rational` type. These methods will be implemented in the subclasses in which the matrix element type is specified.

`IntegerMatrix` and `RationalMatrix` are concrete subclasses of `GenericMatrix`. These two classes implement the `add`, `multiply`, and `zero` methods defined in the `GenericMatrix` class.

Listing 21.10 implements the `GenericMatrix` class. `<E extends Number>` in line 1 specifies that the generic type is a subtype of `Number`. Three abstract methods—`add`, `multiply`, and `zero`—are defined in lines 3, 6, and 9. These methods are abstract because we cannot implement them without knowing the exact type of the elements. The `addMatrix` (lines 12–30) and `multiplyMatrix` (lines 33–57) methods implement the methods for adding and multiplying two matrices. All these methods must be nonstatic, because they use generic type `E` for the class. The `printResult` method (lines 60–84) is static because it is not tied to specific instances.

The matrix element type is a generic subtype of `Number`. This enables you to use an object of any subclass of `Number` as long as you can implement the abstract `add`, `multiply`, and `zero` methods in subclasses.

The `addMatrix` and `multiplyMatrix` methods (lines 12–57) are concrete methods. They are ready to use as long as the `add`, `multiply`, and `zero` methods are implemented in the subclasses.

The `addMatrix` and `multiplyMatrix` methods check the bounds of the matrices before performing operations. If the two matrices have incompatible bounds, the program throws an exception (lines 16, 36).

**Listing 21.10** `GenericMatrix.java`

```java
public abstract class GenericMatrix<E extends Number> {
    /** Abstract method for adding two elements of the matrices */
    protected abstract E add(E o1, E o2);

    /** Abstract method for multiplying two elements of the matrices */
    protected abstract E multiply(E o1, E o2);

    /** Abstract method for defining zero for the matrix element */
    protected abstract E zero();

    /** Add two matrices */
    public E[][] addMatrix(E[][] matrix1, E[][] matrix2) {
        // Check bounds of the two matrices
        if ((matrix1.length != matrix2.length) ||
            (matrix1[0].length != matrix2[0].length)) {
            throw new RuntimeException("The matrices do not have the same size");
        }
    }
}
```
E[][] result =
    (E[][])new Number[matrix1.length][matrix1[0].length];

    // Perform addition
    for (int i = 0; i < result.length; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < result[i].length; j++) {
            result[i][j] = add(matrix1[i][j], matrix2[i][j]);
        }

    return result;

/** Multiply two matrices */
public E[][] multiplyMatrix(E[][] matrix1, E[][] matrix2) {
    // Check bounds
    if (matrix1[0].length != matrix2.length) {
        throw new RuntimeException(
            "The matrices do not have compatible size";
    }

    // Create result matrix
    E[][] result =
        (E[][])new Number[matrix1.length][matrix2[0].length];

    // Perform multiplication of two matrices
    for (int i = 0; i < result.length; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < result[0].length; j++) {
            result[i][j] = zero();
        }

    for (int k = 0; k < matrix1[0].length; k++)
        result[i][j] = add(result[i][j],
                           multiply(matrix1[i][k], matrix2[k][j]));

    return result;
}

/** Print matrices, the operator, and their operation result */
public static void printResult(
    Number[][] m1, Number[][] m2, Number[][] m3, char op) {
    for (int i = 0; i < m1.length; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < m1[0].length; j++)
            System.out.print(" "+m1[i][j]);

    if (i == m1.length / 2)
        System.out.print(" + op + ");
    else
        System.out.print(" ");

    for (int j = 0; j < m2.length; j++)
        System.out.print(" "+m2[i][j]);

    if (i == m1.length / 2)
        System.out.print(" = ");
    else
        System.out.print(" ");

    for (int j = 0; j < m3.length; j++)
        System.out.print(" ");
Listing 21.11 implements the IntegerMatrix class. The class extends GenericMatrix<Integer> in line 1. After the generic instantiation, the add method in GenericMatrix<Integer> is now Integer add(Integer o1, Integer o2). The add, multiply, and zero methods are implemented for Integer objects. These methods are still protected, because they are invoked only by the addMatrix and multiplyMatrix methods.

**Listing 21.11 IntegerMatrix.java**

```java
public class IntegerMatrix extends GenericMatrix<Integer> {
    @Override /** Add two integers */
    protected Integer add(Integer o1, Integer o2) {
        return o1 + o2;
    }

    @Override /** Multiply two integers */
    protected Integer multiply(Integer o1, Integer o2) {
        return o1 * o2;
    }

    @Override /** Specify zero for an integer */
    protected Integer zero() {
        return 0;
    }
}
```

Listing 21.12 implements the RationalMatrix class. The Rational class was introduced in Listing 15.13 Rational.java. Rational is a subtype of Number. The RationalMatrix class extends GenericMatrix<Rational> in line 1. After the generic instantiation, the add method in GenericMatrix<Rational> is now Rational add(Rational r1, Rational r2). The add, multiply, and zero methods are implemented for Rational objects. These methods are still protected, because they are invoked only by the addMatrix and multiplyMatrix methods.

**Listing 21.12 RationalMatrix.java**

```java
public class RationalMatrix extends GenericMatrix<Rational> {
    @Override /** Add two rational numbers */
    protected Rational add(Rational r1, Rational r2) {
        return r1.add(r2);
    }

    @Override /** Multiply two rational numbers */
    protected Rational multiply(Rational r1, Rational r2) {
        return r1.multiply(r2);
    }

    @Override /** Specify zero for a Rational number */
    protected Rational zero() {
        return new Rational(0, 1);
    }
}
```
Listing 21.13 gives a program that creates two `Integer` matrices (lines 4–5) and an `IntegerMatrix` object (line 8), and adds and multiplies two matrices in lines 12 and 16.

**LISTING 21.13  TestIntegerMatrix.java**

```java
public class TestIntegerMatrix {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create Integer arrays m1, m2
        Integer[][] m1 = new Integer[][]{{1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6}, {1, 1, 1}};
        Integer[][] m2 = new Integer[][]{{1, 1, 1}, {2, 2, 2}, {0, 0, 0}};

        // Create an instance of IntegerMatrix
        IntegerMatrix integerMatrix = new IntegerMatrix();

        System.out.println("m1 + m2 is ");
        GenericMatrix.printResult(m1, m2, integerMatrix.addMatrix(m1, m2), '+');

        System.out.println("m1 * m2 is ");
        GenericMatrix.printResult(m1, m2, integerMatrix.multiplyMatrix(m1, m2), '*');
    }
}
```

```
m1 + m2 is
1 2 3     1 1 1     2 3 4
4 5 6 + 2 2 2 = 6 7 8
1 1 1     0 0 0     1 1 1

m1 * m2 is
1 2 3     1 1 1     5 5 5
4 5 6 * 2 2 2 = 14 14 14
1 1 1     0 0 0     3 3 3
```

Listing 21.14 gives a program that creates two `Rational` matrices (lines 4–10) and a `RationalMatrix` object (line 13) and adds and multiplies two matrices in lines 17 and 21.

**LISTING 21.14  TestRationalMatrix.java**

```java
public class TestRationalMatrix {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create two Rational arrays m1 and m2
        Rational[][] m1 = new Rational[3][3];
        Rational[][] m2 = new Rational[3][3];
        for (int i = 0; i < m1.length; i++)
            for (int j = 0; j < m1[0].length; j++) {
                m1[i][j] = new Rational(i + 1, j + 5);
                m2[i][j] = new Rational(i + 1, j + 6);
            }

        // Create an instance of RationalMatrix
        RationalMatrix rationalMatrix = new RationalMatrix();

        System.out.println("m1 + m2 is ");
        GenericMatrix.printResult(m1, m2, rationalMatrix.addMatrix(m1, m2), '+');

        System.out.println("m1 * m2 is ");
        GenericMatrix.printResult(m1, m2, rationalMatrix.multiplyMatrix(m1, m2), '*');
    }
}
```
20   GenericMatrix.printResult(
21     m1, m2, rationalMatrix.multiplyMatrix(m1, m2), '*');
22 }
23 }

m1 + m2 is
1/5 1/6 1/7   1/6 1/7 1/8     11/30 13/42 15/56
2/5 1/3 2/7   +  1/3 2/7 1/4  =  11/15 13/21 15/28
3/5 1/2 3/7   1/2 3/7 3/8     11/10 13/14 45/56

m1 * m2 is
1/5 1/6 1/7   1/6 1/7 1/8     101/630 101/735 101/840
2/5 1/3 2/7   *  1/3 2/7 1/4  =  101/315 202/735 101/420
3/5 1/2 3/7   1/2 3/7 3/8     101/210 101/245 101/280

21.23 Why are the add, multiple, and zero methods defined abstract in the GenericMatrix class?

21.24 How are the add, multiple, and zero methods implemented in the IntegerMatrix class?

21.25 How are the add, multiple, and zero methods implemented in the RationalMatrix class?

21.26 What would be wrong if the printResult method defined as follows?

\[
\text{public static void printResult(} \\
\quad \text{E[][] m1, E[][] m2, E[][] m3, char op) }
\]

Key Terms

actual concrete type 770
bounded generic type 775
bounded wildcard 780
(formal extends E) 780
generic instantiation 770
lower-bound wildcard 780
raw type 778
unbounded wildcard (<>) 780

Chapter Summary

1. Generics give you the capability to parameterize types. You can define a class or a method with generic types, which the compiler replaces with concrete types.

2. The key benefit of generics is to enable errors to be detected at compile time rather than at runtime.

3. A generic class or method permits you to specify allowable types of objects that the class or method can work with. If you attempt to use a class or method with an incompatible object, the compiler will detect the error.

4. A generic type defined in a class, interface, or a static method is called a formal generic type, which can be replaced later with an actual concrete type. Replacing a generic type is called a generic instantiation.
5. A generic class such as `ArrayList` used without a type parameter is called a *raw type*. Use of raw types is allowed for backward compatibility with the earlier versions of Java.

6. A wildcard generic type has three forms: `?` and `? extends T`, and `? super T`, where `T` is a generic type. The first form, `?`, called an *unbounded wildcard*, is the same as `? extends Object`. The second form, `? extends T`, called a *bounded wildcard*, represents `T` or an unknown subtype of `T`. The third form, `? super T`, called a *lower-bound wildcard*, denotes `T` or an unknown supertype of `T`.

7. Generics are implemented using an approach called *type erasure*. The compiler uses the generic type information to compile the code but erases it afterward, so the generic information is not available at runtime. This approach enables the generic code to be backward compatible with the legacy code that uses raw types.

8. You cannot create an instance using a generic type parameter.

9. You cannot create an array using a generic type parameter.

10. You cannot use a generic type parameter of a class in a static context.

11. Generic type parameters cannot be used in exception classes.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

21.1 *(Revising Listing 21.1)* Revise the `GenericStack` class in Listing 21.1 to implement it using an array rather than an `ArrayList`. You should check the array size before adding a new element to the stack. If the array is full, create a new array that doubles the current array size and copy the elements from the current array to the new array.

21.2 *(Implement `GenericStack` using inheritance)* In Listing 21.1, `GenericStack` is implemented using composition. Create a new stack class that extends `ArrayList`. Draw the UML diagram for the classes and then implement `GenericStack`. Write a test program that prompts the user to enter five strings and displays them in reverse order.

21.3 *(Distinct elements in `ArrayList`)* Write the following method that returns a new `ArrayList`. The new list contains the non-duplicate elements from the original list.

```java
public static <E> ArrayList<E> removeDuplicates(ArrayList<E> list)
```

21.4 *(Generic insertion sort)* Implement the following method using insertion sort.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>> void insertionSort(E[] list)
```

21.5 *(Maximum element in an array)* Implement the following method that returns the maximum element in an array.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>> E max(E[] list)
```
21.6  (Maximum element in a two-dimensional array) Write a generic method that returns the maximum element in a two-dimensional array.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<? super E>> E max(E[][] list)
```

21.7  (Generic binary search) Implement the following method using binary search.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<? super E>>
int binarySearch(E[] list, E key)
```

21.8  (Shuffle ArrayList) Write the following method that shuffles an `ArrayList`:

```java
public static <E> void shuffle(ArrayList<E> list)
```

21.9  (Sort ArrayList) Write the following method that sorts an `ArrayList`:

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<? super E>>
void sort(ArrayList<E> list)
```

21.10 (Largest element in ArrayList) Write the following method that returns the largest element in an `ArrayList`:

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<? super E>> E max(ArrayList<E> list)
```
LISTS, STACKS, QUEUES, AND PRIORITY QUEUES

Objectives

- To explore the relationship between interfaces and classes in the Java Collections Framework hierarchy (§22.2).
- To use the common methods defined in the Collection interface for operating collections (§22.2).
- To use the Iterator interface to traverse the elements in a collection (§22.3).
- To use a for-each loop to traverse the elements in a collection (§22.3).
- To explore how and when to use ArrayList or LinkedList to store a list of elements (§22.4).
- To compare elements using the Comparable interface and the Comparator interface (§22.5).
- To use the static utility methods in the Collections class for sorting, searching, shuffling lists, and finding the largest and smallest element in collections (§22.6).
- To develop a multiple bouncing balls application using ArrayList (§22.7).
- To distinguish between Vector and ArrayList and to use the Stack class for creating stacks (§22.8).
- To explore the relationships among Collection, Queue, LinkedList, and PriorityQueue and to create priority queues using the PriorityQueue class (§22.9).
- To use stacks to write a program to evaluate expressions (§22.10).
22.1 Introduction

Choosing the best data structures and algorithms for a particular task is one of the keys to developing high-performance software.

A data structure is a collection of data organized in some fashion. The structure not only stores data but also supports operations for accessing and manipulating the data.

In object-oriented thinking, a data structure, also known as a container or container object, is an object that stores other objects, referred to as data or elements. To define a data structure is essentially to define a class. The class for a data structure should use data fields to store data and provide methods to support such operations as search, insertion, and deletion. To create a data structure is therefore to create an instance from the class. You can then apply the methods on the instance to manipulate the data structure, such as inserting an element into or deleting an element from the data structure.

Section 11.11 introduced the ArrayList class, which is a data structure to store elements in a list. Java provides several more data structures that can be used to organize and manipulate data efficiently. These are commonly known as Java Collections Framework. We will introduce the applications of lists, vectors, stacks, queues, and priority queues in this chapter and sets and maps in the next chapter. The implementation of these data structures will be discussed in Chapters 26–29.

22.2 Collections

The Collection interface defines the common operations for lists, vectors, stacks, queues, priority queues, and sets.

The Java Collections Framework supports two types of containers:

- One for storing a collection of elements is simply called a collection.
- The other, for storing key/value pairs, is called a map.

Maps are efficient data structures for quickly searching an element using a key. We will introduce maps in the next chapter. Now we turn our attention to collections.

There are different kinds of collections:

- Sets store a group of nonduplicate elements.
- Lists store an ordered collection of elements.
- Queues store objects that are processed in first-in, first-out fashion.

The common features of these collections are defined in the interfaces, and implementations are provided in concrete classes, as shown in Figure 22.1.

Note

All the interfaces and classes defined in the Java Collections Framework are grouped in the java.util package.

Design Guide

The design of the Java Collections Framework is an excellent example of using interfaces, abstract classes, and concrete classes. The interfaces define the framework. The abstract classes provide partial implementation. The concrete classes implement the interfaces with concrete data structures. Providing an abstract class that partially implements an interface makes it convenient for the user to write the code. The user can simply define a concrete class that extends the abstract class rather implements all the methods in the interface. The abstract classes such as AbstractCollection are provided for convenience. For this reason, they are called convenience abstract classes.
The Collection interface is the root interface for manipulating a collection of objects. Its public methods are listed in Figure 22.2. The AbstractCollection class provides partial implementation for the Collection interface. It implements all the methods in Collection except the size and iterator methods. These are implemented in appropriate concrete subclasses.

The Collection interface provides the basic operations for adding and removing elements in a collection. The add method adds an element to the collection. The addAll method adds all the elements in the specified collection to this collection. The remove method removes an element from the collection. The removeAll method removes the elements from this collection that are present in the specified collection. The retainAll method retains the elements in this collection that are also present in the specified collection. All these methods return boolean. The return value is true if the collection is changed as a result of the method execution. The clear() method simply removes all the elements from the collection.

**Note**
The methods addAll, removeAll, and retainAll are similar to the set union, difference, and intersection operations.

The Collection interface provides various query operations. The size method returns the number of elements in the collection. The contains method checks whether the collection contains the specified element. The containsAll method checks whether the collection contains all the elements in the specified collection. The isEmpty method returns true if the collection is empty.

The Collection interface provides the toArray() method, which returns an array representation for the collection.

**Design Guide**
Some of the methods in the Collection interface cannot be implemented in the concrete subclass. In this case, the method would throw java.lang.UnsupportedOperationException, a subclass of RuntimeException.
This is a good design that you can use in your project. If a method has no meaning in the subclass, you can implement it as follows:

```java
public void someMethod() {
    throw new UnsupportedOperationException("Method not supported");
}
```

Listing 22.1 gives an example to use the methods defined in the `Collection` interface.

### Listing 22.1 TestCollection.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestCollection {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ArrayList<String> collection1 = new ArrayList<String>();
        collection1.add("New York");
        collection1.add("Atlanta");
        collection1.add("Dallas");
        collection1.add("Madison");
    }
}
```
System.out.println("A list of cities in collection1:");
System.out.println(collection1);

System.out.println("\nIs Dallas in collection1? "+collection1.contains("Dallas");
collection1.remove("Dallas");
System.out.println("\n"+collection1.size()+" cities are in collection1 now");

Collection<String> collection2 = new ArrayList<String>();
collection2.add("Seattle");
collection2.add("Portland");
collection2.add("Los Angeles");
collection2.add("Atlanta");

System.out.println("\nA list of cities in collection2:");
System.out.println(collection2);

ArrayList<String> c1 = (ArrayList<String>)(collection1.clone());
c1.addAll(collection2);
System.out.println("\nCities in collection1 or collection2: ");
System.out.println(c1);

c1 = (ArrayList<String>)(collection1.clone());
c1.addAll(collection2);
System.out.println("\nCities in collection1 and collection2: ");
System.out.println(c1);

c1 = (ArrayList<String>)(collection1.clone());
c1.addAll(collection2);
System.out.println("\nCities in collection1, but not in 2: ");
System.out.println(c1);

A list of cities in collection1:
[New York, Atlanta, Dallas, Madison]
Is Dallas in collection1? true
3 cities are in collection1 now
A list of cities in collection2:
[Seattle, Portland, Los Angeles, Atlanta]
Cities in collection1 or collection2:
[New York, Atlanta, Madison, Seattle, Portland, Los Angeles, Atlanta]
Cities in collection1 and collection2: [Atlanta]
Cities in collection1, but not in 2: [New York, Madison]

The program creates a concrete collection object using ArrayList (line 5), and invokes the Collection interface’s contains method (line 15), remove method (line 17), size method (line 18), addAll method (line 31), retainAll method (line 36), and removeAll method (line 41).

For this example, we use ArrayList. You can use any concrete class of Collection such as HashSet, LinkedList, Vector, and Stack to replace ArrayList to test these methods defined in the Collection interface.

Every concrete class except java.util.PriorityQueue in the Java Collections Framework implements the clone() method. The program creates a copy of an array list (lines 30,
35, 40). The purpose of this is to keep the original array list intact and use its copy to perform `addAll`, `retainAll`, and `removeAll` operations.

**Note**

All the concrete classes in the Java Collections Framework implement the `java.lang.Cloneable` and `java.io.Serializable` interfaces except that `java.util.PriorityQueue` does not implement the `Cloneable` interface. Thus, all instances except priority queues can be cloned and all instances can be serialized.

### 22.1 What is a data structure?

### 22.2 Describe the Java Collections Framework. List the interfaces, convenience abstract classes, and concrete classes under the `Collection` interface.

### 22.3 Can a collection object be cloned and serialized?

### 22.4 What method do you use to add all the elements from one collection to another collection?

### 22.5 When should a method throw an `UnsupportedOperationException`?

### 22.3 Iterators

Each collection has an Iterator object that can be used to traverse all the elements in the collection.

**Iterator** is a classic design pattern for walking through a data structure without having to expose the details of how data is stored in the data structure.

The `Collection` interface extends the `Iterable` interface. The `Iterable` interface defines the `iterator` method, which returns an iterator. The `Iterator` interface provides a uniform way for traversing elements in various types of collections. The `iterator` method in the `Collection` interface returns an instance of the `Iterator` interface, as shown in Figure 22.2, which provides sequential access to the elements in the collection using the `next()` method. You can also use the `hasNext()` method to check whether there are more elements in the iterator, and the `remove()` method to remove the last element returned by the iterator.

Listing 22.2 gives an example that uses the iterator to traverse all the elements in an array list.

### Listing 22.2 TestIterator.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestIterator {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Collection<String> collection = new ArrayList<String>();
        collection.add("New York");
        collection.add("Atlanta");
        collection.add("Dallas");
        collection.add("Madison");

        Iterator<String> iterator = collection.iterator();
        while (iterator.hasNext()) {
            System.out.println(iterator.next().toUpperCase() + " ");
        }
    }
}
```

NEW YORK ATLANTA DALLAS MADISON
22.4 Lists

The program creates a concrete collection object using **ArrayList** (line 5) and adds four strings into the list (lines 6–9). The program then obtains an iterator for the collection (line 11) and uses the iterator to traverse all the strings in the list and displays the strings in uppercase (lines 12–14).

**Tip**

You can simplify the code in lines 11–14 using a for-each loop without using an iterator, as follows:

```
for (String element: collection)
    System.out.print(element.toUpperCase() + " ");
```

This loop is read as “for each element in the collection, do the following.” The for-each loop can be used for arrays (see Section 6.2.7) as well as any instance of **Iterable**.

22.6 How do you obtain an iterator from a collection object?

22.7 What method do you use to obtain an element in the collection from an iterator?

22.8 Can you use a for-each loop to traverse the elements in any instance of **Collection**?

22.9 When using a for-each loop to traverse all elements in a collection, do you need to use the **next()** or **hasNext()** methods in an iterator?

22.4 Lists

The **List** interface extends the **Collection** interface and defines a collection for storing elements in a sequential order. To create a list, use one of its two concrete classes: **ArrayList** or **LinkedList**.

We used **ArrayList** to test the methods in the **Collection** interface in the preceding sections. Now we will examine **ArrayList** in more depth. We will also introduce another useful list, **LinkedList**, in this section.

22.4.1 The Common Methods in the **List** Interface

**ArrayList** and **LinkedList** are defined under the **List** interface. The **List** interface extends **Collection** to define an ordered collection with duplicates allowed. The **List** interface adds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>add(int index, Object element)</code>: boolean</td>
<td>Adds a new element at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>addAll(int index, Collection&lt;? extends E&gt; c)</code>: boolean</td>
<td>Adds all the elements in c to this list at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>get(int index)</code>: E</td>
<td>Returns the element in this list at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>indexOf(Object element)</code>: int</td>
<td>Returns the index of the first matching element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>lastIndexOf(Object element)</code>: int</td>
<td>Returns the index of the last matching element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>listIterator()</code>: ListIterator&lt;E&gt;</td>
<td>Returns the list iterator for the elements in this list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>listIterator(int startIndex)</code>: ListIterator&lt;E&gt;</td>
<td>Returns the iterator for the elements from startIndex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>remove(int index)</code>: E</td>
<td>Removes the element at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>set(int index, Object element)</code>: Object</td>
<td>Sets the element at the specified index.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>subList(int fromIndex, int toIndex)</code>: List&lt;E&gt;</td>
<td>Returns a sublist from fromIndex to toIndex-1.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 22.3** The **List** interface stores elements in sequence and permits duplicates.
position-oriented operations, as well as a new list iterator that enables the user to traverse the list bidirectionally. The methods introduced in the `List` interface are shown in Figure 22.3.

The `add(index, element)` method is used to insert an element at a specified index, and the `addAll(index, collection)` method to insert a collection of elements at a specified index. The `remove(index)` method is used to remove an element at the specified index from the list. A new element can be set at the specified index using the `set(index, element)` method.

The `indexOf(element)` method is used to obtain the index of the specified element’s first occurrence in the list, and the `lastIndexOf(element)` method to obtain the index of its last occurrence. A sublist can be obtained by using the `subList(fromIndex, toIndex)` method.

The `listIterator()` or `listIterator(startIndex)` method returns an instance of `ListIterator`. The `ListIterator` interface extends the `Iterator` interface to add bidirectional traversal of the list. The methods in `ListIterator` are listed in Figure 22.4.

![ListIterator interface](image)

**FIGURE 22.4** `ListIterator` enables traversal of a list bidirectionally.

The `add(element)` method inserts the specified element into the list. The element is inserted immediately before the next element that would be returned by the `next()` method defined in the `Iterator` interface, if any, and after the element that would be returned by the `previous()` method, if any. If the list doesn’t contain any elements, the new element becomes the sole element in the list. The `set(element)` method can be used to replace the last element returned by the `next` method or the `previous` method with the specified element.

The `hasNext()` method defined in the `Iterator` interface is used to check whether the iterator has more elements when traversed in the forward direction, and the `hasPrevious()` method to check whether the iterator has more elements when traversed in the backward direction.

The `next()` method defined in the `Iterator` interface returns the next element in the iterator, and the `previous()` method returns the previous element in the iterator. The `nextIndex()` method returns the index of the next element in the iterator, and the `previousIndex()` returns the index of the previous element in the iterator.

The `AbstractList` class provides a partial implementation for the `List` interface. The `AbstractSequentialList` class extends `AbstractList` to provide support for linked lists.

### 22.4.2 The `ArrayList` and `LinkedList` Classes

The `ArrayList` class and the `LinkedList` class are two concrete implementations of the `List` interface. `ArrayList` stores elements in an array. The array is dynamically created. If
the capacity of the array is exceeded, a larger new array is created and all the elements from
the current array are copied to the new array. **List** stores elements in a **linked list**.
Which of the two classes you use depends on your specific needs. If you need to support ran-
dom access through an index without inserting or removing elements at the beginning of the
list, **Array** offers the most efficient collection. If, however, your application requires
the insertion or deletion of elements at the beginning of the list, you should choose **List**. A list can grow or shrink dynamically. Once it is created, an array is fixed. If
your application does not require the insertion or deletion of elements, an array is the most
efficient data structure.

**Array** is a resizable-array implementation of the **List** interface. It also provides
methods for manipulating the size of the array used internally to store the list, as shown in
Figure 22.5. Each **Array** instance has a capacity, which is the size of the array used to
store the elements in the list. It is always at least as large as the list size. As elements are added
to an **Array**, its capacity grows automatically. An **Array** does not automatically
shrink. You can use the `trimToSize()` method to reduce the array capacity to the size of the list. An **Array** can be constructed using its no-arg constructor, **Array(Collection)**,
or **ArrayList(initialCapacity)**.

**Figure 22.5** **Array** implements **List** using an array.

**Linked List** is a linked list implementation of the **List** interface. In addition to imple-
menting the **List** interface, this class provides the methods for retrieving, inserting, and
removing elements from both ends of the list, as shown in Figure 22.6. A **Linked List** can be
constructed using its no-arg constructor or **Linked List(Collection)**.

**Figure 22.6** **Linked List** provides methods for adding and inserting elements at both ends of the list.
Listing 22.3 gives a program that creates an array list filled with numbers and inserts new elements into specified locations in the list. The example also creates a linked list from the array list and inserts and removes elements from the list. Finally, the example traverses the list forward and backward.

**LISTING 22.3 TestArrayAndLinkedList.java**

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestArrayAndLinkedList {
    public static void main(String[] args) {

        List<Integer> arrayList = new ArrayList<Integer>();
        arrayList.add(1);  // 1 is autoboxed to new Integer(1)
        arrayList.add(2);
        arrayList.add(3);
        arrayList.add(1);
        arrayList.add(4);
        arrayList.add(0, 10);
        arrayList.add(3, 30);

        System.out.println("A list of integers in the array list:");
        System.out.println(arrayList);

        LinkedList<Object> linkedList = new LinkedList<Object>(arrayList);
        linkedList.add(1, "red");
        linkedList.removeLast();
        linkedList.addFirst("green");

        System.out.println("Display the linked list forward:");
        ListIterator<Object> listIterator = linkedList.listIterator();
        while (listIterator.hasNext()) {
            System.out.print(listIterator.next() + " ");
        }
        System.out.println();

        System.out.println("Display the linked list backward:");  
        listIterator = linkedList.listIterator(linkedList.size());
        while (listIterator.hasPrevious()) {
            System.out.print(listIterator.previous() + " ");
        }
    }
}
```

A list of integers in the array list:
[10, 1, 2, 30, 3, 1, 4]
Display the linked list forward:
green 10 red 1 2 30 3 1
Display the linked list backward:
1 3 30 2 1 red 10 green

A list can hold identical elements. Integer 1 is stored twice in the list (lines 6, 9). **ArrayList** and **LinkedList** operate similarly. The critical difference between them pertains to internal implementation, which affects their performance. **ArrayList** is efficient for retrieving elements and **LinkedList** is efficient for inserting and removing elements at the beginning of the list. Both have the same performance for inserting and removing elements in the middle or at the end of the list.
The \texttt{get(i)} method is available for a linked list, but it is a time-consuming operation. Do not use it to traverse all the elements in a list as shown in (a). Instead you should use an iterator as shown in (b). Note that a for-each loop uses an iterator implicitly. You will know the reason when you learn how to implement a linked list in Chapter 26.

\begin{verbatim}
for (int i = 0; i < linkedList.size(); i++) {
    process linkedList.get(i);
}
\end{verbatim} \hspace{1cm} \begin{verbatim}
for (listElementType s: linkedList) {
    process s;
}
\end{verbatim}

(a) Very inefficient \hspace{1cm} (b) Efficient

\textbf{Tip}

Java provides the static \texttt{asList} method for creating a list from a variable-length argument list of a generic type. Thus you can use the following code to create a list of strings and a list of integers:

\begin{verbatim}
List<String> list1 = Arrays.asList("red", "green", "blue");
List<Integer> list2 = Arrays.asList(10, 20, 30, 40, 50);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Check Point}

22.10 How do you add and remove elements from a list? How do you traverse a list in both directions?

22.11 Suppose that \texttt{list1} is a list that contains the strings \texttt{red}, \texttt{yellow}, and \texttt{green}, and that \texttt{list2} is another list that contains the strings \texttt{red}, \texttt{yellow}, and \texttt{blue}. Answer the following questions:

a. What are \texttt{list1} and \texttt{list2} after executing \texttt{list1.addAll(list2)}?

b. What are \texttt{list1} and \texttt{list2} after executing \texttt{list1.add(list2)}?

c. What are \texttt{list1} and \texttt{list2} after executing \texttt{list1.removeAll(list2)}?

d. What are \texttt{list1} and \texttt{list2} after executing \texttt{list1.remove(list2)}?

e. What are \texttt{list1} and \texttt{list2} after executing \texttt{list1.retainAll(list2)}?

f. What is \texttt{list1} after executing \texttt{list1.clear()}?

22.12 What are the differences between \texttt{ArrayList} and \texttt{LinkedList}? Which list should you use to insert and delete elements at the beginning of a list?

22.13 Are all the methods in \texttt{ArrayList} also in \texttt{LinkedList}? What methods are in \texttt{LinkedList} but not in \texttt{ArrayList}?

22.14 How do you create a list from an array of objects?

\section*{22.5 The \textbf{Comparator} Interface}

\textbf{Comparator} can be used to compare the objects of a class that doesn’t implement \textbf{Comparable}.

You have learned how to compare elements using the \textbf{Comparable} interface (introduced in Section 15.6). Several classes in the Java API, such as \texttt{String}, \texttt{Date}, \texttt{Calendar}, \texttt{BigInteger}, \texttt{BigDecimal}, and all the numeric wrapper classes for the primitive types, implement the \textbf{Comparable} interface. The \textbf{Comparable} interface defines the \texttt{compareTo} method, which is used to compare two elements of the same class that implement the \textbf{Comparable} interface.

What if the elements’ classes do not implement the \textbf{Comparable} interface or the elements have different types? Can these elements be compared? You can define a \textit{comparator} to comparator
compare the elements of different classes. To do so, define a class that implements the `java.util.Comparator<T>` interface. The `Comparator<T>` interface has two methods, `compare` and `equals`.

- **public int compare(T element1, T element2)**
  Returns a negative value if `element1` is less than `element2`, a positive value if `element1` is greater than `element2`, and zero if they are equal.

- **public boolean equals(Object element)**
  Returns `true` if the specified object is also a comparator and imposes the same ordering as this comparator.

The `equals` method is also defined in the `Object` class. Therefore, you will not get a compile error even if you don’t implement the `equals` method in your custom comparator class. However, in some cases implementing this method may improve performance by allowing programs to determine quickly whether two distinct comparators impose the same order.

The `GeometricObject` class was introduced in Section 15.2, Abstract Classes. The `GeometricObject` class does not implement the `Comparable` interface. To compare the objects of the `GeometricObject` class, you can define a comparator class, as shown in Listing 22.4.

**LISTING 22.4 GeometricObjectComparator.java**
```
import java.util.Comparator;

public class GeometricObjectComparator implements Comparator<GeometricObject>, java.io.Serializable {

  public int compare(GeometricObject o1, GeometricObject o2) {
    double area1 = o1.getArea();
    double area2 = o2.getArea();

    if (area1 < area2)
      return -1;
    else if (area1 == area2)
      return 0;
    else
      return 1;
  }
}
```

Line 4 implements `Comparator<GeometricObject>`. Line 5 overrides the `compare` method to compare two geometric objects. The class also implements `Serializable`. It is generally a good idea for comparators to implement `Serializable`, as they may be used as ordering methods in serializable data structures. In order for the data structure to serialize successfully, the comparator (if provided) must implement `Serializable`.

Listing 22.5 gives a method that returns a larger object between two geometric objects. The objects are compared using the `GeometricObjectComparator`.

**LISTING 22.5 TestComparator.java**
```
import java.util.Comparator;

public class TestComparator {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    GeometricObject g1 = new Rectangle(5, 5);
    GeometricObject g2 = new Circle(5);
    GeometricObject g =
```
```java
public static GeometricObject max(GeometricObject g1, GeometricObject g2, Comparator<GeometricObject> c) {
    if (c.compare(g1, g2) > 0)
        return g1;
    else
        return g2;
}
```

The area of the larger object is 78.53981633974483

The program creates a `Rectangle` and a `Circle` object in lines 5–6 (the `Rectangle` and `Circle` classes were defined in Section 15.2, Abstract Classes). They are all subclasses of `GeometricObject`. The program invokes the `max` method to obtain the geometric object with the larger area (lines 8–9).

The `GeometricObject Comparator` is created and passed to the `max` method (line 9) and this comparator is used in the `max` method to compare the geometric objects in line 17.

### Note
`Comparable` is used to compare the objects of the class that implement `Comparable`. `Comparator` can be used to compare the objects of a class that doesn’t implement `Comparable`.

Comparing elements using the `Comparable` interface is referred to as comparing using natural order, and comparing elements using the `Comparator` interface is referred to as comparing using comparator.

### 22.15 What are the differences between the `Comparable` interface and the `Comparator` interface? In which package is `Comparable`, and in which package is `Comparator`?

### 22.16 The `Comparator` interface contains the `equals` method. Why is the method not implemented in the `GeometricObject Comparator` class in this section?

### 22.6 Static Methods for Lists and Collections

The `Collections` class contains static methods to perform common operations in a collection and a list.

Often you need to sort a list. The Java Collections Framework provides static methods in the `Collections` class that can be used to sort a list. The `Collections` class also contains the `binarySearch`, `reverse`, `shuffle`, `copy`, and `fill` methods for lists, and `max`, `min`, `disjoint`, and `frequency` methods for collections, as shown in Figure 22.7.

You can sort the comparable elements in a list in its natural order with the `compareTo` method in the `Comparable` interface. You may also specify a comparator to sort elements. For example, the following code sorts strings in a list.

```java
List<String> list = Arrays.asList("red", "green", "blue");
Collections.sort(list);
System.out.println(list);
```
The output is `[blue, green, red]`.

The preceding code sorts a list in ascending order. To sort it in descending order, you can simply use the `Collections.reverseOrder()` method to return a `Comparator` object that orders the elements in reverse order. For example, the following code sorts a list of strings in descending order.

```java
List<String> list = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
Collections.sort(list, Collections.reverseOrder());
System.out.println(list);
```

The output is `[yellow, red, green, blue]`.

You can use the `binarySearch` method to search for a key in a list. To use this method, the list must be sorted in increasing order. If the key is not in the list, the method returns \(-1\) (insertion point + 1). Recall that the insertion point is where the item would fall in the list if it were present. For example, the following code searches the keys in a list of integers and a list of strings.

```java
List<Integer> list1 =
    Arrays.asList(2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 45, 50, 59, 60, 66);
System.out.println("(1) Index: " + Collections.binarySearch(list1, 7));
System.out.println("(2) Index: " + Collections.binarySearch(list1, 9));

List<String> list2 = Arrays.asList("blue", "green", "red");
System.out.println("(3) Index: " + Collections.binarySearch(list2, "red"));
System.out.println("(4) Index: " + Collections.binarySearch(list2, "cyan"));
```

The output of the preceding code is:
You can use the `reverse` method to reverse the elements in a list. For example, the following code displays `[blue, green, red, yellow]`.

```java
List<String> list = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
Collections.reverse(list);
System.out.println(list);
```

You can use the `shuffle(List)` method to randomly reorder the elements in a list. For example, the following code shuffles the elements in `list`.

```java
List<String> list = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
Collections.shuffle(list);
System.out.println(list);
```

You can also use the `shuffle(List, Random)` method to randomly reorder the elements in a list with a specified `Random` object. Using a specified `Random` object is useful to generate a list with identical sequences of elements for the same original list. For example, the following code shuffles the elements in `list`.

```java
List<String> list1 = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
List<String> list2 = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
Collections.shuffle(list1, new Random(20));
Collections.shuffle(list2, new Random(20));
System.out.println(list1);
System.out.println(list2);
```

You will see that `list1` and `list2` have the same sequence of elements before and after the shuffling.

You can use the `copy(det, src)` method to copy all the elements from a source list to a destination list on the same index. The destination list must be as long as the source list. If it is longer, the remaining elements in the source list are not affected. For example, the following code copies `list2` to `list1`.

```java
List<String> list1 = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
List<String> list2 = Arrays.asList("white", "black");
Collections.copy(list1, list2);
System.out.println(list1);
```

The output for `list1` is `[white, black, green, blue]`. The `copy` method performs a shallow copy: only the references of the elements from the source list are copied.

You can use the `nCopies(int n, Object o)` method to create an immutable list that consists of `n` copies of the specified object. For example, the following code creates a list with five `Calendar` objects.

```java
List<GregorianCalendar> list1 = Collections.nCopies(5, new GregorianCalendar(2005, 0, 1));
```

The list created from the `nCopies` method is immutable, so you cannot add, remove, or update elements in the list. All the elements have the same references.
You can use the `fill(List list, Object o)` method to replace all the elements in the list with the specified element. For example, the following code displays `[black, black, black]`.

```java
List<String> list = Arrays.asList("red", "green", "blue");
Collections.fill(list, "black");
System.out.println(list);
```

**max and min methods**

You can use the `max` and `min` methods for finding the maximum and minimum elements in a collection. The elements must be comparable using the `Comparable` interface or the `Comparator` interface. For example, the following code displays the largest and smallest strings in a collection.

```java
Collection<String> collection = Arrays.asList("red", "green", "blue");
System.out.println(Collections.max(collection));
System.out.println(Collections.min(collection));
```

**disjoint method**

The `disjoint(collection1, collection2)` method returns `true` if the two collections have no elements in common. For example, in the following code, `disjoint(collection1, collection2)` returns `false`, but `disjoint(collection1, collection3)` returns `true`.

```java
Collection<String> collection1 = Arrays.asList("red", "cyan");
Collection<String> collection2 = Arrays.asList("red", "blue");
Collection<String> collection3 = Arrays.asList("pink", "tan");
System.out.println(Collections.disjoint(collection1, collection2));
System.out.println(Collections.disjoint(collection1, collection3));
```

**frequency method**

The `frequency(collection, element)` method finds the number of occurrences of the element in the collection. For example, `frequency(collection, "red")` returns `2` in the following code.

```java
Collection<String> collection = Arrays.asList("red", "cyan", "red");
System.out.println(Collections.frequency(collection, "red");
```

---

**Check Point**

**22.17** Are all the methods in the `Collections` class static?

**22.18** Which of the following static methods in the `Collections` class are for lists, and which are for collections?

- sort, binarySearch, reverse, shuffle, max, min, disjoint, frequency

**22.19** Show the printout of the following code:

```java
import java.util.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        List<String> list = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
        Collections.reverse(list);
        System.out.println(list);

        List<String> list1 = Arrays.asList("yellow", "red", "green", "blue");
        List<String> list2 = Arrays.asList("white", "black");
        Collections.copy(list1, list2);
        System.out.println(list1);
    }
}
```
Collection<String> c1 = Arrays.asList("red", "cyan");
Collection<String> c2 = Arrays.asList("red", "blue");
Collection<String> c3 = Arrays.asList("pink", "tan");
System.out.println(Collections.disjoint(c1, c2));
System.out.println(Collections.disjoint(c1, c3));

Collection<String> collection =
  Arrays.asList("red", "cyan", "red");
System.out.println(Collections.frequency(collection, "red"));

22.20 Which method can you use to sort the elements in an ArrayList or a LinkedList? Which method can you use to sort an array of strings?

22.21 Which method can you use to perform binary search for elements in an ArrayList or a LinkedList? Which method can you use to perform binary search for an array of strings?

22.22 Write a statement to find the largest element in an array of comparable objects.

22.7 Case Study: Bouncing Balls

This section presents an applet that displays bouncing balls and enables the user to add, remove balls.

Section 18.8 presents an applet that displays one bouncing ball. This section presents an applet that displays multiple bouncing balls. You can use two buttons to suspend and resume the movement of the balls, a scroll bar to control the ball speed, and the +1 or -1 button add or remove a ball, as shown in Figure 22.8.

The example in Section 18.8 only had to store one ball. How do you store the multiple balls in this example? An array list is a good data structure for storing the balls. Initially, the array list is empty. When a new ball is created, add it to the end of the list. To remove a ball, simply remove the last one in the array list.

Each ball has its state: the location, color, and direction to move. You can define a class named Ball with appropriate data fields to store this information. When a ball is created, it starts from the upper-left corner and moves downward to the right. A random color is assigned to a new ball.

The BallPanel class is responsible for displaying the ball and the BallControl class places the control components and implements the control. The MultipleBallApp class places the BallControl in an applet. The relationship of these classes is shown in Figure 22.9. Listing 22.6 gives the program.
**Figure 22.9**  MultipleBallApp contains BallControl, BallControl contains BallPanel, and BallPanel contains Ball.

**Listing 22.6**  MultipleBallApp.java

```java
import javax.swing.Timer;
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class MultipleBallApp extends JApplet {

    create a ball control
    public MultipleBallApp() {
        add(new BallControl());
    }

    BallControl class

    class BallControl extends JPanel {
        private BallPanel ballPanel = new BallPanel();
        private JButton jbtSuspend = new JButton("Suspend");
        private JButton jbtResume = new JButton("Resume");
        private JButton jbtAdd = new JButton("+1");
        private JButton jbtSubtract = new JButton("-1");
        private JScrollBar jsbDelay = new JScrollBar();

        public BallControl() {
            // Group buttons in a panel
            JPanel panel = new JPanel();
            panel.add(jbtSuspend);
            panel.add(jbtResume);
            panel.add(jbtAdd);
            panel.add(jbtSubtract);

            // Add ball and buttons to the panel
            ballPanel.setBorder(
                new javax.swing.border.LineBorder(Color.red));
            jsbDelay.setOrientation(ScrollBar.HORIZONTAL);
            ballPanel.setDelay(jsbDelay.getMaximum());
            setLayout(new BorderLayout());
            add(jsbDelay, BorderLayout.NORTH);
            add(ballPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        } // BallControl()
    } // BallControl
}
```


add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listeners
jbtSuspend.addActionListener(new Listener());
jbtResume.addActionListener(new Listener());
jbtAdd.addActionListener(new Listener());
jbtSubtract.addActionListener(new Listener());
jsbDelay.addAdjustmentListener(new AdjustmentListener() {
    @Override
    public void adjustmentValueChanged(AdjustmentEvent e) {
        ballPanel.setDelay(jsbDelay.getMaximum() - e.getValue());
    }
});

class Listener implements ActionListener {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        if (e.getSource() == jbtSuspend)
            ballPanel.suspend();
        else if (e.getSource() == jbtResume)
            ballPanel.resume();
        else if (e.getSource() == jbtAdd)
            ballPanel.add();
        else if (e.getSource() == jbtSubtract)
            ballPanel.subtract();
    }
}

class BallPanel extends JPanel {
    private int delay = 10;
    private ArrayList<Ball> list = new ArrayList<Ball>();

    // Create a timer with the initial delay
    protected Timer timer = new Timer(delay, new ActionListener() {
        @Override /** Handle the action event */
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            repaint();
        }
    });

    public BallPanel() {
        timer.start();
    }

    public void add() {
        list.add(new Ball());
    }

    public void subtract() {
        if (list.size() > 0)
            list.remove(list.size() - 1); // Remove the last ball
    }

    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++) {
            paint all balls
        }
    }
}
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```java
96     Ball ball = (Ball)list.get(i); // Get a ball
97     g.setColor(ball.color); // Set ball color
98
99     // Check boundaries
100    if (ball.x < 0 || ball.x > getWidth())
101        ball.dx = -ball.dx;
102    if (ball.y < 0 || ball.y > getHeight())
103        ball.dy = -ball.dy;
104
105     // Adjust ball position
106     ball.x += ball.dx;
107     ball.y += ball.dy;
108     g.fillOval(ball.x - ball.radius, ball.y - ball.radius,
109         ball.radius * 2, ball.radius * 2);
110 }
111 }
112 }
113 }
114 public void suspend() {
115          timer.stop();
116 }
117 }
118 public void resume() {
119          timer.start();
120 }
121 }
122 public void setDelay(int delay) {
123          this.delay = delay;
124          timer.setDelay(delay);
125 }
126 }
127 }
128 class Ball {
129     int x = 0;
130     int y = 0; // Current ball position
131     int dx = 2; // Increment on ball's x-coordinate
132     int dy = 2; // Increment on ball's y-coordinate
133     int radius = 5; // Ball radius
134     Color color = new Color((int)(Math.random() * 256),
135         (int)(Math.random() * 256), (int)(Math.random() * 256));
136 }
137 }

An array list is created to store the balls (line 68). When the user clicks the +I button, a new ball is created and added to the array list (line 83). When the user clicks the −I button, the last ball in the array list is removed (line 88).

The paintComponent method in the BallPanel class gets every ball in the array list, adjusts the balls' positions (lines 107–108), and paints them (lines 109–110).

This program uses an ArrayList to store balls. The program will work fine if ArrayList is replaced by LinkedList, but it is more efficient to use ArrayList in this example.

22.23 Will the MultipleBallApp program work if ArrayList is replaced by LinkedList? Why is the ArrayList a better choice than the LinkedList for this program?

22.24 If you change the MultipleBallApp program to remove the first ball in the list when the −I button is clicked, should you use ArrayList or LinkedList to store the balls in this program?
22.25 How do you modify the code in the MutilpleBallApp program so that each ball will get a random radius between 10 and 20?

22.8 The Vector and Stack Classes

Vector is a subclass of AbstractList, and Stack is a subclass of Vector in the Java API.

The Java Collections Framework was introduced in Java 2. Several data structures were supported earlier, among them the Vector and Stack classes. These classes were redesigned to fit into the Java Collections Framework, but all their old-style methods are retained for compatibility.

Vector is the same as ArrayList, except that it contains synchronized methods for accessing and modifying the vector. Synchronized methods can prevent data corruption when a vector is accessed and modified by two or more threads concurrently. We will discuss synchronization in Chapter 32, Multithreading and Parallel Programming. For the many applications that do not require synchronization, using ArrayList is more efficient than using Vector.

The Vector class extends the AbstractList class. It also has the methods contained in the original Vector class defined prior to Java 2, as shown in Figure 22.10.

```
java.util.AbstractList<E>

java.util.Vector<E>

+Vector()
+Vector(c: Collection<? extends E>)
+Vector(initialCapacity: int)
+Vector(initCapacity: int, capacityIncr: int)
+addElement(o: E): void
+capacity(): int
+copyInto(anArray: Object[]): void
+elementAt(index: int): E
+elements(): Enumeration<E>
+ensureCapacity(): void
+firstElement(): E
+insertElementAt(o: E, index: int): void
+lastElement(): E
+removeAllElements(): void
+removeElement(o: Object): boolean
+removeElementAt(index: int): void
+setElementAt(o: E, index: int): void
+setSize(newSize: int): void
+trimToSize(): void
```

Figure 22.10 Starting in Java 2, the Vector class extends AbstractList and also retains all the methods in the original Vector class.

Most of the methods in the Vector class listed in the UML diagram in Figure 22.10 are similar to the methods in the List interface. These methods were introduced before the Java Collections Framework. For example, addElement(Object element) is the same as the
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```java
java.util.Stack<E>
+Stack()
+isEmpty(): boolean
+peek(): E
+pop(): E
+push(o: E): E
+search(o: Object): int
```

**java.util.Vector<E>**

- Creates an empty stack.
- Returns true if this stack is empty.
- Returns the top element in this stack.
- Returns and removes the top element in this stack.
- Adds a new element to the top of this stack.
- Returns the position of the specified element in this stack.

---

**FIGURE 22.11** The **Stack** class extends **Vector** to provide a last-in, first-out data structure.

The **Stack** class was introduced prior to Java 2. The methods shown in Figure 22.11 were used before Java 2. The **empty()** method is the same as **isEmpty()**. The **peek()** method looks at the element at the top of the stack without removing it. The **pop()** method removes the top element from the stack and returns it. The **push(Object element)** method adds the specified element to the stack. The **search(Object element)** method checks whether the specified element is in the stack.

---

22.26 How do you create an instance of **Vector**? How do you add or insert a new element into a vector? How do you remove an element from a vector? How do you find the size of a vector?

22.27 How do you create an instance of **Stack**? How do you add a new element to a stack? How do you remove an element from a stack? How do you find the size of a stack?

22.28 Does Listing 22.1, TestCollection.java, compile and run if all the occurrences of **ArrayList** are replaced by **LinkedList**, **Vector**, or **Stack**?

---

### 22.9 Queues and Priority Queues

**In a priority queue, the element with the highest priority is removed first.**

A **queue** is a first-in, first-out data structure. Elements are appended to the end of the queue and are removed from the beginning of the queue. In a **priority queue**, elements are assigned priorities. When accessing elements, the element with the highest priority is removed first. This section introduces queues and priority queues in the Java API.
22.9 Queues and Priority Queues

22.9.1 The Queue Interface

The Queue interface extends java.util.Collection with additional insertion, extraction, and inspection operations, as shown in Figure 22.12.

The offer method is used to add an element to the queue. This method is similar to the add method in the Collection interface, but the offer method is preferred for queues. The poll and remove methods are similar, except that poll() returns null if the queue is empty, whereas remove() throws an exception. The peek and element methods are similar, except that peek() returns null if the queue is empty, whereas element() throws an exception.

22.9.2 Deque and LinkedList

The LinkedList class implements the Deque interface, which extends the Queue interface, as shown in Figure 22.13. Therefore, you can use LinkedList to create a queue. LinkedList is ideal for queue operations because it is efficient for inserting and removing elements from both ends of a list.

Deque supports element insertion and removal at both ends. The name deque is short for "double-ended queue" and is usually pronounced "deck." The Deque interface extends Queue with additional methods for inserting and removing elements from both ends of the list.
The methods `addFirst(e)`, `removeFirst()`, `addLast(e)`, `removeLast()`, `getFirst()`, and `getLast()` are defined in the `Deque` interface.

Listing 22.7 shows an example of using a queue to store strings. Line 4 creates a queue using `LinkedList`. Four strings are added to the queue in lines 5–8. The `size()` method defined in the `Collection` interface returns the number of elements in the queue (line 10). The `remove()` method retrieves and removes the element at the head of the queue (line 11).

**LISTING 22.7  TestQueue.java**

```java
public class TestQueue {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Queue<String> queue = new java.util.LinkedList<String>();
        queue.offer("Oklahoma");
        queue.offer("Indiana");
        queue.offer("Georgia");
        queue.offer("Texas");

        while (queue.size() > 0)
            System.out.print(queue.remove() + " ");
    }
}
```

Creating a queue

Inserting an element

Queue size

Removing element

The `PriorityQueue` class implements a priority queue, as shown in Figure 22.14. By default, the priority queue orders its elements according to their natural ordering using `Comparable`. The element with the least value is assigned the highest priority and thus is removed from the queue first. If there are several elements with the same highest priority, the tie is broken arbitrarily. You can also specify an ordering using `Comparator` in the constructor `PriorityQueue(initialCapacity, comparator)`.

Listing 22.8 shows an example of using a priority queue to store strings. Line 5 creates a priority queue for strings using its no-arg constructor. This priority queue orders the strings using their natural order, so the strings are removed from the queue in increasing order. Lines 16–17 create a priority queue using the comparator obtained from `Collections.reverseOrder()`, which orders the elements in reverse order, so the strings are removed from the queue in decreasing order.
LISTING 22.8 PriorityQueueDemo.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class PriorityQueueDemo {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    PriorityQueue<String> queue1 = new PriorityQueue<String>();
    queue1.offer("Oklahoma");
    queue1.offer("Indiana");
    queue1.offer("Georgia");
    queue1.offer("Texas");

    System.out.println("Priority queue using Comparable:");
    while (queue1.size() > 0) {
      System.out.print(queue1.remove() + " ");
    }

    PriorityQueue<String> queue2 = new PriorityQueue<String>(
        Collections.reverseOrder());
    queue2.offer("Oklahoma");
    queue2.offer("Indiana");
    queue2.offer("Georgia");
    queue2.offer("Texas");

    System.out.println(" \nPriority queue using Comparator:");
    while (queue2.size() > 0) {
      System.out.print(queue2.remove() + " ");
    }
  }
}
```

Priority queue using Comparable:
Georgia Indiana Oklahoma Texas
Priority queue using Comparator:
Texas Oklahoma Indiana Georgia

22.29 Is java.util.Queue a subinterface of java.util.Collection, java.util.Set, or java.util.List? Does LinkedList implement Queue?

22.30 How do you create a priority queue for integers? By default, how are elements ordered in a priority queue? Is the element with the least value assigned the highest priority in a priority queue?

22.31 How do you create a priority queue that reverses the natural order of the elements?

22.10 Case Study: Evaluating Expressions

Stacks can be used to evaluate expressions.

Stacks and queues have many applications. This section gives an application that uses stacks to evaluate expressions. You can enter an arithmetic expression from Google to evaluate the expression, as shown in Figure 22.15.

How does Google evaluate an expression? This section presents a program that evaluates a compound expression with multiple operators and parentheses (e.g., \((15 + 2) \times 34 - 2\)). For simplicity, assume that the operands are integers and the operators are of four types: +, -, *, and /.

The problem can be solved using two stacks, named operandStack and operatorStack, for storing operands and operators, respectively. Operands and operators are pushed into the
process an operator

stacks before they are processed. When an operator is processed, it is popped from operatorStack and applied to the first two operands from operandStack (the two operands are popped from operandStack). The resultant value is pushed back to operandStack.

The algorithm proceeds in two phases:

Phase 1: Scanning the expression

The program scans the expression from left to right to extract operands, operators, and the parentheses.

1. If the extracted item is an operand, push it to operandStack.
2. If the extracted item is a + or - operator, process all the operators at the top of operatorStack and push the extracted operator to operatorStack.
3. If the extracted item is a * or / operator, process the * or / operators at the top of operatorStack and push the extracted operator to operatorStack.
4. If the extracted item is a ( symbol, push it to operatorStack.
5. If the extracted item is a ) symbol, repeatedly process the operators from the top of operatorStack until seeing the ( symbol on the stack.

Phase 2: Clearing the stack

Repeatedly process the operators from the top of operatorStack until operatorStack is empty.

Table 22.1 shows how the algorithm is applied to evaluate the expression \((1 + 2) \times 4 - 3\). Listing 22.9 gives the program, and Figure 22.16 shows some sample output.

**Figure 22.15** You can evaluate an arithmetic expression using a Google search engine.

**Figure 22.16** The program takes an expression as command-line arguments.
### Table 22.1 Evaluating an expression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Scan</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>operandStack</th>
<th>operatorStack</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>(</td>
<td>Phase 1.4</td>
<td>(</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Phase 1.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ (</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Phase 1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>+ (</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phase 1.1</td>
<td>2 1</td>
<td>+ (</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>)</td>
<td>Phase 1.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Phase 1.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Phase 1.1</td>
<td>4 3</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Phase 1.2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Phase 1.1</td>
<td>3 12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + 2) * 4 - 3</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>Phase 2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Listing 22.9 EvaluateExpression.java

```java
class EvaluateExpression {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Check number of arguments passed
        if (args.length != 1) {
            System.out.println("Usage: java EvaluateExpression \"expression\"");
            System.exit(1);
        }
        try {
            System.out.println(evaluateExpression(args[0]));
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            System.out.println("Wrong expression: " + args[0]);
        }
    }

    /** Evaluate an expression */
    public static int evaluateExpression(String expression) {
        // Create operandStack to store operands
        Stack<Integer> operandStack = new Stack<Integer>();
```

```java
```
// Create operatorStack to store operators
Stack<Character> operatorStack = new Stack<Character>();

// Insert blanks around (, ), +, -, /, and *
expression = insertBlanks(expression);

// Extract operands and operators
String[] tokens = expression.split(" ");

// Phase 1: Scan tokens
for (String token: tokens) {
    if (token.length() == 0) // Blank space
        continue; // Back to the while loop to extract the next token
    else if (token.charAt(0) == '+' || token.charAt(0) == '-') {
        // Process all +, -, *, / in the top of the operator stack
        while (!operatorStack.isEmpty() &&
            (operatorStack.peek() == '+' ||
             operatorStack.peek() == '-' ||
             operatorStack.peek() == '*' ||
             operatorStack.peek() == '/')) {
            processAnOperator(operandStack, operatorStack);
        }
        // Push the + or - operator into the operator stack
        operatorStack.push(token.charAt(0));
    } else if (token.charAt(0) == '*' || token.charAt(0) == '/') {
        // Process all * or / in the top of the operator stack
        while (!operatorStack.isEmpty() &&
            (operatorStack.peek() == '*' ||
             operatorStack.peek() == '/')) {
            processAnOperator(operandStack, operatorStack);
        }
        // Push the * or / operator into the operator stack
        operatorStack.push(token.charAt(0));
    } else if (token.trim().charAt(0) == ')') {
        // Process all ) scanned
        operatorStack.push(')'); // Push ')' to stack
    } else if (token.trim().charAt(0) == '(') {
        // Process all ( scanned
        operatorStack.push('('); // Push '(' to stack
    } else { // An operand scanned
        // Push an operand to the stack
        operandStack.push(new Integer(token));
    }
}

// Phase 2: Process all the remaining operators in the stack
while (!operatorStack.isEmpty()) {
    processAnOperator(operandStack, operatorStack);
}

// Return the result
```java
    return operandStack.pop();
  }

  /** Process one operator: Take an operator from operatorStack and
   * apply it on the operands in the operandStack */
  public static void processAnOperator(
      Stack<Integer> operandStack, Stack<Character> operatorStack) {
    char op = operatorStack.pop();
    int op1 = operandStack.pop();
    int op2 = operandStack.pop();
    if (op == '+') 
      operandStack.push(op2 + op1);
    else if (op == '-') 
      operandStack.push(op2 - op1);
    else if (op == '*') 
      operandStack.push(op2 * op1);
    else if (op == '/') 
      operandStack.push(op2 / op1);
  }

  public static String insertBlanks(String s) {
    String result = "";
    for (int i = 0; i < s.length(); i++) {
      if (s.charAt(i) == '(' || s.charAt(i) == ')') ||
        s.charAt(i) == '+' || s.charAt(i) == '-' ||
        s.charAt(i) == '*' || s.charAt(i) == '/') 
        result += " " + s.charAt(i) + " ";
      else 
        result += s.charAt(i);
    }
    return result;
  }
```

You can use the `GenericStack` class provided by the book or the `java.util.Stack` class defined in the Java API for creating stacks. This example uses the `java.util.Stack` class. The program will work if it is replaced by `GenericStack`.

The program takes an expression as a command-line argument in one string.

The `evaluateExpression` method creates two stacks, `operandStack` and `operatorStack` (lines 23, 26), and extracts operands, operators, and parentheses delimited by space (lines 29–32). The `insertBlanks` method is used to ensure that operands, operators, and parentheses are separated by at least one blank (line 29).

The program scans each token in the `for` loop (lines 35–77). If a token is empty, skip it (line 37). If a token is an operand, push it to `operandStack` (line 75). If a token is a `+` or `-` operator (line 38), process all the operators from the top of `operatorStack`, if any (lines 40–46), and push the newly scanned operator into the stack (line 49). If a token is a `*` or `/` operator (line 51), process all the `*` and `/` operators from the top of `operatorStack`, if any (lines 53–57), and push the newly scanned operator to the stack (line 60). If a token is a `(` symbol (line 62), push it into `operatorStack`. If a token is a `)` symbol (line 65), process all the operators from the top of `operatorStack` until seeing the `)` symbol (lines 67–69) and pop the `)` symbol from the stack.

After all tokens are considered, the program processes the remaining operators in `operatorStack` (lines 80–82).

The `processAnOperator` method (lines 90–103) processes an operator. The method pops the operator from `operatorStack` (line 92) and pops two operands from `operandStack`
(lines 93–94). Depending on the operator, the method performs an operation and pushes the result of the operation back to `operandStack` (lines 96, 98, 100, 102).

22.32 Can the `EvaluateExpression` program evaluate the following expressions "1+2", "1 + 2", "(1) + 2", "((1)) + 2", and "(1 + 2)"?

22.33 Show the change of the contents in the stacks when evaluating "3 + (4 + 5) * (3 + 5) + 4 * 5" using the `EvaluateExpression` program.

**Key Terms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>collection</th>
<th>comparator</th>
<th>convenience abstract class</th>
<th>data structure</th>
<th>linked list</th>
<th>list</th>
<th>priority queue</th>
<th>queue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>794</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>794</td>
<td>794</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>794</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>794</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chapter Summary**

1. The Java Collections Framework supports sets, lists, queues, and maps. They are defined in the interfaces `Set`, `List`, `Queue`, and `Map`.

2. A list stores an ordered collection of elements.

3. All the concrete classes in the Java Collections Framework implement the `Cloneable` and `Serializable` interfaces. Thus, their instances can be cloned and serialized.

4. To allow duplicate elements to be stored in a collection, you need to use a list. A list not only can store duplicate elements but also allows the user to specify where they are stored. The user can access elements by an index.

5. Two types of lists are supported: `ArrayList` and `LinkedList`. `ArrayList` is a resizable-array implementation of the `List` interface. All the methods in `ArrayList` are defined in `List`. `LinkedList` is a linked-list implementation of the `List` interface. In addition to implementing the `List` interface, this class provides the methods for retrieving, inserting, and removing elements from both ends of the list.

6. `Comparator` can be used to compare the objects of a class that doesn’t implement `Comparable`.

7. The `Vector` class extends the `AbstractList` class. Starting with Java 2, `Vector` has been the same as `ArrayList`, except that the methods for accessing and modifying the vector are synchronized. The `Stack` class extends the `Vector` class and provides several methods for manipulating the stack.

8. The `Queue` interface represents a queue. The `PriorityQueue` class implements `Queue` for a priority queue.
**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 22.2–22.7

**22.1** *(Display words in ascending alphabetical order)* Write a program that reads words from a text file and displays all the words (duplicates allowed) in ascending alphabetical order. The words must start with a letter. The text file is passed as a command-line argument.

**22.2** *(Store numbers in a linked list)* Write a program that lets the user enter numbers from a graphical user interface and displays them in a text area, as shown in Figure 22.17a. Use a linked list to store the numbers. Do not store duplicate numbers. Add the buttons *Sort, Shuffle, and Reverse* to sort, shuffle, and reverse the list.

![Figure 22.17](image)

(a) The numbers are stored in a list and displayed in the text area. (b) The colliding balls are combined.

**22.3** *(Guessing the capitals)* Rewrite Programming Exercise 9.17 to store the pairs of states and capitals so that the questions are displayed randomly.

**22.4** *(Sort points in a plane)* Write a program that meets the following requirements:

- Define a class named *Point* with two data fields *x* and *y* to represent a point’s *x*- and *y*-coordinates. Implement the *Comparable* interface for comparing the points on *x*-coordinates. If two points have the same *x*-coordinates, compare their *y*-coordinates.
- Define a class named *CompareY* that implements *Comparator<Point>*. Implement the *compare* method to compare two points on their *y*-coordinates. If two points have the same *y*-coordinates, compare their *x*-coordinates.
- Randomly create 100 points and apply the *Arrays.sort* method to display the points in increasing order of their *x*-coordinates and in increasing order of their *y*-coordinates, respectively.

**22.5** *(Combine colliding bouncing balls)* The example in Section 22.7 displays multiple bouncing balls. Extend the example to detect collisions. Once two balls collide, remove the later ball that was added to the panel and add its radius to the
other ball, as shown in Figure 22.17b. Add a mouse listener that removes a ball when the mouse clicks on the ball.

22.6 *(Use iterators on linked lists)* Write a test program that stores 5 million integers in a linked list and test the time to traverse the list using an iterator vs. using the get(index) method.

***22.7 *(Game: hangman)* Programming Exercise 9.25 presents a console version of the popular hangman game. Write a GUI program that lets a user play the game. The user guesses a word by entering one letter at a time, as shown in Figure 22.18. If the user misses seven times, a hanging man swings. Once a word is finished, the user can press the Enter key to continue to guess another word.

**22.8 *(Game: lottery)* Revise Programming Exercise 3.15 to add an additional $2,000 award if two digits from the user input are in the lottery number. *(Hint: Sort the three digits in the lottery number and three digits in the user input into two lists, and use the Collection’s containsAll method to check whether the two digits in the user input are in the lottery number.)*

Sections 22.8–22.10

***22.9 *(Remove the largest ball first)* Modify Listing 22.6, MultipleBallApp.java to assign a random radius between 2 and 20 when a ball is created. When the −1 button is clicked, one of largest balls is removed. *(Hint: Use a PriorityQueue to store the balls.)*

22.10 *(Perform set operations on priority queues)* Create two priority queues, {"George", "Jim", "John", "Blake", "Kevin", "Michael"} and {"George", "Katie", "Kevin", "Michelle", "Ryan"}, and find their union, difference, and intersection.

**22.11 *(Match grouping symbols)* A Java program contains various pairs of grouping symbols, such as:

- Parentheses: ( and )
- Braces: { and }
- Brackets: [ and ]

Note that the grouping symbols cannot overlap. For example, *(a{b})* is illegal. Write a program to check whether a Java source-code file has correct pairs of grouping symbols. Pass the source-code file name as a command-line argument.

22.12 *(Clone PriorityQueue)* Define MyPriorityQueue class that extends PriorityQueue to implement the Cloneable interface and implement the clone() method to clone a priority queue.

**22.13 *(Game: the 24-point card game)* The 24-point game is to pick any 4 cards from 52 cards, as shown in Figure 22.19. Note that the Jokers are excluded. Each card represents a number. An Ace, King, Queen, and Jack represent 1, 13, 12, and 11, respectively. You can click the Refresh button to get four cards. Enter an expression that uses the four numbers from the four selected cards. Each number must be used once and only once. You can use the operators (addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division) and parentheses in the expression. The expression must evaluate to 24. After entering the expression, click the Verify button to check whether the numbers in the expression are currently selected and whether the result of the expression is correct. Display the verification in a dialog box. Assume that images are stored in files named 1.png, 2.png, ..., 52.png, in the order of spades, hearts, diamonds, and clubs. So, the first 13 images are for spades 1, 2, 3, ..., and 13.
Figure 22.18 The program displays a hangman game.
Chapter 22  Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

**22.14** *(Postfix notation)* Postfix notation is a way of writing expressions without using parentheses. For example, the expression \((1 + 2) \times 3\) would be written as \(1\ 2\ +\ 3\ \times\). A postfix expression is evaluated using a stack. Scan a postfix expression from left to right. A variable or constant is pushed into the stack. When an operator is encountered, apply the operator with the top two operands in the stack and replace the two operands with the result. The following diagram shows how to evaluate \(1\ 2\ +\ 3\ \times\).

![Diagram showing evaluation of a postfix expression](image)

Write a program to evaluate postfix expressions. Pass the expression as a command-line argument in one string.

**22.15** *(Game: the 24-point card game)* Improve Exercise 22.13 to enable the computer to display the expression if one exists, as shown in Figure 22.20. Otherwise, report that the expression does not exist.

**22.16** *(Convert infix to postfix)* Write a method that converts an infix expression into a postfix expression using the following header:

```java
public static String infixToPostfix(String expression)
```

For example, the method should convert the infix expression \((1 + 2) \times 3\) to \(1\ 2\ +\ 3\ \times\) and \(2 \times (1 + 3)\) to \(2\ 1\ 3\ +\ \times\).
**22.17** *(Game: the 24-point card game)* This exercise is a variation of the 24-point card game described in Exercise 22.13. Write an applet to check whether there is a 24-point solution for the four specified numbers. The applet lets the user enter four values, each between 1 and 13, as shown in Figure 22.21. The user can then click the *Solve* button to display the solution or display “No solution” if none exist.

**22.18** *(Directory size)* Listing 20.7, DirectorySize.java, gives a recursive method for finding a directory size. Rewrite this method without using recursion. Your program should use a queue to store the subdirectories under a directory. The algorithm can be described as follows:

```java
long getSize(File directory) {
    long size = 0;
    add directory to the queue;

    while (queue is not empty) {
        Remove an item from the queue into t;
        if (t is a file)
            size += t.length();
        else
            add all the files and subdirectories under t into the queue;
    }

    return size;
}
```

**22.19** *(Game: solution ratio for 24-point game)* When you pick four cards from a deck of 52 cards for the 24-point game introduced in Exercise 22.13, the four cards may not have a 24-point solution. What is the number of all possible picks of four cards from 52 cards? Among all possible picks, how many of them have 24-point
solutions? What is the success ratio—that is, \((\text{number of picks with solutions})/\text{(number of all possible picks of four cards)})\? Write a program to find these answers.

**22.20** *(Directory size)* Rewire Exercise 22.18 using a stack instead of a queue.

**22.21** *(Use Comparator)* Write the following generic method using selection sort and a comparator.

```java
public static <E> void selectionSort(E[] list, 
        Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

Write a test program that creates an array of 10 `GeometricObject`s and invokes this method using the `GeometricObjectComparator` introduced in Listing 22.4 to sort the elements. Display the sorted elements. Use the following statement to create the array.

```java
GeometricObject[] list = {new Circle(5), new Rectangle(4, 5), 
        new Circle(5.5), new Rectangle(2.4, 5), new Circle(0.5), 
        new Rectangle(4, 65), new Circle(4.5), new Rectangle(4.4, 1), 
        new Circle(6.5), new Rectangle(4, 5)};
```

**22.22** *(Nonrecursive Tower of Hanoi)* Implement the `moveDisks` method in Listing 20.8 using a stack instead of using recursion.
SETS AND MAPS

Objectives

- To store unordered, nonduplicate elements using a set (§23.2).
- To explore how and when to use `HashSet` (§23.2.1), `LinkedHashSet` (§23.2.2), or `TreeSet` (§23.2.3) to store a set of elements.
- To compare the performance of sets and lists (§23.3).
- To use sets to develop a program that counts the keywords in a Java source file (§23.4).
- To tell the differences between `Collection` and `Map` and describe when and how to use `HashMap`, `LinkedHashMap`, or `TreeMap` to store values associated with keys (§23.5).
- To use maps to develop a program that counts the occurrence of the words in a text (§23.6).
- To obtain singleton sets, lists, and maps, and unmodifiable sets, lists, and maps, using the static methods in the `Collections` class (§23.7).
Chapter 23 Sets and Maps

Key Point

23.1 Introduction

A set is an efficient data structure for storing and processing nonduplicate elements. A map is like a dictionary that provides a quick lookup to retrieve a value using a key.

The “No-Fly” list is a list, created and maintained by the U.S. government’s Terrorist Screening Center, of people who are not permitted to board a commercial aircraft for travel in or out of the United States. Suppose we need to write a program that checks whether a person is on the No-Fly list. You can use a list to store names in the No-Fly list. However, a more efficient data structure for this application is a set.

Suppose your program also needs to store detailed information about terrorists in the No-Fly list. The detailed information such as gender, height, weight, and nationality can be retrieved using the name as the key. A map is an efficient data structure for such a task.

This chapter introduces sets and maps in the Java Collections Framework.

23.2 Sets

You can create a set using one of its three concrete classes: HashSet, LinkedHashSet, or TreeSet.

The Set interface extends the Collection interface, as shown in Figure 22.1. It does not introduce new methods or constants, but it stipulates that an instance of Set contains no duplicate elements. The concrete classes that implement Set must ensure that no duplicate elements can be added to the set. That is, no two elements e1 and e2 can be in the set such that e1.equals(e2) is true.

The AbstractSet class extends AbstractCollection and partially implements Set. The AbstractSet class provides concrete implementations for the equals method and the hashCode method. The hash code of a set is the sum of the hash codes of all the elements in the set. Since the size method and iterator method are not implemented in the AbstractSet class, AbstractSet is an abstract class.

Three concrete classes of Set are HashSet, LinkedHashSet, and TreeSet, as shown in Figure 23.1.

23.2.1 HashSet

The HashSet class is a concrete class that implements Set. You can create an empty hash set using its no-arg constructor or create a hash set from an existing collection. By default, the initial capacity is 16 and the load factor is 0.75. If you know the size of your set, you can specify the initial capacity and load factor in the constructor. Otherwise, use the default setting. The load factor is a value between 0.0 and 1.0.

The load factor measures how full the set is allowed to be before its capacity is increased. When the number of elements exceeds the product of the capacity and load factor, the capacity is automatically doubled. For example, if the capacity is 16 and load factor is 0.75, the capacity will be doubled to 32 when the size reaches 12 (16 * 0.75 = 12). A higher load factor decreases the space costs but increases the search time. Generally, the default load factor 0.75 is a good trade-off between time and space costs. We will discuss more on the load factor in Chapter 28, Hashing.

A HashSet can be used to store duplicate-free elements. For efficiency, objects added to a hash set need to implement the hashCode method in a manner that properly disperses the hash code. Recall that hashCode is defined in the Object class. The hash codes of two objects must be the same if the two objects are equal. Two unequal objects may have the same hash code, but you should implement the hashCode method to avoid too many such cases. Most of the classes in the Java API implement the hashCode method. For example, the hashCode in the Integer class returns its int value. The hashCode in the Character class returns the Unicode of the character. The hashCode in the String class returns $s_0*31^{n-1} + s_1*31^{n-2} + \ldots + s_{n-1}$, where $s_i$ is s.charAt(i).
FIGURE 23.1 The Java Collections Framework provides three concrete set classes.

Listing 23.1 gives a program that creates a hash set to store strings and uses an iterator to traverse the elements in the set.

**LISTING 23.1 TestHashSet.java**

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestHashSet {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a hash set
        Set<String> set = new HashSet<String>();
        create set

        // Add strings to the set
        set.add("London");
        add element
        set.add("Paris");
        set.add("New York");
        set.add("San Francisco");
        set.add("Beijing");
    }
}
```
Chapter 23  Sets and Maps

The strings are added to the set (lines 9–14). New York is added to the set more than once, but only one string is stored, because a set does not allow duplicates.

As shown in the output, the strings are not stored in the order in which they are inserted into the set. There is no particular order for the elements in a hash set. To impose an order on them, you need to use the LinkedHashSet class, which is introduced in the next section.

Recall that the Collection interface extends the Iterable interface, so the elements in a set are iterable. A for-each loop is used to traverse all the elements in the set (lines 19–21).

Since a set is an instance of Collection, all methods defined in Collection can be used for sets. Listing 23.2 gives an example that explores the methods in the Collection interface.

**Listing 23.2  TestMethodsInCollection.java**

```java
public class TestMethodsInCollection {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create set1
        java.util.Set<String> set1 = new java.util.HashSet<String>();
        // Add strings to set1
        set1.add("London");
        set1.add("Paris");
        set1.add("New York");
        set1.add("San Francisco");
        set1.add("Beijing");
        System.out.println("set1 is "+set1);
        System.out.println(set1.size() + " elements in set1");
        // Delete a string from set1
        set1.remove("London");
        System.out.println("\nset1 is "+set1);
        System.out.println(set1.size() + " elements in set1");
        // Create set2
        java.util.Set<String> set2 = new java.util.HashSet<String>();
        // Add strings to set2
        set2.add("London");
        set2.add("Shanghai");
        set2.add("Paris");
        System.out.println("\nset2 is "+set2);
        System.out.println(set2.size() + " elements in set2");
        System.out.println("Is Taipei in set2? "+set2.contains("Taipei"));
    }
}
```

[San Francisco, New York, Paris, Beijing, London]
SAN FRANCISCO NEW YORK PARIS BEIJING LONDON
```java
set1.addAll(set2);
System.out.println("After adding set2 to set1, set1 is "+ set1);
set1.removeAll(set2);
System.out.println("After removing set2 from set1, set1 is "+ set1);
set1.retainAll(set2);
System.out.println("After removing common elements in set2 from set1, set1 is "+ set1);
}
```

set1 is [San Francisco, New York, Paris, Beijing, London]
5 elements in set1
set1 is [San Francisco, New York, Paris, Beijing]
4 elements in set1
set2 is [Shanghai, Paris, London]
3 elements in set2
Is Taipei in set2? false
After adding set2 to set1, set1 is
[San Francisco, New York, Shanghai, Paris, Beijing, London]
After removing set2 from set1, set1 is
[San Francisco, New York, Beijing]
After removing common elements in set2 from set1, set1 is []

The program creates two sets (lines 4, 22). The `size()` method returns the number of the elements in a set (line 14). Line 17
```java
set1.remove("London");
```
removes London from set1.
The `contains` method (line 32) checks whether an element is in the set.
Line 34
```java
set1.addAll(set2);
```
adds set2 to set1. Therefore, set1 becomes [San Francisco, New York, Shanghai, Paris, Beijing, London].
Line 38
```java
set1.removeAll(set2);
```
removes set2 from set1. Thus, set1 becomes [San Francisco, New York, Beijing].
Line 42
```java
set1.retainAll(set2);
```
retains the common elements in set1. Since set1 and set2 have no common elements, set1 becomes empty.
23.2.2 **LinkedHashSet**

`LinkedHashSet` extends `HashSet` with a linked-list implementation that supports an ordering of the elements in the set. The elements in a `HashSet` are not ordered, but the elements in a `LinkedHashSet` can be retrieved in the order in which they were inserted into the set. A `LinkedHashSet` can be created by using one of its four constructors, as shown in Figure 23.1. These constructors are similar to the constructors for `HashSet`.

Listing 23.3 gives a test program for `LinkedHashSet`. The program simply replaces `HashSet` by `LinkedHashSet` in Listing 23.1.

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestLinkedHashSet {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a hash set
        Set<String> set = new LinkedHashSet<String>();

        // Add strings to the set
        set.add("London");
        set.add("Paris");
        set.add("New York");
        set.add("San Francisco");
        set.add("Beijing");

        System.out.println(set);

        // Display the elements in the hash set
        for (String element: set)  
            System.out.print(element.toLowerCase() + " ");
    }
}
```

![LinkedHashSet](output)

A `LinkedHashSet` is created in line 6. As shown in the output, the strings are stored in the order in which they are inserted. Since `LinkedHashSet` is a set, it does not store duplicate elements.

The `LinkedHashSet` maintains the order in which the elements are inserted. To impose a different order (e.g., increasing or decreasing order), you can use the `TreeSet` class, which is introduced in the next section.

**Tip**

If you don't need to maintain the order in which the elements are inserted, use `HashSet`, which is more efficient than `LinkedHashSet`.

23.2.3 **TreeSet**

`SortedSet` is a subinterface of `Set`, which guarantees that the elements in the set are sorted. Additionally, it provides the methods `first()` and `last()` for returning the first and last elements in the set, and `headSet(toElement)` and `tailSet(fromElement)` for returning a portion of the set whose elements are less than `toElement` and greater than or equal to `fromElement`. 
NavigableSet extends SortedSet to provide navigation methods lower(e), floor(e), ceiling(e), and higher(e) that return elements respectively less than, less than or equal, greater than or equal, and greater than a given element and return null if there is no such element. The pollFirst() and pollLast() methods remove and return the first and last element in the tree set, respectively.

TreeSet implements the SortedSet interface. To create a TreeSet, use a constructor, as shown in Figure 23.1. You can add objects into a tree set as long as they can be compared with each other.

As discussed in Section 22.5, the elements can be compared in two ways: using the Comparable interface or the Comparator interface.

Listing 23.4 gives an example of ordering elements using the Comparable interface. The preceding example in Listing 23.3 displays all the strings in their insertion order. This example rewrites the preceding example to display the strings in alphabetical order using the TreeSet class.

LISTING 23.4 TestTreeSet.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestTreeSet {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a hash set
        Set<String> set = new HashSet<String>();

        // Add strings to the set
        set.add("London");
        set.add("Paris");
        set.add("New York");
        set.add("San Francisco");
        set.add("Beijing");
        set.add("New York");

        TreeSet<String> treeSet = new TreeSet<String>(set);
        System.out.println("Sorted tree set: " + treeSet);

        // Use the methods in SortedSet interface
        System.out.println("first(): " + treeSet.first());
        System.out.println("last(): " + treeSet.last());
        System.out.println("headSet("New York"): " +
                           treeSet.headSet("New York"));
        System.out.println("tailSet("New York"): " +
                           treeSet.tailSet("New York"));

        // Use the methods in NavigableSet interface
        System.out.println("lower("P"): " + treeSet.lower("P"));
        System.out.println("higher("P"): " + treeSet.higher("P"));
        System.out.println("floor("P"): " + treeSet.floor("P"));
        System.out.println("ceiling("P"): " + treeSet.ceiling("P"));
        System.out.println("pollFirst(): " + treeSet.pollFirst());
        System.out.println("pollLast(): " + treeSet.pollLast());
        System.out.println("New tree set: " + treeSet);
    }
}
```

first(): Beijing
last(): San Francisco
The example creates a hash set filled with strings, then creates a tree set for the same strings. The strings are sorted in the tree set using the `compareTo` method in the `Comparable` interface.

The elements in the set are sorted once you create a `TreeSet` object from a `HashSet` object using `new TreeSet<String>(set)` (line 16). You may rewrite the program to create an instance of `TreeSet` using its no-arg constructor, and add the strings into the `TreeSet` object.

- `treeSet.first()` returns the first element in `treeSet` (line 20), and `treeSet.last()` returns the last element in `treeSet` (line 21). `treeSet.headSet("New York")` returns the elements in `treeSet` before New York (lines 22–23). `treeSet.tailSet("New York")` returns the elements in `treeSet` after New York, including New York (lines 24–25).

- `treeSet.lower("P")` returns the largest element less than `P` in `treeSet` (line 28). `treeSet.higher("P")` returns the smallest element greater than `P` in `treeSet` (line 29). `treeSet.floor("P")` returns the largest element less than or equal to `P` in `treeSet` (line 30). `treeSet.ceiling("P")` returns the smallest element greater than or equal to `P` in `treeSet` (line 31). `treeSet.pollFirst()` removes the first element in `treeSet` and returns the removed element (line 32). `treeSet.pollLast()` removes the last element in `treeSet` (line 33).

**Note**

All the concrete classes in Java Collections Framework (see Figure 22.1) have at least two constructors. One is the no-arg constructor that constructs an empty collection. The other constructs instances from a collection. Thus the `TreeSet` class has the constructor `TreeSet(Collection c)` for constructing a `TreeSet` from a collection `c`. In this example, `new TreeSet<String>(set)` creates an instance of `TreeSet` from the collection `set`.

**Tip**

If you don’t need to maintain a sorted set when updating a set, you should use a hash set, because it takes less time to insert and remove elements in a hash set. When you need a sorted set, you can create a tree set from the hash set.

If you create a `TreeSet` using its no-arg constructor, the `compareTo` method is used to compare the elements in the set, assuming that the class of the elements implements the `Comparable` interface. To use a comparator, you have to use the constructor `TreeSet(Comparator comparator)` to create a sorted set that uses the `compare` method in the comparator to order the elements in the set.

Listing 23.5 gives a program that demonstrates how to sort elements in a tree set using the `Comparator` interface.

**Listing 23.5** TestTreeSetWithComparator.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestTreeSetWithComparator {
```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a tree set for geometric objects using a comparator
    Set<GeometricObject> set =
        new TreeSet<GeometricObject> (new GeometricObjectComparator());
    set.add(new Rectangle(4, 5));
    set.add(new Circle(40));
    set.add(new Circle(40));
    set.add(new Rectangle(4, 1));

    // Display geometric objects in the tree set
    System.out.println("A sorted set of geometric objects");
    for (GeometricObject element: set)
        System.out.println("area = " + element.getArea());
}

A sorted set of geometric objects
area = 4.0
area = 20.0
area = 5023.548245743669

The GeometricObjectComparator class is defined in Listing 22.4. The program creates a tree set of geometric objects using the GeometricObjectComparator for comparing the elements in the set (lines 6–7).

The Circle and Rectangle classes were defined in Section 15.2, Abstract Classes. They are all subclasses of GeometricObject. They are added to the set (lines 8–11).

Two circles of the same radius are added to the tree set (lines 9–10), but only one is stored, because the two circles are equal and the set does not allow duplicates.

23.1 How do you create an instance of Set? How do you insert a new element in a set? How do you remove an element from a set? How do you find the size of a set?

23.2 If the two objects o1 and o2 are equal, what is o1.equals(o2) and o1.hashCode() == o2.hashCode()?

23.3 What are the differences between HashSet, LinkedHashSet, and TreeSet?

23.4 How do you traverse the elements in a set?

23.5 How do you sort the elements in a set using the compareTo method in the Comparable interface? How do you sort the elements in a set using the Comparator interface? What would happen if you added an element that could not be compared with the existing elements in a tree set?

23.6 Suppose that set1 is a set that contains the strings red, yellow, and green, and that set2 is another set that contains the strings red, yellow, and blue. Answer the following questions:

- What are in set1 and set2 after executing set1.addAll(set2)?
- What are in set1 and set2 after executing set1.add(set2)?
- What are in set1 and set2 after executing set1.removeAll(set2)?
- What are in set1 and set2 after executing set1.remove(set2)?
- What are in set1 and set2 after executing set1.retainAll(set2)?
- What is in set1 after executing set1.clear()?
23.7 Show the output of the following code:

```java
import java.util.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        LinkedHashSet<String> set1 = new LinkedHashSet<String>();
        set1.add("New York");
        LinkedHashSet<String> set2 = set1;
        LinkedHashSet<String> set3 =
            (LinkedHashSet<String>)(set1.clone());
        set1.add("Atlanta");
        System.out.println("set1 is " + set1);
        System.out.println("set2 is " + set2);
        System.out.println("set3 is " + set3);
    }
}
```

23.8 Show the output of the following code:

```java
import java.util.*;
import java.io.*;

public class Test {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        ObjectOutputStream output = new ObjectOutputStream( new FileOutputStream("c:\test.dat"));
        LinkedHashSet<String> set1 = new LinkedHashSet<String>();
        set1.add("New York");
        LinkedHashSet<String> set2 =
            (LinkedHashSet<String>)set1.clone();
        set1.add("Atlanta");
        output.writeObject(set1);
        output.writeObject(set2);
        output.close();

        ObjectInputStream input = new ObjectInputStream( new FileInputStream("c:\test.dat"));
        set1 = (LinkedHashSet<String>)input.readObject();
        set2 = (LinkedHashSet<String>)input.readObject();
        System.out.println(set1);
        System.out.println(set2);
        output.close();
    }
}
```

23.3 Comparing the Performance of Sets and Lists

Sets are more efficient than lists for storing nonduplicate elements. Lists are useful for accessing elements through the index.

The elements in a list can be accessed through the index. However, sets do not support indexing, because the elements in a set are unordered. To traverse all elements in a set, use a for-each loop. We now conduct an interesting experiment to test the performance of sets and lists. Listing 23.6 gives a program that shows the execution time of (1) testing whether an element is in a hash set, linked hash set, tree set, array list, and linked list, and (2) removing elements from a hash set, linked hash set, tree set, array list, and linked list.
23.3 Comparing the Performance of Sets and Lists

**Listing 23.6**  SetListPerformanceTest.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class SetListPerformanceTest {
    static final int N = 50000;

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Add numbers 0, 1, 2, ..., N - 1 to the array list
        List<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
            list.add(i);
        Collections.shuffle(list);  // Shuffle the array list

        // Create a hash set, and test its performance
        Collection<Integer> set1 = new HashSet<Integer>(list);
        System.out.println("Member test time for hash set is " +
                           getTestTime(set1) + " milliseconds");
        System.out.println("Remove element time for hash set is " +
                           getRemoveTime(set1) + " milliseconds");

        // Create a linked hash set, and test its performance
        Collection<Integer> set2 = new LinkedHashSet<Integer>(list);
        System.out.println("Member test time for linked hash set is " +
                           getTestTime(set2) + " milliseconds");
        System.out.println("Remove element time for linked hash set is " +
                           getRemoveTime(set2) + " milliseconds");

        // Create a tree set, and test its performance
        Collection<Integer> set3 = new TreeSet<Integer>(list);
        System.out.println("Member test time for tree set is " +
                           getTestTime(set3) + " milliseconds");
        System.out.println("Remove element time for tree set is " +
                           getRemoveTime(set3) + " milliseconds");

        // Create an array list, and test its performance
        Collection<Integer> list1 = new ArrayList<Integer>(list);
        System.out.println("Member test time for array list is " +
                           getTestTime(list1) + " milliseconds");
        System.out.println("Remove element time for array list is " +
                           getRemoveTime(list1) + " milliseconds");

        // Create a linked list, and test its performance
        Collection<Integer> list2 = new LinkedList<Integer>(list);
        System.out.println("Member test time for linked list is " +
                           getTestTime(list2) + " milliseconds");
        System.out.println("Remove element time for linked list is " +
                           getRemoveTime(list2) + " milliseconds");
    }

    public static long getTestTime(Collection<Integer> c) {
        long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();  // start time

        // Test if a number is in the collection
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
            c.contains((int)(Math.random() * 2 * N));  // test membership
        return System.currentTimeMillis() - startTime;  // return execution time
    }
}
```
public static long getRemoveTime(Collection<Integer> c) {
    long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
        c.remove(i);
    return System.currentTimeMillis() - startTime;
}

Member test time for hash set is 20 milliseconds
Remove element time for hash set is 27 milliseconds
Member test time for linked hash set is 27 milliseconds
Remove element time for linked hash set is 26 milliseconds
Member test time for tree set is 47 milliseconds
Remove element time for tree set is 34 milliseconds
Member test time for array list is 39802 milliseconds
Remove element time for array list is 16196 milliseconds
Member test time for linked list is 52197 milliseconds
Remove element time for linked list is 14870 milliseconds

The program creates a list for numbers from 0 to N-1 (for N = 50000) (lines 8–10) and shuffles the list (line 11). From this list, the program creates a hash set (line 14), a linked hash set (line 21), a tree set (line 28), an array list (line 35), and a linked list (line 42). The program obtains the execution time for testing whether a number is in the hash set (line 16), linked hash set (line 23), tree set (line 30), array list (line 37), and linked list (line 44), and obtains the execution time for removing the elements from the hash set (line 18), linked hash set (line 25), tree set (line 32), array list (line 39), and linked list (line 46).

The getTestTime method invokes the contains method to test whether a number is in the container (line 54) and the getRemoveTime method invokes the remove method to remove an element from the container (line 63).

As these runtimes illustrate, sets are much more efficient than lists for testing whether an element is in a set or a list. Therefore, the No-Fly list should be implemented using a set instead of a list, because it is much faster to test whether an element is in a set than in a list.

You may wonder why sets are more efficient than lists. The questions will be answered in Chapters 26 and 28 when we introduce the implementations of lists and sets.

23.9 Suppose you need to write a program that stores non-duplicate elements, what data structure should you use?
23.10 Suppose you need to write a program that stores non-duplicate elements in the order of insertion, what data structure should you use?
23.11 Suppose you need to write a program that stores non-duplicate elements in increasing order of the element values, what data structure should you use?
23.12 Suppose you need to write a program that stores a fixed number of the elements (possibly duplicates), what data structure should you use?
23.13 Suppose you need to write a program that stores the elements in a list with frequent operations to add and insert elements at the end of the list, what data structure should you use?
23.14 Suppose you need to write a program that stores the elements in a list with frequent operations to add and insert elements at the beginning of the list, what data structure should you use?
23.4 Case Study: Counting Keywords

This section presents an application that counts the number of the keywords in a Java source file.

For each word in a Java source file, we need to determine whether the word is a keyword. To handle this efficiently, store all the keywords in a HashSet and use the contains method to test if a word is in the keyword set. Listing 23.7 gives this program.

**Listing 23.7 CountKeywords.java**

```java
import java.util.*;
import java.io.*;

public class CountKeywords {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter a Java source file: ");
        String filename = input.nextLine();

        File file = new File(filename);
        if (file.exists()) {
            System.out.println("The number of keywords in " + filename + " is ");
        }
        else {
            System.out.println("File " + filename + " does not exist");
        }
    }

    public static int countKeywords(File file) throws Exception {
        // Array of all Java keywords + true, false and null
        String[] keywordString = {

        Set<String> keywordSet = new HashSet<String>(Arrays.asList(keywordString));
        int count = 0;

        Scanner input = new Scanner(file);
        while (input.hasNext()) {
            String word = input.next();
            if (keywordSet.contains(word))
                count++;
        }
        return count;
    }
}
```
The program prompts the user to enter a Java source filename (line 7) and reads the filename (line 8). If the file exists, the `countKeywords` method is invoked to count the keywords in the file (line 13).

The `countKeywords` method creates an array of strings for the keywords (lines 22–31) and creates a hash set from this array (lines 33–34). It then reads each word from the file and tests if the word is in the set (line 41). If so, the program increases the count by 1 (line 42).

You may rewrite the program to use a `LinkedHashSet`, `TreeSet`, `ArrayList`, or `LinkedList` to store the keywords. However, using a `HashSet` is the most efficient for this program.

23.15 Will the `CountKeywords` program work if lines 33–34 are changed to

```java
Set<String> keywordSet =
    new LinkedHashSet<String>(Arrays.asList(keywordString));
```

23.16 Will the `CountKeywords` program work if lines 33–34 are changed to

```java
List<String> keywordSet =
    new ArrayList<String>(Arrays.asList(keywordString));
```

23.5 Maps

You can create a map using one of its three concrete classes: `HashMap`, `LinkedHashMap`, or `TreeMap`.

A map is a container object that stores a collection of key/value pairs. It enables fast retrieval, deletion, and updating of the pair through the key. A map stores the values along with the keys. The keys are like indexes. In `List`, the indexes are integers. In `Map`, the keys can be any objects. A map cannot contain duplicate keys. Each key maps to one value. A key and its corresponding value form an entry stored in a map, as shown in Figure 23.2a. Figure 23.2b shows a map in which each entry consists of a Social Security number as the key and a name as the value.

![Figure 23.2](image)

The entries consisting of key/value pairs are stored in a map.
There are three types of maps: `HashMap`, `LinkedHashMap`, and `TreeMap`. The common features of these maps are defined in the `Map` interface. Their relationship is shown in Figure 23.3.

![Figure 23.3](image)

**FIGURE 23.3** A map stores key/value pairs.

The `Map` interface provides the methods for querying, updating, and obtaining a collection of values and a set of keys, as shown in Figure 23.4.

![Figure 23.4](image)

**FIGURE 23.4** The `Map` interface maps keys to values.

The **update methods** include `clear`, `put`, `putAll`, and `remove`. The `clear()` method removes all entries from the map. The `put(K key, V value)` method associates a value with a key in the map. If the map formerly contained an entry for this key, the old value is replaced by the new value and the old value associated with the key is returned. The `putAll(Map m)` method adds all entries in `m` to this map. The `remove(Object key)` method removes the entry for the specified key from the map.

The **query methods** include `containsKey`, `containsValue`, `isEmpty`, and `size`. The `containsKey(Object key)` method checks whether the map contains an entry for the specified key. The `containsValue(Object value)` method checks whether the map contains an entry for this value. The `isEmpty()` method checks whether the map contains any entries. The `size()` method returns the number of entries in the map.

You can obtain a set of the keys in the map using the `keySet()` method, and a collection of the values in the map using the `values()` method. The `entrySet()` method returns a set of objects that implement the `Map.Entry<K, V>` interface, where `Entry` is an inner interface for the `Map` interface, as shown in Figure 23.5. Each object in the set is a specific key/value pair in the underlying map.
Chapter 23  Sets and Maps

**Figure 23.5** The `Map.Entry` interface operates on an entry in the map.

The `AbstractMap` class is a convenience abstract class that implements all the methods in the `Map` interface except the `entrySet()` method.

The `SortedMap` interface extends the `Map` interface to maintain the entries in ascending order of keys with the additional methods `firstKey()` and `lastKey()` for returning the lowest and highest key, `headMap(toKey)` for returning the portion of the map whose keys are less than `toKey`, and `tailMap(fromKey)` for returning the portion of the map whose keys are greater than or equal to `fromKey`.

The `HashMap`, `LinkedHashMap`, and `TreeMap` classes are three concrete implementations of the `Map` interface, as shown in Figure 23.6.

**Figure 23.6** The Java Collections Framework provides three concrete map classes.
The **HashMap** class is efficient for locating a value, inserting an entry, and deleting an entry. **LinkedHashMap** extends **HashMap** with a linked-list implementation that supports an ordering of the entries in the map. The entries in a **HashMap** are not ordered, but the entries in a **LinkedHashMap** can be retrieved either in the order in which they were inserted into the map (known as the *insertion order*) or in the order in which they were last accessed, from least recently to most recently accessed (*access order*). The no-arg constructor constructs a **LinkedHashMap** with the insertion order. To construct a **LinkedHashMap** with the access order, use **LinkedHashMap(initialCapacity, loadFactor, true)**.

The **TreeMap** class is efficient for traversing the keys in a sorted order. The keys can be sorted using the **Comparable** interface or the **Comparator** interface. If you create a **TreeMap** using its no-arg constructor, the **compareTo** method in the **Comparable** interface is used to compare the keys in the map, assuming that the class for the keys implements the **Comparable** interface. To use a comparator, you have to use the **TreeMap(Comparator comparator)** constructor to create a sorted map that uses the compare method in the comparator to order the entries in the map based on the keys.

**SortedMap** is a subinterface of **Map**, which guarantees that the entries in the map are sorted. Additionally, it provides the methods **firstKey()** and **lastKey()** for returning the first and last keys in the map, and **headMap(toKey)** and **tailMap(fromKey)** for returning a portion of the map whose keys are less than **toKey** and greater than or equal to **fromKey**. **NavigableMap** extends **SortedMap** to provide the navigation methods **lowerKey(key)**, **floorKey(key)**, **ceilingKey(key)**, and **higherKey(key)** that return keys respectively less than, less than or equal, greater than or equal, and greater than a given key and return **null** if there is no such key. The **pollFirstEntry()** and **pollLastEntry()** methods remove and return the first and last entry in the tree map, respectively.

**Note**

Prior to Java 2, **java.util.Hashtable** was used for mapping keys with values. **Hashtable** was redesigned to fit into the Java Collections Framework with all its methods retained for compatibility. **Hashtable** implements the **Map** interface and is used in the same way as **HashMap**, except that **Hashtable** is synchronized.

Listing 23.8 gives an example that creates a hash map, a linked hash map, and a tree map for mapping students to ages. The program first creates a hash map with the student’s name as its key and the age as its value. The program then creates a tree map from the hash map and displays the entries in ascending order of the keys. Finally, the program creates a linked hash map, adds the same entries to the map, and displays the entries.

**LISTING 23.8  TestMap.java**

```java
import java.util.*;

public class TestMap {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a HashMap
        Map<String, Integer> hashMap = new HashMap<String, Integer>();
        hashMap.put("Smith", 30);
        hashMap.put("Anderson", 31);
        hashMap.put("Lewis", 29);
        hashMap.put("Cook", 29);

        System.out.println("Display entries in HashMap");
        System.out.println(hashMap + "\n");

        // Create a TreeMap from the preceding HashMap
        Map<String, Integer> treeMap = new TreeMap<String, Integer>(hashMap);
    }
}
```
Chapter 23  Sets and Maps

846  System.out.println("Display entries in ascending order of key");
19  System.out.println(treeMap);
20
21  // Create a LinkedHashMap
22
23  Map<String, Integer> linkedHashMap =
24    new LinkedHashMap<String, Integer>(16, 0.75f, true);
25  linkedHashMap.put("Smith", 30);
26  linkedHashMap.put("Anderson", 31);
27  linkedHashMap.put("Lewis", 29);
28  linkedHashMap.put("Cook", 29);
29
30  // Display the age for Lewis
31  System.out.println("\nThe age for " + "Lewis is " +
32    linkedHashMap.get("Lewis"));
33
34  System.out.println("Display entries in LinkedHashMap");
35  System.out.println(linkedHashMap);
36 }

As shown in the output, the entries in the HashMap are in random order. The entries in the TreeMap are in increasing order of the keys. The entries in the LinkedHashMap are in the order of their access, from least recently accessed to most recently.

All the concrete classes that implement the Map interface have at least two constructors. One is the no-arg constructor that constructs an empty map, and the other constructs a map from an instance of Map. Thus, new TreeMap<String, Integer>(hashMap) (lines 16–17) constructs a tree map from a hash map.

You can create an insertion-ordered or access-ordered linked hash map. An access-ordered linked hash map is created in lines 22–23. The most recently accessed entry is placed at the end of the map. The entry with the key Lewis is last accessed in line 31, so it is displayed last in line 34.

Tip
If you don't need to maintain an order in a map when updating it, use a HashMap. When you need to maintain the insertion order or access order in the map, use a LinkedHashMap. When you need the map to be sorted on keys, use a TreeMap.

23.17  How do you create an instance of Map? How do you add an entry to a map consisting of a key and a value? How do you remove an entry from a map? How do you find the size of a map? How do you traverse entries in a map?

23.18  Describe and compare HashMap, LinkedHashMap, and TreeMap.

23.19  Show the printout of the following code:

    public class Test {
        public static void main(String[] args) {
            System.out.println("Display entries in ascending order of key");
            System.out.println(treeMap);
            // Create a LinkedHashMap
            Map<String, Integer> linkedHashMap =
                new LinkedHashMap<String, Integer>(16, 0.75f, true);
            linkedHashMap.put("Smith", 30);
            linkedHashMap.put("Anderson", 31);
            linkedHashMap.put("Lewis", 29);
            linkedHashMap.put("Cook", 29);

            // Display the age for Lewis
            System.out.println("\nThe age for " + "Lewis is " +
                linkedHashMap.get("Lewis"));

            System.out.println("Display entries in LinkedHashMap");
            System.out.println(linkedHashMap);
        }
    }
23.6 Case Study: Occurrences of Words

This case study writes a program that counts the occurrences of words in a text and displays the words and their occurrences in alphabetical order of the words.

The program uses a TreeMap to store an entry consisting of a word and its count. For each word, check whether it is already a key in the map. If not, add an entry to the map with the word as the key and value 1. Otherwise, increase the value for the word (key) by 1 in the map. Assume the words are case insensitive; e.g., Good is treated the same as good.

Listing 23.9 gives the solution to the problem.

**LISTING 23.9** CountOccurrenceOfWords.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class CountOccurrenceOfWords {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Set text in a string
        String text = "Good morning. Have a good class. " + "Have a good visit. Have fun!"
                        + "Good morning. Have a good class. " + "Have a good visit. Have fun!"
        ;

        // Create a TreeMap to hold words as key and count as value
        Map<String, Integer> map = new TreeMap<String, Integer>();

        String[] words = text.split("[\n\t\r.,;:!?(){}]"),
        for (int i = 0; i < words.length; i++) {
            String key = words[i].toLowerCase();

            if (key.length() > 0) {
                if (!map.containsKey(key)) {
                    map.put(key, 1);
                }
            } else {
                int value = map.get(key);
                value++;
                map.put(key, value);
            }
        }

        // Get all entries into a set
        Set<Map.Entry<String, Integer>> entrySet = map.entrySet();

        // Get key and value from each entry
        for (Map.Entry<String, Integer> entry: entrySet)
            System.out.println(entry.getKey() + " \t" + entry.getValue());
    }
}
```
The program creates a **TreeMap** (line 10) to store pairs of words and their occurrence counts. The words serve as the keys. Since all values in the map must be stored as objects, the count is wrapped in an **Integer** object.

The program extracts a word from a text using the **split** method (line 12) in the **String** class (see Section 9.2.7). For each word extracted, the program checks whether it is already stored as a key in the map (line 17). If not, a new pair consisting of the word and its initial count (1) is stored in the map (line 18). Otherwise, the count for the word is incremented by 1 (lines 21–23).

The program obtains the entries of the map in a set (line 29), and traverses the set to display the count and the key in each entry (lines 32–33).

Since the map is a tree map, the entries are displayed in increasing order of words. To display them in ascending order of the occurrence counts, see Programming Exercise 23.8.

Now sit back and think how you would write this program without using map. Your new program would be longer and more complex. You will find that map is a very efficient and powerful data structure for solving problems such as this.

### 23.20 Will the CountOccurrenceOfWords program work if line 10 is changed to

```java
Map<String, int> map = new TreeMap<String, int>();
```

### 23.21 Will the CountOccurrenceOfWords program work if line 17 is changed to

```java
if (map.get(key) == null) {
```

### 23.22 Will the CountOccurrenceOfWords program work if lines 32–33 are changed to

```java
for (String key: map)
    System.out.println(key + "\t" + map.getValue(key));
```

---

## 23.7 Singleton and Unmodifiable Collections and Maps

You can create singleton sets, lists, and maps and unmodifiable sets, lists, and maps using the static methods in the **Collections** class.

The **Collections** class contains the static methods for lists and collections. It also contains the methods for creating immutable singleton sets, lists, and maps, and for creating read-only sets, lists, and maps, as shown in Figure 23.7.

The **Collections** class defines three constants—**EMPTY_SET**, **EMPTY_LIST**, and **EMPTY_MAP**—for an empty set, an empty list, and an empty map. These collections are immutable. The class also provides the **singleton(Object o)** method for creating an immutable set containing only a single item, the **singletonList(Object o)** method for creating an immutable list containing only a single item, and the **singletonMap(Object key, Object value)** method for creating an immutable map containing only a single entry.

The **Collections** class also provides six static methods for returning **read-only views for collections**: **unmodifiableCollection(Collection c)**, **unmodifiableList(List list)**, **unmodifiableMap(Map m)**, **unmodifiableSet(Set set)**, **unmodifiableSortedMap(SortedMap m)**, and **unmodifiableSortedSet(SortedSet s)**. This type of view is like a reference to the actual collection. But you cannot modify the
### java.util.Collections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>singleton(o: Object): Set</td>
<td>Returns an immutable set containing the specified object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singletonList(o: Object): List</td>
<td>Returns an immutable list containing the specified object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singletonMap(key: Object, value: Object): Map</td>
<td>Returns an immutable map with the key and value pair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableCollection(c: Collection): Collection</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the collection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableList(list: List): List</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableMap(m: Map): Map</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableSet(s: Set): Set</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableSortedMap(s: SortedMap): SortedMap</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the sorted map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unmodifiableSortedSet(s: SortedSet): SortedSet</td>
<td>Returns a read-only view of the sorted set.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 23.7** The `Collections` class contains the static methods for creating singleton and read-only sets, lists, and maps.

A collection through a read-only view. Attempting to modify a collection through a read-only view will cause an `UnsupportedOperationException`.

23.23 What is wrong in the following code?

```java
Set<String> set = Collections.singleton("Chicago");
set.add("Dallas");
```

23.24 What happens when you run the following code?

```java
List list = Collections.unmodifiableList(Arrays.asList("Chicago", "Boston");
list.remove("Dallas");
```

### Key Terms

- hash map 845
- hash set 830
- linked hash map 845
- linked hash set 834
- map 842
- set 830
- read-only view 848
- tree map 845
- tree set 835

### Chapter Summary

1. A set stores nonduplicate elements. To allow duplicate elements to be stored in a collection, you need to use a list.

2. A map stores key/value pairs. It provides a quick lookup for a value using a key.

3. Three types of sets are supported: `HashSet`, `LinkedHashSet`, and `TreeSet`. `HashSet` stores elements in an unpredictable order. `LinkedHashSet` stores elements in the order they were inserted. `TreeSet` stores elements sorted. All the methods in `HashSet`, `LinkedHashSet`, and `TreeSet` are inherited from the `Collection` interface.
4. The Map interface maps keys to the elements. The keys are like indexes. In List, the indexes are integers. In Map, the keys can be any objects. A map cannot contain duplicate keys. Each key can map to at most one value. The Map interface provides the methods for querying, updating, and obtaining a collection of values and a set of keys.

5. Three types of maps are supported: HashMap, LinkedHashMap, and TreeMap. HashMap is efficient for locating a value, inserting an entry, and deleting an entry. LinkedHashMap supports ordering of the entries in the map. The entries in a HashMap are not ordered, but the entries in a LinkedHashMap can be retrieved either in the order in which they were inserted into the map (known as the insertion order) or in the order in which they were last accessed, from least recently accessed to most recently (access order). TreeMap is efficient for traversing the keys in a sorted order. The keys can be sorted using the Comparable interface or the Comparator interface.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 23.2–23.4

23.1 (Perform set operations on hash sets) Create two hash sets {"George", "Jim", "John", "Blake", "Kevin", "Michael"} and{"George", "Katie", "Kevin", "Michelle", "Ryan"} and find their union, difference, and intersection. (You can clone the sets to preserve the original sets from being changed by these set methods.)

23.2 (Display nonduplicate words in ascending order) Write a program that reads words from a text file and displays all the nonduplicate words in ascending order. The text file is passed as a command-line argument.

**23.3 (Count the keywords in Java source code)** Revise the program in Listing 23.7. If a keyword is in a comment or in a string, don’t count it. Pass the Java file name from the command line. Assume that the Java source code is correct and line comments and paragraph comments do not overlap.

*23.4 (Count consonants and vowels) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a text file name and displays the number of vowels and consonants in the file. Use a set to store the vowels A, E, I, O, and U.

***23.5 (Syntax highlighting) Write a program that converts a Java file into an HTML file. In the HTML file, the keywords, comments, and literals are displayed in bold navy, green, and blue, respectively. Use the command line to pass a Java file and an HTML file. For example, the following command

```
java Exercise23_05 Welcome.java Welcome.html
```

converts Welcome.java into Welcome.html. Figure 23.8a shows a Java file. The corresponding HTML file is shown in Figure 23.8b.
Sections 23.5–23.7

**23.6** (Count the occurrences of numbers entered) Write a program that reads an unspecified number of integers and finds the one that has the most occurrences. The input ends when the input is 0. For example, if you entered 2 3 40 3 5 4 -3 3 3 2 0, the number 3 occurred most often. If not one but several numbers have the most occurrences, all of them should be reported. For example, since 9 and 3 appear twice in the list 9 30 3 9 3 2 4, both occurrences should be reported.

**23.7** (Revise Listing 23.9, CountOccurrenceOfWords.java) Rewrite Listing 23.9 to display the words in ascending order of occurrence counts.

(Hint: Create a class named **WordOccurrence** that implements the **Comparable** interface. The class contains two fields, **word** and **count**. The **compareTo** method compares the counts. For each pair in the hash set in Listing 23.9, create an instance of **WordOccurrence** and store it in an array list. Sort the array list using the **Collections.sort** method. What would be wrong if you stored the instances of **WordOccurrence** in a tree set?)

**23.8** (Count the occurrences of words in a text file) Rewrite Listing 23.9 to read the text from a text file. The text file is passed as a command-line argument. Words are delimited by whitespace, punctuation marks (,,;:?), quotation marks (""), and parentheses. Count words in case-insensitive fashion (e.g., consider Good and good to be the same word). The words must start with a letter. Display the output in alphabetical order of words, with each word preceded by its occurrence count.

**23.9** (Guess the capitals using maps) Rewrite Programming Exercise 9.17 to store pairs of each state and its capital in a map. Your program should prompt the user to enter a state and should display the capital for the state.

**23.10** (Count the occurrences of each keyword) Rewrite Listing 23.7 CountKeywords.java to read in a Java source code file and count the occurrence of each keyword in the file, but don’t count the keyword if it is in a comment or in a string literal.
Objectives

- To estimate algorithm efficiency using the Big O notation (§24.2).
- To explain growth rates and why constants and nondominating terms can be ignored in the estimation (§24.2).
- To determine the complexity of various types of algorithms (§24.3).
- To analyze the binary search algorithm (§24.4.1).
- To analyze the selection sort algorithm (§24.4.2).
- To analyze the insertion sort algorithm (§24.4.3).
- To analyze the Towers of Hanoi algorithm (§24.4.4).
- To describe common growth functions (constant, logarithmic, log-linear, quadratic, cubic, exponential) (§24.4.5).
- To design efficient algorithms for finding Fibonacci numbers using dynamic programming (§24.5).
- To find the GCD using Euclid’s algorithm (§24.6).
- To find prime numbers using the sieve of Eratosthenes (§24.7).
- To design efficient algorithms for finding the closest pair of points using the divide-and-conquer approach (§24.8).
- To solve the Eight Queens problem using the backtracking approach (§24.9).
- To design efficient algorithms for finding a convex hull for a set of points (§24.10).
24.1 Introduction

Algorithm design is to develop a mathematical process for solving a program. Algorithm analysis is to predict the performance of an algorithm.

The preceding two chapters introduced classic data structures (lists, stacks, queues, priority queues, sets, and maps) and applied them to solve problems. This chapter will use a variety of examples to introduce common algorithmic techniques (dynamic programming, divide-and-conquer, and backtracking) for developing efficient algorithms. Later in the book, we will introduce efficient algorithms for trees and graphs in Chapters 27, 29, 30, and 31. Before introducing developing efficient algorithms, we need to address the question on how to measure algorithm efficiency.

24.2 Measuring Algorithm Efficiency Using Big O Notation

The Big O notation obtains a function for measuring algorithm time complexity based on the input size. You can ignore multiplicative constants and nondominating terms in the function.

Suppose two algorithms perform the same task, such as search (linear search vs. binary search) or sort (selection sort vs. insertion sort). Which one is better? To answer this question, you might implement these algorithms and run the programs to get execution time. But there are two problems with this approach:

- First, many tasks run concurrently on a computer. The execution time of a particular program depends on the system load.
- Second, the execution time depends on specific input. Consider, for example, linear search and binary search. If an element to be searched happens to be the first in the list, linear search will find the element quicker than binary search.

It is very difficult to compare algorithms by measuring their execution time. To overcome these problems, a theoretical approach was developed to analyze algorithms independent of computers and specific input. This approach approximates the effect of a change on the size of the input. In this way, you can see how fast an algorithm’s execution time increases as the input size increases, so you can compare two algorithms by examining their growth rates.

Consider linear search. The linear search algorithm compares the key with the elements in the array sequentially until the key is found or the array is exhausted. If the key is not in the array, it requires $n$ comparisons for an array of size $n$. If the key is in the array, it requires $n/2$ comparisons on average. The algorithm’s execution time is proportional to the size of the array. If you double the size of the array, you will expect the number of comparisons to double. The algorithm grows at a linear rate. The growth rate has an order of magnitude of $n$. Computer scientists use the Big O notation to represent the “order of magnitude.” Using this notation, the complexity of the linear search algorithm is $O(n)$, pronounced as “order of $n$.”

For the same input size, an algorithm’s execution time may vary, depending on the input. An input that results in the shortest execution time is called the best-case input, and an input that results in the longest execution time is the worst-case input. Best-case analysis and worst-case analysis are to analyze the algorithms for their best-case input and worst-case input. Best-case and worst-case analysis are not representative, but worst-case analysis is very useful. You can be assured that the algorithm will never be slower than the worst case. An average-case analysis attempts to determine the average amount of time among all possible inputs of the same size. Average-case analysis is ideal, but difficult to perform, because for many problems it is hard to determine the relative probabilities and distributions of various
24.2 Measuring Algorithm Efficiency Using Big O Notation

The linear search algorithm requires \( n \) comparisons in the worst case and \( n/2 \) comparisons in the average case if you are nearly always looking for something known to be in the list. Using the Big O notation, both cases require \( O(n) \) time. The multiplicative constant \((1/2)\) can be omitted. Algorithm analysis is focused on growth rate. The multiplicative constants have no impact on growth rates. The growth rate for \( n/2 \) or \( 100n \) is the same as for \( n \), as illustrated in Table 24.1. Therefore, \( O(\frac{n}{2}) = O(100n) \).

Consider the algorithm for finding the maximum number in an array of \( n \) elements. To find the maximum number if \( n \) is 2, it takes one comparison; if \( n \) is 3, two comparisons. In general, it takes comparisons to find the maximum number in a list of \( n \) elements. Algorithm analysis is for large input size. If the input size is small, there is no significance in estimating an algorithm’s efficiency. As \( n \) grows larger, the \( n \) part in the expression \( n - 1 \) dominates the complexity. The Big O notation allows you to ignore the nondominating part (e.g., \(-1\) in the expression \( n - 1 \)) and highlight the important part (e.g., \( n \) in the expression \( n - 1 \)). Therefore, the complexity of this algorithm is \( O(n) \).

The Big O notation estimates the execution time of an algorithm in relation to the input size. If the time is not related to the input size, the algorithm is said to take constant time with the notation \( O(1) \). For example, a method that retrieves an element at a given index in an array takes constant time, because the time does not grow as the size of the array increases.

The following mathematical summations are often useful in algorithm analysis:

\[
1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + (n - 2) + (n - 1) = \frac{n(n - 1)}{2} = O(n^2)
\]

\[
1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + (n - 1) + n = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2} = O(n^2)
\]

\[
a^0 + a^1 + a^2 + a^3 + \ldots + a^{(n-1)} + a^n = \frac{a^{n+1} - 1}{a - 1} = O(a^n)
\]

\[
2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + \ldots + 2^{(n-1)} + 2^n = \frac{2^{n+1} - 1}{2 - 1} = 2^{n+1} - 1 = O(2^n)
\]

### Table 24.1 Growth Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( f(n) )</th>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>( n/2 )</th>
<th>( 100n )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( f(200) / f(100) )</td>
<td>( f(200) / f(100) )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 24.1 Why is a constant factor ignored in the Big O notation? Why is a nondominating term ignored in the Big O notation?

### 24.2 What is the order of each of the following functions?

\[
\frac{(n^2 + 1)^2}{n}, \frac{(n^2 + \log^2 n)^2}{n}, n^3 + 100n^2 + n, 2^n + 100n^2 + 45n, n2^n + n^22^n
\]
Chapter 24 Developing Efficient Algorithms

24.3 Examples: Determining Big O

This section gives several examples of determining Big O for repetition, sequence, and selection statements.

Example 1
Consider the time complexity for the following loop:

```java
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    k = k + 5;
}
```

It is a constant time, \( c \), for executing

\[ k = k + 5; \]

Since the loop is executed \( n \) times, the time complexity for the loop is

\[ T(n) = (\text{a constant } c) \times n = O(n). \]

Example 2
What is the time complexity for the following loop?

```java
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    for (j = 1; j <= n; j++) {
        k = k + i + j;
    }
}
```

It is a constant time, \( c \), for executing

\[ k = k + i + j; \]

The outer loop executes \( n \) times. For each iteration in the outer loop, the inner loop is executed \( n \) times. Thus, the time complexity for the loop is

\[ T(n) = (\text{a constant } c) \times n \times n = O(n^2). \]

An algorithm with the \( O(n^2) \) time complexity is called a quadratic algorithm. The quadratic algorithm grows quickly as the problem size increases. If you double the input size, the time for the algorithm is quadrupled. Algorithms with a nested loop are often quadratic.

Example 3
Consider the following loop:

```java
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    for (j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
        k = k + i + j;
    }
}
```

The outer loop executes \( n \) times. For \( i = 1, 2, \ldots \), the inner loop is executed one time, two times, and \( n \) times. Thus, the time complexity for the loop is

\[
T(n) = c + 2c + 3c + 4c + \ldots + nc = \frac{cn(n + 1)}{2} = (c/2) n^2 + (c/2)n = O(n^2)
\]
Example 4
Consider the following loop:

```java
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    for (j = 1; j <= 20; j++) {
        k = k + i + j;
    }
}
```

The inner loop executes 20 times, and the outer loop \( n \) times. Therefore, the time complexity for the loop is

\[
T(n) = 20 \cdot c \cdot n = O(n)
\]

Example 5
Consider the following sequences:

```java
for (j = 1; j <= 10; j++) {
    k = k + 4;
}
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
    for (j = 1; j <= 20; j++) {
        k = k + i + j;
    }
}
```

The first loop executes 10 times, and the second loop \( 20 \cdot n \) times. Thus, the time complexity for the loop is

\[
T(n) = 10 \cdot c + 20 \cdot c \cdot n = O(n)
\]

Example 6
Consider the following selection statement:

```java
if (list.contains(e)) {
    System.out.println(e);
} else {
    for (Object t: list) {
        System.out.println(t);
    }
}
```

Suppose the list contains \( n \) elements. The execution time for `list.contains(e)` is \( O(n) \). The loop in the `else` clause takes \( O(n) \) time. Hence, the time complexity for the entire statement is

\[
T(n) = \text{if test time} + \text{worst-case time (if clause, else clause)}
    = O(n) + O(n) = O(n)
\]

Example 7
Consider the computation of \( a^n \) for an integer \( n \). A simple algorithm would multiply \( a \) \( n \) times, as follows:

```java
result = 1;
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
    result *= a;
```
The algorithm takes $O(n)$ time. Without loss of generality, assume $n = 2^k$. You can improve the algorithm using the following scheme:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{result} &= a; \\
\text{for} \ (\text{int} \ i = 1; \ i \leq k; \ i++) \\
&\quad \text{result} = \text{result} \times \text{result};
\end{align*}
\]

The algorithm takes $O(\log n)$ time. For an arbitrary $n$, you can revise the algorithm and prove that the complexity is still $O(\log n)$. (See Checkpoint Question 24.7.)

**Note**
For simplicity, since $O(\log n) = O(\log_2 n) = O(\log_a n)$, the constant base is omitted.

### 24.3 Count the number of iterations in the following loops.

- **a)**

```java
int count = 1;
while (count < 30) {
    count = count * 2;
}
```

- **b)**

```java
int count = 15;
while (count < 30) {
    count = count * 3;
}
```

- **c)**

```java
int count = 1;
while (count < n) {
    count = count * 2;
}
```

- **d)**

```java
int count = 15;
while (count < n) {
    count = count * 3;
}
```

### 24.4 How many stars are displayed in the following code if $n$ is 10? How many if $n$ is 20? Use the Big $O$ notation to estimate the time complexity.

- **a)**

```java
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    System.out.print('*');
}
```

- **b)**

```java
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
        System.out.print('*');
    }
}
```

- **c)**

```java
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
        System.out.print('*');
    }
}
```

- **d)**

```java
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
        System.out.print('*');
    }
}
```
24.5 Use the Big $O$ notation to estimate the time complexity of the following methods:

```java
public static void mA(int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        System.out.print(Math.random());
    }
}
```

```java
public static void mB(int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < i; j++)
            System.out.print(Math.random());
    }
}
```

```java
public static void mC(int[] m) {
    for (int i = 0; i < m.length; i++) {
        System.out.print(m[i]);
    }
    for (int i = m.length - 1; i >= 0; )
        {
            System.out.print(m[i]);
            i--;
        }
}
```

```java
public static void mD(int[] m) {
    for (int i = 0; i < m.length; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < i; j++)
            System.out.print(m[i] * m[j]);
    }
}
```

24.6 Design an $O(n)$ time algorithm for computing the sum of numbers from $n_1$ to $n_2$ for $(n_1 < n_2)$. Can you design an $O(1)$ for performing the same task?

24.7 Example 7 in Section 24.3 assumes $n = 2^k$. Revise the algorithm for an arbitrary $n$ and prove that the complexity is still $O(\log n)$.

24.4 Analyzing Algorithm Time Complexity

This section analyzes the complexity of several well-known algorithms: binary search, selection sort, insertion sort, and Towers of Hanoi.

24.4.1 Analyzing Binary Search

The binary search algorithm presented in Listing 6.7, BinarySearch.java, searches for a key in a sorted array. Each iteration in the algorithm contains a fixed number of operations, denoted by $c$. Let $T(n)$ denote the time complexity for a binary search on a list of $n$ elements. Without loss of generality, assume $n$ is a power of 2 and $k = \log n$. Since a binary search eliminates half of the input after two comparisons,

$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c = T\left(\frac{n}{2^2}\right) + c + c = T\left(\frac{n}{2^k}\right) + kc$$

$$= T(1) + c \log n = 1 + (\log n)c$$

$$= O(\log n)$$

Ignoring constants and nondominating terms, the complexity of the binary search algorithm is $O(\log n)$. An algorithm with the $O(\log n)$ time complexity is called a logarithmic algorithm. The base of the log is 2, but the base does not affect a logarithmic growth rate, so it can be omitted. The logarithmic algorithm grows slowly as the problem size increases. In the case of binary search, each time you double the array size, at most one more comparison will be required. If you square the input size of any logarithmic time algorithm, you only double the time of execution. So a logarithmic-time algorithm is very efficient.
24.4.2 Analyzing Selection Sort

The selection sort algorithm presented in Listing 6.8, SelectionSort.java, finds the smallest element in the list and swaps it with the first element. It then finds the smallest element remaining and swaps it with the first element in the remaining list, and so on until the remaining list contains only one element left to be sorted. The number of comparisons is for the first iteration, for the second iteration, and so on. Let \( T(n) \) denote the complexity for selection sort and \( c \) denote the total number of other operations such as assignments and additional comparisons in each iteration. Thus,

\[
T(n) = (n-1) + c + (n-2) + c + \ldots + 2 + c + 1 + c \\
= \frac{(n-1)(n-1+1)}{2} + c(n-1) = \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{2} + cn - c \\
= O(n^2)
\]

Therefore, the complexity of the selection sort algorithm is \( O(n^2) \).

24.4.3 Analyzing Insertion Sort

The insertion sort algorithm presented in Listing 6.9, InsertionSort.java, sorts a list of elements by repeatedly inserting a new element into a sorted partial array until the whole array is sorted. At the \( k \)th iteration, to insert an element into an array of size \( k \), it may take \( k \) comparisons to find the insertion position, and \( k \) moves to insert the element. Let \( T(n) \) denote the complexity for insertion sort and \( c \) denote the total number of other operations such as assignments and additional comparisons in each iteration. Thus,

\[
T(n) = (2 + c) + (2 \times 2 + c) + \ldots + (2 \times (n-1) + c) \\
= 2(1 + 2 + \ldots + n - 1) + c(n-1) \\
= 2 \frac{(n-1)n}{2} + cn - c = n^2 - n + cn - c \\
= O(n^2)
\]

Therefore, the complexity of the insertion sort algorithm is \( O(n^2) \). Hence, the selection sort and insertion sort are of the same time complexity.

24.4.4 Analyzing the Towers of Hanoi Problem

The Towers of Hanoi problem presented in Listing 20.8, TowersOfHanoi.java, recursively moves \( n \) disks from tower A to tower B with the assistance of tower C as follows:

1. Move the first \( n-1 \) disks from A to C with the assistance of tower B.
2. Move disk \( n \) from A to B.
3. Move \( n-1 \) disks from C to B with the assistance of tower A.

The complexity of this algorithm is measured by the number of moves. Let \( T(n) \) denote the number of moves for the algorithm to move \( n \) disks from tower A to tower B. Thus \( T(1) \) is 1. Thus,

\[
T(n) = T(n-1) + 1 + T(n-1) \\
= 2T(n-1) + 1 \\
= 2(2T(n-2) + 1) + 1
\]
An algorithm with $O(2^n)$ time complexity is called an exponential algorithm. As the input size increases, the time for the exponential algorithm grows exponentially. Exponential algorithms are not practical for large input size. Suppose the disk is moved at a rate of 1 per second. It would take $2^{32}/(365 \times 24 \times 60 \times 60) = 136$ years to move 32 disks and $2^{64}/(365 \times 24 \times 60 \times 60) = 585$ billion years to move 64 disks.

### 24.4.5 Common Recurrence Relations

Recurrence relations are a useful tool for analyzing algorithm complexity. As shown in the preceding examples, the complexity for binary search, selection sort and insertion sort, and the Towers of Hanoi is $O(\log n)$, $O(n)$, and $O(2^n)$, respectively. Table 24.2 summarizes the common recurrence relations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recurrence Relation</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(\log n)$</td>
<td>Binary search, Euclid's GCD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(n)$</td>
<td>Linear search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(n)$</td>
<td>Checkpoint Question 24.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(n \log n)$</td>
<td>Merge sort (Chapter 25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(n^2)$</td>
<td>Selection sort, insertion sort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + O(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(2^n)$</td>
<td>Towers of Hanoi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) + O(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) = O(2^n)$</td>
<td>Recursive Fibonacci algorithm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 24.4.6 Comparing Common Growth Functions

The preceding sections analyzed the complexity of several algorithms. Table 24.3 lists some common growth functions and shows how growth rates change as the input size doubles from $n = 25$ to $n = 50$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>$n = 25$</th>
<th>$n = 50$</th>
<th>$f(50)/f(25)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>Constant time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>Logarithmic</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>Linear time</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(n \log n)$</td>
<td>Log-linear</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(n^2)$</td>
<td>Quadratic time</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(n^3)$</td>
<td>Cubic time</td>
<td>15,625</td>
<td>125,000</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O(2^n)$</td>
<td>Exponential time</td>
<td>$3.36 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.27 \times 10^{15}$</td>
<td>$3.35 \times 10^7$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These functions are ordered as follows, as illustrated in Figure 24.1.

\[ O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n) \]

**FIGURE 24.1** As the size \( n \) increases, the function grows.

24.8 Put the following growth functions in order:

\[ \frac{5n^3}{4032}, 44 \log n, 10n \log n, 500, 2n^2, \frac{2^n}{45}, 3n \]

24.9 Estimate the time complexity for adding two \( n \times m \) matrices, and for multiplying an \( n \times m \) matrix by an \( m \times k \) matrix.

24.10 Describe an algorithm for finding the occurrence of the max element in an array. Analyze the complexity of the algorithm.

24.11 Describe an algorithm for removing duplicates from an array. Analyze the complexity of the algorithm.

24.12 Analyze the following sorting algorithm:

```java
for (int i = 0; i < list.length - 1; i++) {
    if (list[i] > list[i + 1]) {
        swap list[i] with list[i + 1];
        i = -1;
    }
}
```

24.5 Finding Fibonacci Numbers Using Dynamic Programming

This section analyzes and designs an efficient algorithm for finding Fibonacci numbers using dynamic programming.

Section 20.3, Case Study: Computing Fibonacci Numbers, gave a recursive method for finding the Fibonacci number, as follows:

```java
/** The method for finding the Fibonacci number */
public static long fib(long index) {
    if (index == 0) // Base case
        return 0;
    else if (index == 1) // Base case
        return 1;
    else // Reduction and recursive calls
        return fib(index - 1) + fib(index - 2);
}
```
We can now prove that the complexity of this algorithm is $O(2^n)$. For convenience, let the index be $n$. Let $T(n)$ denote the complexity for the algorithm that finds $\text{fib}(n)$ and $c$ denote the constant time for comparing the index with 0 and 1; that is, $T(1)$ is $c$. Thus,

\[
T(n) = T(n - 1) + T(n - 2) + c \\
\leq 2T(n - 1) + c \\
\leq 2(2T(n - 2) + c) + c \\
= 2^2T(n - 2) + 2c + c
\]

Similar to the analysis of the Towers of Hanoi problem, we can show that $T(n)$ is $O(2^n)$.

However, this algorithm is not efficient. Is there an efficient algorithm for finding a Fibonacci number? The trouble with the recursive $\text{fib}$ method is that the method is invoked redundantly with the same arguments. For example, to compute $\text{fib}(4)$, $\text{fib}(3)$ and $\text{fib}(2)$ are invoked. To compute $\text{fib}(3)$, $\text{fib}(2)$ and $\text{fib}(1)$ are invoked. Note that $\text{fib}(2)$ is redundantly invoked. We can improve it by avoiding repeated calling of the $\text{fib}$ method with the same argument. Note that a new Fibonacci number is obtained by adding the preceding two numbers in the sequence. If you use the two variables $f_0$ and $f_1$ to store the two preceding numbers, the new number, $f_2$, can be immediately obtained by adding $f_0$ with $f_1$. Now you should update $f_0$ and $f_1$ by assigning $f_1$ to $f_0$ and assigning $f_2$ to $f_1$, as shown in Figure 24.2.

The new method is implemented in Listing 24.1.

**LISTING 24.1 ImprovedFibonacci.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ImprovedFibonacci {
  /** Main method */
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
    System.out.print("Enter an index for the Fibonacci number: ");
    int index = input.nextInt();

    // Find and display the Fibonacci number
    System.out.println("Fibonacci number at index " + index + " is " + fib(index));
  }

  /** The method for finding the Fibonacci number */
  public int fib(int index) {
    // base case
    if (index <= 1) {
      return index;
    }
    // recursive case
    return fib(index - 1) + fib(index - 2);
  }
}
```

**Figure 24.2** Variables $f_0$, $f_1$, and $f_2$ store three consecutive Fibonacci numbers in the series.
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```java
public static long fib(long n) {
    long f0 = 0; // For fib(0)
    long f1 = 1; // For fib(1)
    long f2 = 1; // For fib(2)
    if (n == 0)
        return f0;
    else if (n == 1)
        return f1;
    else if (n == 2)
        return f2;
    for (int i = 3; i <= n; i++) {
        f0 = f1;
        f1 = f2;
        f2 = f0 + f1;
    }
    return f2;
}
```

Enter an index for the Fibonacci number: 6
Fibonacci number at index 6 is 8

Enter an index for the Fibonacci number: 7
Fibonacci number at index 7 is 13

Obviously, the complexity of this new algorithm is $O(n)$. This is a tremendous improvement over the recursive $O(2^n)$ algorithm.

The algorithm for computing Fibonacci numbers presented here uses an approach known as **dynamic programming**. Dynamic programming is the process of solving subproblems, then combining the solutions of the subproblems to obtain an overall solution. This naturally leads to a recursive solution. However, it would be inefficient to use recursion, because the subproblems overlap. The key idea behind dynamic programming is to solve each subproblem only once and store the results for subproblems for later use to avoid redundant computing of the subproblems.

### 24.13 What is dynamic programming? Give an example of dynamic programming.

### 24.14 Why is the recursive Fibonacci algorithm inefficient, but the nonrecursive Fibonacci algorithm efficient?

#### 24.6 Finding Greatest Common Divisors Using Euclid’s Algorithm

This section presents several algorithms in the search for an efficient algorithm for finding the greatest common divisor of two integers.

The greatest common divisor (GCD) of two integers is the largest number that can evenly divide both integers. Listing 4.9, GreatestCommonDivisor.java, presented a brute-force algorithm for finding the greatest common divisor of two integers $m$ and $n$. **Brute force** refers to an algorithmic approach that solves a problem in the simplest or most direct or obvious way. As a result, such an algorithm can end up doing far more work to solve a given problem than a cleverer or more sophisticated algorithm might do. On the other hand, a brute-force algorithm
is often easier to implement than a more sophisticated one and, because of this simplicity, sometimes it can be more efficient.

The brute-force algorithm checks whether $k$ (for $k = 2, 3, 4$, and so on) is a common divisor for $n_1$ and $n_2$, until $k$ is greater than $n_1$ or $n_2$. The algorithm can be described as follows:

```java
public static int gcd(int m, int n) {
    int gcd = 1;
    for (int k = 2; k <= m && k <= n; k++) {
        if (m % k == 0 && n % k == 0) {
            gcd = k;
        }
    }
    return gcd;
}
```

Assuming $m \geq n$, the complexity of this algorithm is obviously $O(n)$.

Is there a better algorithm for finding the GCD? Rather than searching a possible divisor from 1 up, it is more efficient to search from $n$ down. Once a divisor is found, the divisor is the GCD. Therefore, you can improve the algorithm using the following loop:

```java
for (int k = n; k >= 1; k--) {
    if (m % k == 0 && n % k == 0) {
        gcd = k;
        break;
    }
}
```

This algorithm is better than the preceding one, but its worst-case time complexity is still $O(n)$.

A divisor for a number $n$ cannot be greater than $n / 2$, so you can further improve the algorithm using the following loop:

```java
for (int k = m / 2; k >= 1; k--) {
    if (m % k == 0 && n % k == 0) {
        gcd = k;
        break;
    }
}
```

However, this algorithm is incorrect, because $n$ can be a divisor for $m$. This case must be considered. The correct algorithm is shown in Listing 24.2.

**Listing 24.2  GCD.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class GCD {
    /** Find GCD for integers m and n */
    public static int gcd(int m, int n) {
        int gcd = 1;
        if (m % n == 0) return n; // check divisor
        for (int k = n / 2; k >= 1; k--) {
            if (m % k == 0 && n % k == 0) { // GCD found
                gcd = k;
                break;
            }
        }
    }
}
```
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```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class GCDEuclid {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Enter first integer: ");
        int m = input.nextInt();
        System.out.println("Enter second integer: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();
        System.out.println("The greatest common divisor for " + m + " and " + n + " is " + gcd(m, n));
    }
}
```

Enter first integer: 2525
Enter second integer: 125
The greatest common divisor for 2525 and 125 is 25

Enter first integer: 3
Enter second integer: 3
The greatest common divisor for 3 and 3 is 3

Assuming \( m \geq n \), the for loop is executed at most \( n/2 \) times, which cuts the time by half from the previous algorithm. The time complexity of this algorithm is still \( O(n) \), but practically, it is much faster than the algorithm in Listing 4.8.

**Note**
The Big O notation provides a good theoretical estimate of algorithm efficiency. However, two algorithms of the same time complexity are not necessarily equally efficient. As shown in the preceding example, both algorithms in Listings 4.9 and 24.2 have the same complexity, but in practice the one in Listing 24.2 is obviously better.

A more efficient algorithm for finding the GCD was discovered by Euclid around 300 B.C. This is one of the oldest known algorithms. It can be defined recursively as follows:

Let \( \text{gcd}(m, n) \) denote the GCD for integers \( m \) and \( n \):

- If \( m \% n = 0 \), \( \text{gcd}(m, n) = n \).
- Otherwise, \( \text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(n, m \% n) \).

It is not difficult to prove the correctness of this algorithm. Suppose \( m \% n = r \). Thus, \( m = qn + r \), where \( q \) is the quotient of \( m / n \). Any number that is divisible by \( m \) and \( n \) must also be divisible by \( r \). Therefore, \( \text{gcd}(m, n) \) is the same as \( \text{gcd}(n, r) \), where \( r = m \% n \). The algorithm can be implemented as in Listing 24.3.

**Listing 24.3** 
```java
import java.util.Scanner;

class GCDEuclid {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
```

Euclid’s algorithm
```java
/** Find GCD for integers m and n */
public static int gcd(int m, int n) {
    if (m % n == 0) {
        return n;
    } else {
        return gcd(n, m % n);
    }
}

/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a Scanner
    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);

    // Prompt the user to enter two integers
    System.out.print("Enter first integer: ");
    int m = input.nextInt();
    System.out.print("Enter second integer: ");
    int n = input.nextInt();

    System.out.println("The greatest common divisor for " + m + " and " + n + " is "+ gcd(m, n));
}
```

Enter first integer: 2525
Enter second integer: 125
The greatest common divisor for 2525 and 125 is 25

Enter first integer: 3
Enter second integer: 3
The greatest common divisor for 3 and 3 is 3

In the best case when m % n is 0, the algorithm takes just one step to find the GCD. It is difficult to analyze the average case. However, we can prove that the worst-case time complexity is $O(\log n)$.

Assuming $m \geq n$, we can show that $m \% n < m / 2$, as follows:

- If $n \leq m / 2$, $m \% n < m / 2$, since the remainder of $m$ divided by $n$ is always less than $n$.
- If $n > m / 2$, $m \% n = m - n < m / 2$. Therefore, $m \% n < m / 2$.

Euclid’s algorithm recursively invokes the `gcd` method. It first calls `gcd(m, n)`, then calls `gcd(n, m \% n)`, and `gcd(m \% n, n \% (m \% n))`, and so on, as follows:

```java
gcd(m, n)
= gcd(n, m \% n)
= gcd(m \% n, n \% (m \% n))
= ...
```

Since $m \% n < m / 2$ and $n \% (m \% n) < n / 2$, the argument passed to the `gcd` method is reduced by half after every two iterations. After invoking `gcd` two times, the second parameter is less than $n/2$. After invoking `gcd` four times, the second parameter is less than $n/4$. After invoking `gcd` six times, the second parameter is less than $n/2^3$. Let $k$ be the number of
times the \texttt{gcd} method is invoked. After invoking \texttt{gcd} \( k \) times, the second parameter is less than \( \frac{n}{2^{(k/2)}} \), which is greater than or equal to 1. That is,

\[
\frac{n}{2^{(k/2)}} \geq 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad n \geq 2^{(k/2)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \log n \geq k/2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad k \leq 2 \log n
\]

Therefore, \( k \leq 2 \log n \). So the time complexity of the \texttt{gcd} method is \( O(\log n) \).

The worst case occurs when the two numbers result in the most divisions. It turns out that two successive Fibonacci numbers will result in the most divisions. Recall that the Fibonacci series begins with 0 and 1, and each subsequent number is the sum of the preceding two numbers in the series, such as:

\[0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 8 \ 13 \ 21 \ 34 \ 55 \ 89 \ldots\]

The series can be recursively defined as

\[
\text{fib}(0) = 0;
\text{fib}(1) = 1;
\text{fib}(\text{index}) = \text{fib}(\text{index} - 2) + \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1); \text{index} \geq 2
\]

For two successive Fibonacci numbers \( \text{fib}(\text{index}) \) and \( \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1) \),

\[
gcd(\text{fib}(\text{index}), \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1))
= gcd(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 1), \text{fib}(\text{index} - 2))
= gcd(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 2), \text{fib}(\text{index} - 3))
= gcd(\text{fib}(\text{index} - 3), \text{fib}(\text{index} - 4))
= \ldots
= gcd(\text{fib}(2), \text{fib}(1))
= 1
\]

For example,

\[
gcd(21, 13)
= gcd(13, 8)
= gcd(8, 5)
= gcd(5, 3)
= gcd(3, 2)
= gcd(2, 1)
= 1
\]

Therefore, the number of times the \texttt{gcd} method is invoked is the same as the index. We can prove that \( \text{index} \leq 1.44 \log n \), where \( n = \text{fib}(\text{index} - 1) \). This is a tighter bound than \( \text{index} \leq 2 \log n \).

Table 24.4 summarizes the complexity of three algorithms for finding the GCD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listing 4.9</td>
<td>( O(n) )</td>
<td>Brute-force, checking all possible divisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.2</td>
<td>( O(n) )</td>
<td>Checking half of all possible divisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.3</td>
<td>( O(\log n) )</td>
<td>Euclid's algorithm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24.15 Prove that the following algorithm for finding the GCD of the two integers \( m \) and \( n \) is incorrect.

\[
\text{int gcd = 1;}
\text{for (int k = Math.min(Math.sqrt(n), Math.sqrt(m)); k >= 1; k--) { }
\]
24.7 Efficient Algorithms for Finding Prime Numbers

This section presents several algorithms in the search for an efficient algorithm for finding prime numbers.

A $150,000 award awaits the first individual or group who discovers a prime number with at least 100,000,000 decimal digits (w2.eff.org/awards/coop-prime-rules.php).

Can you design a fast algorithm for finding prime numbers?

An integer greater than 1 is prime if its only positive divisor is 1 or itself. For example, 2, 3, 5, and 7 are prime numbers, but 4, 6, 8, and 9 are not.

How do you determine whether a number $n$ is prime? Listing 4.14 presented a brute-force algorithm for finding prime numbers. The algorithm checks whether 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., or $n - 1$ is divisible by $n$. If not, $n$ is prime. This algorithm takes $O(n)$ time to check whether $n$ is prime. Note that you need to check only whether 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., and $n/2$ is divisible by $n$. If not, $n$ is prime. This algorithm is slightly improved, but it is still of $O(n)$.

In fact, we can prove that if $n$ is not a prime, $n$ must have a factor that is greater than 1 and less than or equal to $\sqrt{n}$. Here is the proof. Since $n$ is not a prime, there exist two numbers $p$ and $q$ such that $n = pq$ with $1 < p \leq q$. Note that $n = \sqrt{n} \sqrt{n}$. $p$ must be less than or equal to $\sqrt{n}$. Hence, you need to check only whether 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., or $\sqrt{n}$ is divisible by $n$. If not, $n$ is prime. This significantly reduces the time complexity of the algorithm to $O(\sqrt{n})$.

Now consider the algorithm for finding all the prime numbers up to $n$. A straightforward implementation is to check whether $i$ is prime for $i = 2, 3, 4, \ldots, n$. The program is given in Listing 24.4.

**LISTING 24.4 PrimeNumbers.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class PrimeNumbers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Find all prime numbers <= n, enter n: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();

        final int NUMBER_PER_LINE = 10; // Display 10 per line
        int count = 0; // Count the number of prime numbers
        int number = 2; // A number to be tested for primeness

        System.out.println("The prime numbers are:");

        // Repeatedly find prime numbers
        while (number <= n) {
            // Assume the number is prime
            boolean isPrime = true; // Is the current number prime?

            // Test if number is prime
            for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= (int)Math.sqrt(number));
                divisor++;
            if (number % divisor == 0) { // If true, number is not prime
                isPrime = false; // Set isPrime to false
                break; // Exit the for loop
            }

            // Display number if it is prime
            if (isPrime) {
                System.out.print(number + " ");
                count++;
                if (count % NUMBER_PER_LINE == 0) System.out.println();
            }
        }
    }
}
```
in Chapter 24 Developing Efficient Algorithms

```java
            } } 
        } // Print the prime number and increase the count
        if (isPrime) {
            count++; // Increase the count
            if (count % NUMBER_PER_LINE == 0) {
                // Print the number and advance to the new line
                System.out.printf("%7d\n", number);
            } else
                System.out.printf("%7d", number);
        } // Check if the next number is prime
        number++;
    } System.out.println("\n" + count + " prime(s) less than or equal to " + n);
    } }
```

The program is not efficient if you have to compute Math.sqrt(number) for every iteration of the for loop (line 21). A good compiler should evaluate Math.sqrt(number) only once for the entire for loop. To ensure this happens, you can explicitly replace line 21 with the following two lines:

```java
    int squareRoot = (int)(Math.sqrt(number));
    for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= squareRoot; divisor++) {
        // Repeatedly find prime numbers
        while (number <= n) {
            // Assume the number is prime
            boolean isPrime = true; // Is the current number prime?
            if (squareRoot * squareRoot < number) squareRoot++;
            // Test if number is prime
```
for (int divisor = 2; divisor <= squareRoot; divisor++) {
    if (number % divisor == 0) { // If true, number is not prime
        isPrime = false; // Set isPrime to false
        break; // Exit the for loop
    }
}
...

Now we turn our attention to analyzing the complexity of this program. Since it takes $\sqrt{i}$ steps in the for loop (lines 21–27) to check whether number $i$ is prime, the algorithm takes $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{4} + \ldots + \sqrt{n}$ steps to find all the prime numbers less than or equal to $n$. Observe that

$$\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{4} + \ldots + \sqrt{n} \leq n\sqrt{n}$$

Therefore, the time complexity for this algorithm is $O(n\sqrt{n})$.

To determine whether $i$ is prime, the algorithm checks whether $2, 3, 4, 5, \ldots$, and $\sqrt{i}$ are divisible by $i$. This algorithm can be further improved. In fact, you need to check only whether the prime numbers from 2 to $\sqrt{i}$ are possible divisors for $i$.

We can prove that if $i$ is not prime, there must exist a prime number $p$ such that $i = pq$ and $p \leq q$. Here is the proof. Assume that $i$ is not prime; let $p$ be the smallest factor of $i$. $p$ must be prime, otherwise, $p$ has a factor $k$ with $2 \leq k < p$. $k$ is also a factor of $i$, which contradicts that $p$ be the smallest factor of $i$. Therefore, if $i$ is not prime, you can find a prime number from 2 to $\sqrt{i}$ that is divisible by $i$. This leads to a more efficient algorithm for finding all prime numbers up to $n$, as shown in Listing 24.5.

**Listing 24.5 EfficientPrimeNumbers.java**

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class EfficientPrimeNumbers {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Find all prime numbers <= n, enter n: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();

        // A list to hold prime numbers
        java.util.List<Integer> list = new java.util.ArrayList<Integer>();

        final int NUMBER_PER_LINE = 10; // Display 10 per line
        int count = 0; // Count the number of prime numbers
        int number = 2; // A number to be tested for primeness
        int squareRoot = 1; // Check whether number <= squareRoot

        System.out.println("The prime numbers are \n");

        // Repeatedly find prime numbers
        while (number <= n) {
            // Assume the number is prime
            boolean isPrime = true; // Is the current number prime?

            if (squareRoot * squareRoot < number) squareRoot++;

            // Test whether number is prime
            for (int k = 0; k < list.size(); check prime
                && list.get(k) <= squareRoot; k++) {
                if (number % list.get(k) == 0) { // If true, not prime
```

...
Let \( \pi(i) \) denote the number of prime numbers less than or equal to \( i \). The primes under 20 are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, and 19. Therefore, \( \pi(2) \) is 1, \( \pi(3) \) is 2, \( \pi(6) \) is 3, and \( \pi(20) \) is 8.

It has been proved that \( \pi(i) \) is approximately \( \frac{i}{\log i} \) (see primes.utm.edu/howmany.shtml).

For each number \( i \), the algorithm checks whether a prime number less than or equal to \( \sqrt{i} \) is divisible by \( i \). The number of the prime numbers less than or equal to \( \sqrt{i} \) is

\[
\frac{\sqrt{i}}{\log \sqrt{i}} = \frac{2\sqrt{i}}{\log i}
\]

Thus, the complexity for finding all prime numbers up to \( n \) is

\[
\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\log 2} + \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{\log 3} + \frac{2\sqrt{4}}{\log 4} + \frac{2\sqrt{5}}{\log 5} + \frac{2\sqrt{6}}{\log 6} + \frac{2\sqrt{7}}{\log 7} + \frac{2\sqrt{8}}{\log 8} + \ldots + \frac{2\sqrt{n}}{\log n}
\]

Since \( \frac{\sqrt{i}}{\log i} < \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\log n} \) for \( i < n \) and \( n \geq 16 \),

\[
\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\log 2} + \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{\log 3} + \frac{2\sqrt{4}}{\log 4} + \frac{2\sqrt{5}}{\log 5} + \frac{2\sqrt{6}}{\log 6} + \frac{2\sqrt{7}}{\log 7} + \frac{2\sqrt{8}}{\log 8} + \ldots + \frac{2\sqrt{n}}{\log n} < \frac{2n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}
\]
Therefore, the complexity of this algorithm is \( O\left(\frac{n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right) \).

This algorithm is another example of dynamic programming. The algorithm stores the results of the subproblems in the array list and uses them later to check whether a new number is prime.

Is there any algorithm better than \( O\left(\frac{n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right) \)? Let us examine the well-known Eratosthenes algorithm for finding prime numbers. Eratosthenes (276–194 B.C.) was a Greek mathematician who devised a clever algorithm, known as the Sieve of Eratosthenes, for finding all prime numbers \( \leq n \). His algorithm is to use an array named \( \text{primes} \) of \( n \) Boolean values. Initially, all elements in \( \text{primes} \) are set true. Since the multiples of 2 are not prime, set \( \text{primes}[2 \times i] \) to false for all \( 2 \leq i \leq n/2 \), as shown in Figure 24.3. Since we don’t care about \( \text{primes}[0] \) and \( \text{primes}[1] \), these values are marked \( \times \) in the figure.

Since the multiples of 3 are not prime, set \( \text{primes}[3 \times i] \) to false for all \( 3 \leq i \leq n/3 \). Because the multiples of 5 are not prime, set \( \text{primes}[5 \times i] \) to false for all \( 5 \leq i \leq n/5 \). Note that you don’t need to consider the multiples of 4, because the multiples of 4 are also the multiples of 2, which have already been considered. Similarly, multiples of 6, 8, and 9 need not be considered. You only need to consider the multiples of a prime number \( k = 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, \ldots \), and set the corresponding element in \( \text{primes} \) to false. Afterward, if \( \text{primes}[i] \) is still true, then \( i \) is a prime number. As shown in Figure 24.3, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, and 23 are prime numbers. Listing 24.6 gives the program for finding the prime numbers using the Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm.

**Listing 24.6** SieveOfEratosthenes.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SieveOfEratosthenes {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Find all prime numbers <= n, enter n: ");
        int n = input.nextInt();

        boolean[] primes = new boolean[n + 1]; // Prime number sieve

        // Initialize primes[i] to true
        for (int i = 0; i < primes.length; i++) {
            primes[i] = true;
        }

        for (int k = 2; k <= n / k; k++) {
            if (primes[k]) {
                for (int i = k; i <= n / k; i++) {
                    primes[k * i] = false; // k * i is not prime
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
```

**Figure 24.3** The values in \( \text{primes} \) are changed with each prime number \( k \).


```java
int count = 0; // Count the number of prime numbers found so far
// Print prime numbers
for (int i = 2; i < primes.length; i++) {
    if (primes[i]) {
        count++;
        if (count % 10 == 0)
            System.out.printf("%7d\n", i);
        else
            System.out.printf("%7d", i);
    }
}
System.out.println("\n" + count + " prime(s) less than or equal to " + n);
```

Find all prime numbers <= n, enter n: 1000
The prime numbers are:
2    3    5    7   11   13   17   19   23   29
31   37   41   43   47   53   59   61   67   71
...
...168 prime(s) less than or equal to 1000

Note that k <= n / k (line 16). Otherwise, k * i would be greater than n (line 19). What is the time complexity of this algorithm?

For each prime number k (line 17), the algorithm sets primes[k * i] to false (line 19). This is performed n / k - k + 1 times in the for loop (line 18). Thus, the complexity for finding all prime numbers up to n is

\[
\frac{n}{2} - 2 + 1 + \frac{n}{3} - 3 + 1 + \frac{n}{5} - 5 + 1 + \frac{n}{7} - 7 + 1 + \frac{n}{11} - 11 + 1 \ldots
\]

\[
= O\left(\frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{3} + \frac{n}{5} + \frac{n}{7} + \frac{n}{11} + \ldots\right) < O(n\pi(n))
\]

\[
= O\left(n\sqrt{n} \log n\right)
\]

This upper bound O\left(n\sqrt{n} \log n\right) is very loose. The actual time complexity is much better than O\left(n\sqrt{n} \log n\right). The Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm is good for a small n such that the array primes can fit in the memory.

Table 24.5 summarizes the complexity of these three algorithms for finding all prime numbers up to n.
### Table 24.5 Comparisons of Prime-Number Algorithms

<table>
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<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Listing 4.14</td>
<td>$O(n^2)$</td>
<td>Brute-force, checking all possible divisors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.4</td>
<td>$O(n\sqrt{n})$</td>
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<td>Listing 24.5</td>
<td>$O\left(\frac{n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right)$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.6</td>
<td>$O\left(\frac{n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right)$</td>
<td>Sieve of Eratosthenes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 24.16 Prove that if $n$ is not prime, there must exist a prime number $p$ such that $p \leq \sqrt{n}$ and $p$ is a factor of $n$.

#### 24.17 Describe how the sieve of Eratosthenes is used to find the prime numbers.

### 24.8 Finding the Closest Pair of Points Using Divide-and-Conquer

This section presents efficient algorithms for finding the closest pair of points using divide-and-conquer.

Given a set of points, the closest-pair problem is to find the two points that are nearest to each other. As shown in Figure 24.4, a line is drawn to connect the two nearest points in the closest-pair animation.

![Closest-pair animation](Companion Website)

#### Figure 24.4 The closest-pair animation draws a line to connect the closest pair of points dynamically as points are added and removed interactively.

Section 7.6, Case Study: Finding the Closest Pair, presented a brute-force algorithm for finding the closest pair of points. The algorithm computes the distances between all pairs of points and finds the one with the minimum distance. Clearly, the algorithm takes $O(n^2)$ time. Can we design a more efficient algorithm?

We will use an approach called divide-and-conquer to solve this problem. The approach divides the problem into subproblems, solves the subproblems, then combines the solutions of the subproblems to obtain the solution for the entire problem. Unlike the dynamic programming approach, the subproblems in the divide-and-conquer approach don’t overlap. A subproblem is like the original problem with a smaller size, so you can apply recursion to solve the problem. In fact, all the solutions for recursive problems follow the divide-and-conquer approach.

Listing 24.7 describes how to solve the closest pair problem using the divide-and-conquer approach.
LISTING 24.7 Algorithm for Finding the Closest Pair

Step 1: Sort the points in increasing order of x-coordinates. For the points with the same x-coordinates, sort on y-coordinates. This results in a sorted list \( S \) of points.

Step 2: Divide \( S \) into two subsets, \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \), of equal size using the midpoint in the sorted list. Let the midpoint be in \( S_1 \). Recursively find the closest pair in \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \). Let \( d_1 \) and \( d_2 \) denote the distance of the closest pairs in the two subsets, respectively.

Step 3: Find the closest pair between a point in \( S_1 \) and a point in \( S_2 \) and denote their distance as \( d_3 \). The closest pair is the one with the distance \( \min(d_1, d_2, d_3) \).

Selection sort and insertion sort take \( O(n^2) \) time. In Chapter 25 we will introduce merge sort and heap sort. These sorting algorithms take \( O(n \log n) \) time. Step 1 can be done in \( O(n \log n) \) time.

Step 3 can be done in \( O(n) \) time. Let \( d = \min(d_1, d_2) \). We already know that the closest-pair distance cannot be larger than \( d \). For a point in \( S_1 \) and a point in \( S_2 \) to form the closest pair in \( S \), the left point must be in \( \text{stripL} \) and the right point in \( \text{stripR} \), as illustrated in Figure 24.5a.

For a point \( p \) in \( \text{stripL} \), you need only consider a right point within the \( d \times 2d \) rectangle, as shown in 24.5b. Any right point outside the rectangle cannot form the closest pair with \( p \). Since the closest-pair distance in \( S_2 \) is greater than or equal to \( d \), there can be at most six points in the rectangle. Thus, for each point in \( \text{stripL} \), at most six points in \( \text{stripR} \) need to be considered.

FIGURE 24.5 The midpoint divides the points into two sets of equal size.

For each point \( p \) in \( \text{stripL} \), how do you locate the points in the corresponding \( d \times 2d \) rectangle area in \( \text{stripR} \)? This can be done efficiently if the points in \( \text{stripL} \) and \( \text{stripR} \) are sorted in increasing order of their y-coordinates. Let \( \text{pointsOrderedOnY} \) be the list of the points sorted in increasing order of their y-coordinates. \( \text{pointsOrderedOnY} \) can be obtained beforehand in the algorithm. \( \text{stripL} \) and \( \text{stripR} \) can be obtained from \( \text{pointsOrderedOnY} \) in Step 3 as shown in Listing 24.8.

LISTING 24.8 Algorithm for Obtaining \( \text{stripL} \) and \( \text{stripR} \)

```python
for each point p in pointsOrderedOnY
    if (p is in S1 and mid.x - p.x <= d)
        stripL.append p
    else if (p is in S2 and p.x - mid.x <= d)
        stripR.append p
```

### Figure 24.5 The midpoint divides the points into two sets of equal size.
Let the points in stripL and stripR be \( \{p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_k\} \) and \( \{q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_l\} \), as shown in Figure 24.5c. The closest pair between a point in stripL and a point in stripR can be found using the algorithm described in Listing 24.9.

**Listing 24.9** Algorithm for Finding the Closest Pair in Step 3

1. \( d = \min(d_1, d_2); \)
2. \( r = 0; \) // \( r \) is the index in stripR
3. for (each point \( p \) in stripL) {
   4.     // Skip the points below the rectangle area
   5.     while \( (r < \text{stripR.length} \&\& q[r].y \leq p.y - d) \)
   6.         \( r++; \)
   7.     let \( r_1 = r; \)
   8.     while \( (r_1 < \text{stripR.length} \&\& |q[r_1].y - p.y| \leq d) \) {
   9.         // Check if \((p, q[r_1])\) is a possible closest pair
   10.        if \( \text{distance}(p, q[r_1]) < d \) {
   11.            \( d = \text{distance}(p, q[r_1]); \)
   12.            \((p, q[r_1])\) is now the current closest pair;
   13.        }
   14.     } \)
   15.     \( r_1 = r_1 + 1; \)
   16.  }

The points in stripL are considered from \( p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_k \) in this order. For a point \( p \) in stripL, skip the points in stripR that are below \( p.y - d \) (lines 5–6). Once a point is skipped, it will no longer be considered. The while loop (lines 9–17) checks whether \((p, q[r_1])\) is a possible closest pair. There are at most six such \( q[r_1] \) pairs, so the complexity for finding the closest pair in Step 3 is \( O(n) \).

Let \( T(n) \) denote the time complexity for this algorithm. Thus,

\[
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n \log n)
\]

Therefore, the closest pair of points can be found in \( O(n \log n) \) time. The complete implementation of this algorithm is left as an exercise (see Programming Exercise 24.7).

24.18 What is the divide-and-conquer approach? Give an example.
24.19 What is the difference between divide-and-conquer and dynamic programming?
24.20 Can you design an algorithm for finding the minimum element in a list using divide-and-conquer? What is the complexity of this algorithm?

### 24.9 Solving the Eight Queens Problem Using Backtracking

*This section solves the Eight Queens problem using the backtracking approach.*

The Eight Queens problem, introduced in Programming Exercise 20.34, is to find a solution to place a queen in each row on a chessboard such that no two queens can attack each other. The problem was solved using recursion. In this section, we will introduce a common algorithm design technique called *backtracking* for solving this problem. The backtracking approach searches for a candidate solution incrementally, abandoning that option as soon as it determines that the candidate cannot possibly be a valid solution, and then looks for a new candidate.
You can use a two-dimensional array to represent a chessboard. However, since each row can have only one queen, it is sufficient to use a one-dimensional array to denote the position of the queen in the row. Thus, you can define the `queens` array as:

```java
int[] queens = new int[8];
```

Assign `j` to `queens[i]` to denote that a queen is placed in row `i` and column `j`. Figure 24.6a shows the contents of the `queens` array for the chessboard in Figure 24.6b.

![Queens array contents](image)

**Figure 24.6** `queens[i]` denotes the position of the queen in row `i`.

The search starts from the first row with `k = 0`, where `k` is the index of the current row being considered. The algorithm checks whether a queen can be possibly placed in the `j`th column in the row for `j = 0, 1, ... , 7`, in this order. The search is implemented as follows:

- If successful, it continues to search for a placement for a queen in the next row. If the current row is the last row, a solution is found.
- If not successful, it backtracks to the previous row and continues to search for a new placement in the next column in the previous row.
- If the algorithm backtracks to the first row and cannot find a new placement for a queen in this row, no solution can be found.

To see how the algorithm works, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/EightQueensAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/EightQueensAnimation.html).

Listing 24.10 gives the program that displays a solution for the Eight Queens problem.

**LISTING 24.10 EightQueens.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class EightQueens extends JApplet {

    public static final int SIZE = 8; // The size of the chessboard
    public static final int[] queens = {-1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1};

    public EightQueens() {
        if (search()) // Search for a solution
            add(new ChessBoard(), BorderLayout.CENTER);
        else
            JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "No solution found");
    }

    /** Search for a solution */
```
private boolean search() {
    // k - 1 indicates the number of queens placed so far
    // We are looking for a position in the kth row to place a queen
    int k = 0;
    while (k >= 0 && k <= 7) {
        // Find a position to place a queen in the kth row
        int j = findPosition(k);
        if (j < 0) {
            queens[k] = -1;
            k--; // back track to the previous row
        } else {
            queens[k] = j;
            k++;
        }
    }
    if (k == -1)
        return false; // No solution
    else
        return true; // A solution is found
}

public int findPosition(int k) {
    int start = queens[k] + 1; // Search for a new placement
    for (int j = start; j < 8; j++) {
        if (isValid(k, j))
            return j; // (k, j) is the place to put the queen now
    }
    return -1;
}

/**
 * Return true if a queen can be placed at (row, column)*/
 public boolean isValid(int row, int column) {
    for (int i = 1; i <= row; i++)
        if (queens[row - i] == column // Check column
            || queens[row - i] == column - i // Check up-left diagonal
            || queens[row - i] == column + i) // Check up-right diagonal
            return false; // There is a conflict
    return true; // No conflict
}

class ChessBoard extends JPanel {
    private java.net.URL url
        = getClass().getResource("image/queen.jpg");
    private Image queenImage = new ImageIcon(url).getImage();
    ChessBoard() {
        setBorder(BorderFactory.createLineBorder(Color.BLACK, 2));
    }
    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        // Paint the queens
        for (int i = 0; i < SIZE; i++) {
            int j = queens[i]; // The position of the queen in row i
            g.drawImage(queenImage, j * getWidth() / SIZE,
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The program invokes `search()` (line 12) to search for a solution. Initially, no queens are placed in any rows (line 9). The search now starts from the first row with \( k = 0 \) (line 22) and finds a place for the queen (line 25). If successful, place it in the row (line 30) and consider the next row (line 31). If not successful, backtrack to the previous row (lines 27–28).

The `findPosition(k)` method searches for a possible position to place a queen in row \( k \) starting from \( \text{queen}[k] + 1 \) (line 42). It checks whether a queen can be placed at \( \text{start}, \text{start} + 1, \ldots, 7 \), in this order (lines 44–47). If possible, return the column index (line 46); otherwise, return \(-1\) (line 49).

The `isValid(row, column)` method is called to check whether placing a queen at the specified position causes a conflict with the queens placed earlier (line 45). It ensures that no queen is placed in the same column (line 55), in the upper-left diagonal (line 56), or in the upper-right diagonal (line 57), as shown in Figure 24.7.

![Figure 24.7](image)

**Figure 24.7** Invoking `isValid(row, column)` checks whether a queen can be placed at (row, column).

24.21 What is backtracking? Give an example.

24.22 If you generalize the Eight Queens problem to the \( n \)-Queens problem in an \( n \times n \) chessboard, what will be the complexity of the algorithm?

24.10 Computational Geometry: Finding a Convex Hull

*This section presents efficient geometric algorithms for finding a convex hull for a set of points.*

Computational geometry is to study the algorithms for geometrical problems. It has applications in computer graphics, games, pattern recognition, image processing, robotics, geographical information systems, and computer-aided design and manufacturing. Section 24.8 presented a geometrical algorithm for finding the closest pair of points. This section introduces geometrical algorithms for finding a convex hull.
Given a set of points, a *convex hull* is the smallest convex polygon that encloses all these points, as shown in Figure 24.8a. A polygon is convex if every line connecting two vertices is inside the polygon. For example, the vertices v0, v1, v2, v3, v4, and v5 in Figure 24.8a form a convex polygon, but not in Figure 24.8b, because the line that connects v3 and v1 is not inside the polygon.

![Convex hull and nonconvex polygon](image)

**Figure 24.8** A convex hull is the smallest convex polygon that contains a set of points.

A convex hull has many applications in game programming, pattern recognition, and image processing. Before we introduce the algorithms, it is helpful to get acquainted with the concept using an interactive tool from [www.cs.armstrong.edu/lianganimation/ConvexHull.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/ConvexHull.html), as shown in Figure 24.8c. This tool allows you to add and remove points and displays the convex hull dynamically.

Many algorithms have been developed to find a convex hull. This section introduces two popular algorithms: the gift-wrapping algorithm and Graham’s algorithm.

### 24.10.1 Gift-Wrapping Algorithm

An intuitive approach, called the *gift-wrapping algorithm*, works as shown in Listing 24.11:

**Listing 24.11 Finding a Convex Hull Using Gift-Wrapping Algorithm**

Step 1: Given a list of points S, let the points in S be labeled s0, s1, ..., sk. Select the rightmost lowest point S. As shown in Figure 24.9a, h0 is such a point. Add h0 to list H. (H is initially empty. H will hold all points in the convex hull after the algorithm is finished.) Let t0 be h0.

![Gift-wrapping algorithm steps](image)

**Figure 24.9** (a) h0 is the rightmost lowest point in S. (b) Step 2 finds point t1. (c) A convex hull is expanded repeatedly. (d) A convex hull is found when t1 becomes h0.

Step 2: Let t1 be s0.

For every point p in S,

if p is on the right side of the direct line from t0 to t1, then

let t1 be p.

(After Step 2, no points lie on the right side of the direct line from t0 to t1, as shown in Figure 24.9b.)
Step 3: If $t_1$ is $h_0$ (see Figure 24.9d), the points in $H$ form a convex hull for $S$. Otherwise, add $t_1$ to $H$, let $t_0$ be $t_1$, and go back to Step 2 (see Figure 24.9c).

The convex hull is expanded incrementally. The correctness is supported by the fact that no points lie on the right side of the direct line from $t_0$ to $t_1$ after Step 2. This ensures that every line segment with two points in $S$ falls inside the polygon.

Finding the rightmost lowest point in Step 1 can be done in $O(n)$ time. Whether a point is on the left side of a line, right side, or on the line can be determined in $O(1)$ time (see Programming Exercise 3.32). Thus, it takes $O(n)$ time to find a new point $t_1$ in Step 2. Step 2 is repeated $h$ times, where $h$ is the size of the convex hull. Therefore, the algorithm takes $O(hn)$ time. In the worst-case analysis, $h$ is $n$.

The implementation of this algorithm is left as an exercise (see Programming Exercise 24.9).

### 24.10.2 Graham’s Algorithm

A more efficient algorithm was developed by Ronald Graham in 1972, as shown in Listing 24.12.

**LISTING 24.12 Finding a Convex Hull Using Graham’s Algorithm**

**Algorithm**

Step 1: Given a list of points $S$, select the rightmost lowest point and name it $p_0$. As shown in Figure 24.10a, $p_0$ is such a point.

Step 2: Sort the points in $S$ angularly along the $x$-axis with $p_0$ as the center, as shown in Figure 24.10b. If there is a tie and two points have the same angle, discard the one that is closer to $p_0$. The points in $S$ are now sorted as $p_0$, $p_1$, $p_2$, ..., $p_{n-1}$.

Step 3: Push $p_0$, $p_1$, and $p_2$ into stack $H$. (After the algorithm finishes, $H$ contains all the points in the convex hull.)

Step 4:

\[
i = 3;\\
\text{while (i < n) } \{
\text{Let } t_1 \text{ and } t_2 \text{ be the top first and second element in stack } H;\\
\text{if (} p_i \text{ is on the left side of the direct line from } t_2 \text{ to } t_1 \text{) } \\
\quad \text{Push } p_i \text{ to } H;\\
\quad i++; // \text{Consider the next point in } S.\\
\text{else }\\
\quad \text{Pop the top element off stack } H.\\
\}\n\]

Step 5: The points in $H$ form a convex hull.

The convex hull is discovered incrementally. Initially, $p_0$, $p_1$, and $p_2$ form a convex hull. Consider $p_3$, $p_3$ is outside of the current convex hull since points are sorted in increasing order of their angles. If $p_3$ is strictly on the left side of the line from $p_1$ to $p_2$ (see Figure 24.10c),
push \( p_3 \) into \( H \). Now \( p_0, p_1, p_2, \) and \( p_3 \) form a convex hull. If \( p_3 \) is on the right side of the line from \( p_1 \) to \( p_2 \) (see Figure 24.10d), pop \( p_2 \) out of \( H \) and push \( p_3 \) into \( H \). Now \( p_0, p_1, \) and \( p_3 \) form a convex hull and \( p_2 \) is inside of this convex hull. You can prove by induction that all the points in \( H \) in Step 5 form a convex hull for all the points in the input list \( S \).

Finding the rightmost lowest point in Step 1 can be done in \( O(n) \) time. The angles can be computed using trigonometry functions. However, you can sort the points without actually computing their angles. Observe that \( p_2 \) would make a greater angle than \( p_1 \) if and only if \( p_2 \) lies on the left side of the line from \( p_0 \) to \( p_1 \). Whether a point is on the left side of a line can be determined in \( O(1) \) time, as shown in Programming Exercise 3.32. Sorting in Step 2 can be done in \( O(n \log n) \) time using the merge-sort or heap-sort algorithms that will be introduced in Chapter 25. Step 4 can be done in \( O(n) \) time. Therefore, the algorithm takes \( O(n \log n) \) time.

The implementation of this algorithm is left as an exercise (see Programming Exercise 24.11).

24.23 What is a convex hull?

24.24 Describe the gift-wrapping algorithm for finding a convex hull. Should list \( H \) be implemented using an ArrayList or a LinkedList?

24.25 Describe Graham’s algorithm for finding a convex hull. Why does the algorithm use a stack to store the points in a convex hull?

**Key Terms**

- average-case analysis 854
- dynamic programming approach 864
- backtracking approach 877
- exponential time 861
- best-case input 854
- growth rate 854
- Big \( O \) notation 854
- logarithmic time 859
- constant time 855
- quadratic time 856
- convex hull 881
- worst-case input 854
- divide-and-conquer approach 875

**Chapter Summary**

1. The \( \text{Big O notation} \) is a theoretical approach for analyzing the performance of an algorithm. It estimates how fast an algorithm’s execution time increases as the input size increases, which enables you to compare two algorithms by examining their growth rates.

2. An input that results in the shortest execution time is called the \( \text{best-case} \) input and one that results in the longest execution time is called the \( \text{worst-case} \) input. Best case and worst case are not representative, but worst-case analysis is very useful. You can be assured that the algorithm will never be slower than the worst case.

3. An average-case analysis attempts to determine the average amount of time among all possible input of the same size. Average-case analysis is ideal, but difficult to perform, because for many problems it is hard to determine the relative probabilities and distributions of various input instances.

4. If the time is not related to the input size, the algorithm is said to take constant time with the notation \( O(1) \).

5. Linear search takes \( O(n) \) time. An algorithm with the \( O(n) \) time complexity is called a \textit{linear algorithm}. Binary search takes \( O(\log n) \) time. An algorithm with the \( O(\log n) \) time complexity is called a \textit{logarithmic algorithm}.
6. The worst-time complexity for selection sort and insertion sort is $O(n^2)$. An algorithm with the $O(n^2)$ time complexity is called a \textit{quadratic algorithm}.

7. The time complexity for the Towers of Hanoi problem is $O(2^n)$. An algorithm with the $O(2^n)$ time complexity is called an \textit{exponential algorithm}.

8. A Fibonacci number at a given index can be found in $O(n)$ time using dynamic programming.

9. Dynamic programming is the process of solving subproblems, then combining the solutions of the subproblems to obtain an overall solution. The key idea behind dynamic programming is to solve each subproblem only once and store the results for subproblems for later use to avoid redundant computing of the subproblems.

10. Euclid’s GCD algorithm takes $O(\log n)$ time.

11. All prime numbers less than or equal to $n$ can be found in $O\left(\frac{n\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right)$ time.

12. The closest pair can be found in $O(n \log n)$ time using the \textit{divide-and-conquer approach}.

13. The \textit{divide-and-conquer approach} divides the problem into subproblems, solves the subproblems, then combines the solutions of the subproblems to obtain the solution for the entire problem. Unlike the dynamic programming approach, the subproblems in the \textit{divide-and-conquer approach} don’t overlap. A subproblem is like the original problem with a smaller size, so you can apply recursion to solve the problem.

14. The Eight Queens problem can be solved using backtracking.

15. The backtracking approach searches for a candidate solution incrementally, abandoning that option as soon as it determines that the candidate cannot possibly be a valid solution, and then looks for a new candidate.

16. A \textit{convex hull} for a set of points can be found in $O(n^2)$ time using the gift-wrapping algorithm and in $O(n \log n)$ time using the Graham’s algorithm.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

*24.1 (Maximum consecutive increasingly ordered substring) Write a program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the maximum consecutive increasingly ordered substring. Analyze the time complexity of your program. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a string: Welcome
Wel
```
**24.2** *(Maximum increasingly ordered subsequence)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter a string and displays the maximum increasingly ordered subsequence of characters. Analyze the time complexity of your program. Here is a sample run:

```
Enter a string: Welcome
Enter a string: Welo
```

*24.3* *(Pattern matching)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter two strings and tests whether the second string is a substring of the first string. *Suppose the neighboring characters in the string are distinct.* (Don’t use the `indexOf` method in the `String` class.) Analyze the time complexity of your algorithm. Your algorithm needs to be at least $O(n)$ time. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a string s1: Welcome to Java
Enter a string s2: come
matched at index 3
```

*24.4* *(Pattern matching)* Write a program that prompts the user to enter two strings and tests whether the second string is a substring of the first string. (Don’t use the `indexOf` method in the `String` class.) Analyze the time complexity of your algorithm. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a string s1: Mississippi
Enter a string s2: sip
matched at index 6
```

*24.5* *(Same-number subsequence)* Write an $O(n)$ program that prompts the user to enter a sequence of integers ending with 0 and finds the longest subsequence with the same number. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a series of numbers ending with 0:
2 4 4 8 8 8 8 2 4 4 0
The longest same number sequence starts at index 3 with 4 values of 8
```

*24.6* *(Execution time for GCD)* Write a program that obtains the execution time for finding the GCD of every two consecutive Fibonacci numbers from the index 40 to index 45 using the algorithms in Listings 24.2 and 24.3. Your program should print a table like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>40</th>
<th>41</th>
<th>42</th>
<th>43</th>
<th>44</th>
<th>45</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.2 GCD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.3 GCDEuclid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Hint: You can use the following code template to obtain the execution time.)*

```java
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
perform the task;
long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
long executionTime = endTime - startTime;
```
**24.7** (Closest pair of points) Section 24.8 introduced an algorithm for finding the closest pair of points using a divide-and-conquer approach. Implement the algorithm to meet the following requirements:

- Define the classes `Point` and `CompareY` in the same way as in Programming Exercise 22.4.
- Define a class named `Pair` with the data fields `p1` and `p2` to represent two points, and a method named `getDistance()` that returns the distance between the two points.
- Implement the following methods:

  ```java
  /** Return the distance of the closest pair of points */
  public static Pair getClosestPair(double[][] points)
  /** Return the distance of the closest pair of points */
  public static Pair getClosestPair(Point[] points)
  /** Return the distance of the closest pair of points
   * in pointsOrderedOnX[low..high]. This is a recursive
   * method. pointsOrderedOnX and pointsOrderedOnY are
   * not changed in the subsequent recursive calls.
   */
  public static Pair distance(Point[] pointsOrderedOnX,
                              int low, int high, Point[] pointsOrderedOnY)
  /** Compute the distance between two points p1 and p2 */
  public static double distance(Point p1, Point p2)
  /** Compute the distance between points (x1, y1) and (x2, y2) */
  public static double distance(double x1, double y1,
                                 double x2, double y2)
  ```

**24.8** (All prime numbers up to 10,000,000,000) Write a program that finds all prime numbers up to 10,000,000,000. There are approximately 455,052,511 such prime numbers. Your program should meet the following requirements:

- Your program should store the prime numbers in a binary data file, named `PrimeNumbers.dat`. When a new prime number is found, the number is appended to the file.
- To find whether a new number is prime, your program should load the prime numbers from the file to an array of the `long` type of size `10000`. If no number in the array is a divisor for the new number, continue to read the next 10000 prime numbers from the data file, until a divisor is found or all numbers in the file are read. If no divisor is found, the new number is prime.
- Since this program takes a long time to finish, you should run it as a batch job from a UNIX machine. If the machine is shut down and rebooted, your program should resume by using the prime numbers stored in the binary data file rather than start over from scratch.

**24.9** (Geometry: gift-wrapping algorithm for finding a convex hull) Section 24.10.1 introduced the gift-wrapping algorithm for finding a convex hull for a set of points. Assume that the Java’s coordinate system is used for the points. Implement the algorithm using the following method:

  ```java
  /** Return the points that form a convex hull */
  public static ArrayList<MyPoint> getConvexHull(double[][] s)
  ```
MyPoint is a static inner class defined as follows:

```java
static class MyPoint {
    double x, y;

    MyPoint(double x, double y) {
        this.x = x; this.y = y;
    }
}
```

Write a test program that prompts the user to enter the set size and the points and displays the points that form a convex hull. Here is a sample run:

```
How many points are in the set? 6
Enter 6 points: 1 2 4 2.5 2 1.5 34.5 5.5 6 6 2.4 5.5 9
The convex hull is
(1.5, 34.5) (5.5, 9.0) (6.0, 2.4) (2.5, 2.0) (1.0, 2.4)
```

24.10 (Number of prime numbers) Exercise 24.8 stores the prime numbers in a file named PrimeNumbers.dat. Write a program that finds the number of prime numbers that are less than or equal to 10, 100, 1,000, 10,000, 100,000, 1,000,000, 10,000,000, 100,000,000, 1,000,000,000, and 10,000,000,000. Your program should read the data from PrimeNumbers.dat. Note that the data file may continue to grow as more prime numbers are stored in the file.

**24.11 (Geometry: Graham’s algorithm for finding a convex hull)** Section 24.10.2 introduced Graham’s algorithm for finding a convex hull for a set of points. Assume that the Java’s coordinate system is used for the points. Implement the algorithm using the following method:

```java
/** Return the points that form a convex hull */
public static ArrayList<MyPoint> getConvexHull(double[][] s)

MyPoint is a static inner class defined as follows:

```java
private static class MyPoint implements Comparable<MyPoint> {
    double x, y;

    MyPoint(double x, double y) {
        this.x = x; this.y = y;
    }

    public void setRightMostLowestPoint(MyPoint p) {
        rightMostLowestPoint = p;
    }

    @Override
    public int compareTo(MyPoint o) {
        // Implement it to compare this point with point o
        // angularly along the x-axis with rightMostLowestPoint
        // as the center, as shown in Figure 24.10b. By implementing
        // the Comparable interface, you can use the Array.sort
        // method to sort the points to simplify coding.
    }
```

```
Write a test program that prompts the user to enter the set size and the points and displays the points that form a convex hull. Here is a sample run:

```
How many points are in the set? 6
Enter 6 points: 1 2.4 2.5 2 1.5 34.5 5.5 6 6 2.4 5.5 9
The convex hull is
(1.5, 34.5) (5.5, 9.0) (6.0, 2.4) (2.5, 2.0) (1.0, 2.4)
```

*24.12 (Last 100 prime numbers) Exercise 24.8 stores the prime numbers in a file named `PrimeNumbers.dat`. Write an efficient program that reads the last 100 numbers in the file. (*Hint*: Don’t read all numbers from the file. Skip all numbers before the last 100 numbers in the file.)

**24.13 (Geometry: convex hull applet) Exercise 24.11 finds a convex hull for a set of points entered from the console. Write an applet that enables the user to add/remove points by clicking the left/right mouse button, and displays a convex hull, as shown in Figure 24.8c.

*24.14 (Execution time for prime numbers) Write a program that obtains the execution time for finding all the prime numbers less than 8,000,000, 10,000,000, 12,000,000, 14,000,000, 16,000,000, and 18,000,000 using the algorithms in Listings 24.4–24.6. Your program should print a table like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>8000000</th>
<th>10000000</th>
<th>12000000</th>
<th>14000000</th>
<th>16000000</th>
<th>18000000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listing 24.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**24.15 (Geometry: non-cross polygon) Write an applet that enables the user to add/remove points by clicking the left/right mouse button, and displays a non-crossed polygon that links all the points, as shown in Figure 24.11a. A polygon is crossed if two or more sides intersect, as shown in Figure 24.11b. Use the following algorithm to construct a polygon from a set of points.

![Non-cross Polygon Applet](image)

**Figure 24.11** (a) Exercise 24.15 displays a non-crossed polygon for a set of points. (b) Two or more sides intersect in a crossed polygon.
Step 1: Given a set of points $S$, select the rightmost lowest point $p_0$ in the set $S$.
Step 2: Sort the points in $S$ angularly along the $x$-axis with $p_0$ as the center. If there is a tie and two points have the same angle, the one that is closer to $p_0$ is considered greater. The points in $S$ are now sorted as $p_0, p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{n-1}$.
Step 3: The sorted points form a non-cross polygon.

**24.16** *(Linear search animation)* Write an applet that animates the linear search algorithm. Create an array that consists of 20 distinct numbers from 1 to 20 in a random order. The array elements are displayed in a histogram, as shown in Figure 24.12. You need to enter a search key in the text field. Clicking the Step button causes the program to perform one comparison in the algorithm and repaints the histogram with a bar indicating the search position. This button also freezes the text field to prevent its value from being changed. When the algorithm is finished, display a dialog box to inform the user. Clicking the Reset button creates a new random array for a new start. This button also makes the text field editable.

**24.17** *(Closest-pair animation)* Write an applet that enables the user to add/remove points by clicking the left/right mouse button, and displays a line that connects the pair of nearest points, as shown in Figure 24.4.

**24.18** *(Binary search animation)* Write an applet that animates the binary search algorithm. Create an array with numbers from 1 to 20 in this order. The array elements are displayed in a histogram, as shown in Figure 24.13. You need to
enter a search key in the text field. Clicking the Step button causes the program to perform one comparison in the algorithm. Use a light-gray color to paint the bars for the numbers in the current search range and use a black color to paint the a bar indicating the middle number in the search range. The Step button also freezes the text field to prevent its value from being changed. When the algorithm is finished, display a dialog box to inform the user. Clicking the Reset button enables a new search to start. This button also makes the text field editable.

*24.19 (Largest block) The problem for finding a largest block is described in Programming Exercise 7.35. Design a dynamic programming algorithm for solving this problem in $O(n^2)$ time. Write a test program that displays a 10-by-10 square matrix, as shown in Figure 24.14. Each element in the matrix is 0 or 1, randomly generated with a click of the Refresh button. Display each number centered in a text field. Use a text field for each entry. Allow the user to change the entry value. Click the Find Largest Block button to find a largest square submatrix that consists of 1s. Highlight the numbers in the block, as shown in Figure 24.14b. See www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/FindLargestBlock.html for an interactive test.

![Figure 24.14](image)

**Figure 24.14** The program finds the largest block of 1s.

***24.20 (Game: multiple Sudoku solutions) The complete solution for the Sudoku problem is given in Supplement VI.A. A Sudoku problem may have multiple solutions. Modify Sudoku.java in Supplement VI.A to display the total number of the solutions. Display two solutions if multiple solutions exist.

***24.21 (Game: Sudoku) The complete solution for the Sudoku problem is given in Supplement VI.A. Write a program that lets the user enter the input from the text fields in an applet, as shown in Figure 24.15. Clicking the Solve button displays the result.

***24.22 (Game: recursive Sudoku) Write a recursive solution for the Sudoku problem.

***24.23 (Game: multiple Eight Queens solution) Write an applet to display all possible solutions for the Eight Queens puzzle in a scroll pane, as shown in Figure 24.16. For each solution, put a label to denote the solution number. (Hint: Place all solution panels into one panel and place this one panel into a JScrollPane.)
The solution panel class should override the `getPreferredSize()` method to ensure that a solution panel is displayed properly. See Listing 13.3, FigurePanel.java, for how to override `getPreferredSize()`.

**24.24 (Find the smallest number) Write a method that uses the divide-and-conquer approach to find the smallest number in a list.

***24.25 (Game: Sudoku) Revise Exercise 24.21 to display all solutions for the Sudoku game, as shown in Figure 24.17a. When you click the `Solve` button, the program stores all solutions in an `ArrayList`. Each element in the list is a two-dimensional 9-by-9 grid. If the program has multiple solutions, the `OK` button appears as shown in Figure 24.17b. You can click the `Next` button to display the next solution, as shown in Figure 24.17c. When the `Clear` button is clicked, the cells are cleared and the `Next` button is hidden.
Figure 24.17  The program can display multiple Sudoku solutions.
Objectives

- To study and analyze time complexity of various sorting algorithms (§§25.2–25.7).
- To design, implement, and analyze bubble sort (§25.2).
- To design, implement, and analyze merge sort (§25.3).
- To design, implement, and analyze quick sort (§25.4).
- To design and implement a binary heap (§25.5).
- To design, implement, and analyze heap sort (§25.5).
- To design, implement, and analyze bucket sort and radix sort (§25.6).
- To design, implement, and analyze external sort for files that have a large amount of data (§25.7).
25.1 Introduction

Sorting algorithms are good examples for studying algorithm design and analysis.

When presidential candidate Barack Obama visited Google in 2007, Google CEO Eric Schmidt asked Obama the most efficient way to sort a million 32-bit integers (www.youtube.com/watch?v=k4RRi_ntQc8). Obama answered that the bubble sort would be the wrong way to go. Was he right? We will examine different sorting algorithms in this chapter and see if he was correct.

Sorting is a classic subject in computer science. There are three reasons to study sorting algorithms.

- First, sorting algorithms illustrate many creative approaches to problem solving, and these approaches can be applied to solve other problems.
- Second, sorting algorithms are good for practicing fundamental programming techniques using selection statements, loops, methods, and arrays.
- Third, sorting algorithms are excellent examples to demonstrate algorithm performance.

The data to be sorted might be integers, doubles, characters, or objects. Section 6.11, Sorting Arrays, presented selection sort and insertion sort for numeric values. The selection sort algorithm was extended to sort an array of objects in Section 21.5, Case Study: Sorting an Array of Objects. The Java API contains several overloaded sort methods for sorting primitive type values and objects in the \texttt{java.util.Arrays} and \texttt{java.util.Collections} classes. For simplicity, this chapter assumes:

1. data to be sorted are integers,
2. data are stored in an array, and
3. data are sorted in ascending order.

The programs can be easily modified to sort other types of data, to sort in descending order, or to sort data in an \texttt{ArrayList} or a \texttt{LinkedList}.

There are many algorithms for sorting. You have already learned selection sort and insertion sort. This chapter introduces bubble sort, merge sort, quick sort, bucket sort, radix sort, and external sort.

25.2 Bubble Sort

A bubble sort sorts the array in multiple phases. Each pass successively swaps the neighboring elements if the elements are not in order.

The bubble sort algorithm makes several passes through the array. On each pass, successive neighboring pairs are compared. If a pair is in decreasing order, its values are swapped; otherwise, the values remain unchanged. The technique is called a bubble sort or sinking sort, because the smaller values gradually “bubble” their way to the top and the larger values sink to the bottom. After the first pass, the last element becomes the largest in the array. After the second pass, the second-to-last element becomes the second largest in the array. This process is continued until all elements are sorted.

Figure 25.1a shows the first pass of a bubble sort on an array of six elements (2 9 5 4 8 1). Compare the elements in the first pair (2 and 9), and no swap is needed because they are already in order. Compare the elements in the second pair (9 and 5), and swap 9 with 5 because 9 is greater than 5. Compare the elements in the third pair (9 and 4), and swap 9 with 4. Compare the elements in the fourth pair (9 and 8), and swap 9 with 8. Compare the
25.2 Bubble Sort

Each pass compares and orders the pairs of elements sequentially.

FIGURE 25.1 Each pass compares and orders the pairs of elements sequentially.

The first pass places the largest number (9) as the last in the array. In the second pass, as shown in Figure 25.1b, you compare and order pairs of elements sequentially. There is no need to consider the last pair, because the last element in the array is already the largest. In the third pass, as shown in Figure 25.1c, you compare and order pairs of elements sequentially except the last two elements, because they are already in order. So in the $k$th pass, you don’t need to consider the last $k - 1$ elements, because they are already ordered.

The algorithm for a bubble sort is described in Listing 25.1.

LISTING 25.1 Bubble Sort Algorithm

```java
for (int k = 1; k < list.length; k++) {
    // Perform the kth pass
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length - k; i++) {
        if (list[i] > list[i + 1]) {
            swap list[i] with list[i + 1];
        }
    }
}
```

Note that if no swap takes place in a pass, there is no need to perform the next pass, because all the elements are already sorted. You can use this property to improve the algorithm in Listing 25.1 as in Listing 25.2.

LISTING 25.2 Improved Bubble Sort Algorithm

```java
boolean needNextPass = true;
for (int k = 1; k < list.length && needNextPass; k++) {
    // Array may be sorted and next pass not needed
    needNextPass = false;
    // Perform the kth pass
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length - k; i++) {
        if (list[i] > list[i + 1]) {
            swap list[i] with list[i + 1];
            needNextPass = true; // Next pass still needed
        }
    }
}
```

The algorithm can be implemented in Listing 25.3.

LISTING 25.3 BubbleSort.java

```java
public class BubbleSort {
    /** Bubble sort method */
    public static void bubbleSort(int[] list) {
        boolean needNextPass = true;
```
In the best-case analysis, the bubble sort algorithm needs just the first pass to find that the array is already sorted—no next pass is needed. Since the number of comparisons is \( n - 1 \) in the first pass, the best-case time for a bubble sort is \( O(n) \).

In the worst-case analysis, the bubble sort algorithm requires \( n - 1 \) passes. The first pass makes \( n - 1 \) comparisons; the second pass makes \( n - 2 \) comparisons; and so on; the last pass makes 1 comparison. Thus, the total number of comparisons is:

\[
(n - 1) + (n - 2) + \ldots + 2 + 1
\]

\[
= \frac{(n - 1)n}{2} = \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{2} = O(n^2)
\]

Therefore, the worst-case time for a bubble sort is \( O(n^2) \).

25.1 Describe how a bubble sort works. What is the time complexity for a bubble sort?

25.2 Use Figure 25.1 as an example to show how to apply a bubble sort on \{45, 11, 50, 59, 60, 2, 4, 7, 10\}.

25.3 If a list is already sorted, how many comparisons will the `bubbleSort` method perform?

### 25.3 Merge Sort

The merge sort algorithm can be described recursively as follows: The algorithm divides the array into two halves and applies a merge sort on each half recursively. After the two halves are sorted, merge them.

The algorithm for a merge sort is given in Listing 25.4.
LISTING 25.4  Merge Sort Algorithm

```java
1   public static void mergeSort(int[] list) {
2       if (list.length > 1) {
3           mergeSort(list[0 ... list.length / 2]);
4           mergeSort(list[list.length / 2 + 1 ... list.length]);
5           merge list[0 ... list.length / 2] with
6               list[list.length / 2 + 1 ... list.length];
7       }
8   }
```

Figure 25.2 illustrates a merge sort of an array of eight elements (2 9 5 4 8 1 6 7). The original array is split into (2 9 5 4) and (8 1 6 7). Apply a merge sort on these two subarrays recursively to split (2 9 5 4) into (2 9) and (5 4) and (8 1 6 7) into (8 1) and (6 7). This process continues until the subarray contains only one element. For example, array (2 9) is split into the subarrays (2) and (9). Since array (2) contains a single element, it cannot be further split. Now merge (2) with (9) into a new sorted array (2 9); merge (5) with (4) into a new sorted array (4 5). Merge (2 9) with (4 5) into a new sorted array (2 4 5 9), and finally merge (2 4 5 9) with (1 6 7 8) into a new sorted array (1 2 4 5 6 7 8 9).

LISTING 25.5  MergeSort.java

```java
1   public class MergeSort {
2     /** The method for sorting the numbers */
3     public static void mergeSort(int[] list) {
4         if (list.length > 1) {
5             // Merge sort the first half
6             int[] firstHalf = new int[list.length / 2];
7             System.arraycopy(list, 0, firstHalf, 0, list.length / 2);
8             mergeSort(firstHalf);
9
10            // Merge sort the second half
11            int secondHalfLength = list.length - list.length / 2;
12            int[] secondHalf = new int[secondHalfLength];
```
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```
System.arraycopy(list, list.length / 2, secondHalf, 0, secondHalfLength);
mergeSort(secondHalf);

// Merge firstHalf with secondHalf into list
merge(firstHalf, secondHalf, list);
}

/** Merge two sorted lists */
int current1 = 0; // Current index in list1
int current2 = 0; // Current index in list2
int current3 = 0; // Current index in temp

while (current1 < list1.length && current2 < list2.length) {
  if (list1[current1] < list2[current2]) {
    temp[current3++] = list1[current1++];
  } else {
    temp[current3++] = list2[current2++];
  }
}

while (current1 < list1.length) {
  temp[current3++] = list1[current1++];
}

while (current2 < list2.length) {
  temp[current3++] = list2[current2++];
}

/** A test method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
  int[] list = {2, 3, 2, 5, 6, 1, -2, 3, 14, 12};
  mergeSort(list);
  for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
    System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
}

The mergeSort method (lines 3–20) creates a new array firstHalf, which is a copy of the first half of list (line 7). The algorithm invokes mergeSort recursively on firstHalf (line 8). The length of the firstHalf is list.length / 2 and the length of the secondHalf is list.length - list.length / 2. The new array secondHalf was created to contain the second part of the original array list. The algorithm invokes mergeSort recursively on secondHalf (line 15). After firstHalf and secondHalf are sorted, they are merged to list (line 18). Thus, array list is now sorted.

The merge method (lines 23–40) merges two sorted arrays list1 and list2 into array temp. current1 and current2 point to the current element to be considered in list1 and list2 (lines 24–26). The method repeatedly compares the current elements from list1 and list2 and moves the smaller one to temp. current1 is increased by 1 (line 30) if the smaller one is in list1 and current2 is increased by 1 (line 32) if the smaller one is in list2. Finally, all the elements in one of the lists are moved to temp. If there are still unmoved elements in list1, copy them to temp (lines 35–36). If there are still unmoved elements in list2, copy them to temp (lines 38–39).

Figure 25.3 illustrates how to merge the two arrays list1 (2 4 5 9) and list2 (1 6 7 8). Initially the current elements to be considered in the arrays are 2 and 1. Compare them and move the smaller element 1 to temp, as shown in Figure 25.3a. current2 and current3 are increased by 1. Continue to compare the current elements in the two arrays and move the
25.3 Merge Sort

(a) After moving 1 to temp

(b) After moving all the elements in list2 to temp

(c) After moving 9 to temp

 FIGURE 25.3  Two sorted arrays are merged into one sorted array.

smaller one to temp until one of the arrays is completely moved. As shown in Figure 25.3b, all the elements in list2 are moved to temp and current1 points to element 9 in list1. Copy 9 to temp, as shown in Figure 25.3c.

The mergeSort method creates two temporary arrays (lines 6, 12) during the dividing process, copies the first half and the second half of the array into the temporary arrays (lines 7, 13), sorts the temporary arrays (lines 8, 15), and then merges them into the original array (line 18), as shown in Figure 25.4a. You can rewrite the code to recursively sort the first half of the array and the second half of the array without creating new temporary arrays, and then merge the two arrays into a temporary array and copy its contents to the original array, as shown in Figure 25.4b. This is left for you to do in Programming Exercise 25.20.

 FIGURE 25.4  Temporary arrays are created to support a merge sort.

Note

A merge sort can be implemented efficiently using parallel processing. See Section 32.18, Parallel Programming, for a parallel implementation of a merge sort.

Let \( T(n) \) denote the time required for sorting an array of \( n \) elements using a merge sort. Without loss of generality, assume \( n \) is a power of 2. The merge sort algorithm splits the array into two subarrays, sorts the subarrays using the same algorithm recursively, and then merges the subarrays. Therefore,

\[
T(n) = T \left( \frac{n}{2} \right) + T \left( \frac{n}{2} \right) + \text{mergetime}
\]
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The first $T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ is the time for sorting the first half of the array, and the second $T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ is the time for sorting the second half. To merge two subarrays, it takes at most $n - 1$ comparisons to compare the elements from the two subarrays and $n$ moves to move elements to the temporary array. Thus, the total time is $2n - 1$. Therefore,

$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 2n - 1 = O(n \log n)$$

The complexity of a merge sort is $O(n \log n)$. This algorithm is better than selection sort, insertion sort, and bubble sort, because the time complexity of these algorithms is $O(n^2)$. The `sort` method in the `java.util.Arrays` class is implemented using a variation of the merge sort algorithm.

### 25.4 Describe how a merge sort works. What is the time complexity for a merge sort?

### 25.5 Use Figure 25.2 as an example to show how to apply a merge sort on

- 45, 11, 50, 59, 60, 2, 4, 7, 10.

### 25.6 What is wrong if lines 6–15 in Listing 25.5, MergeSort.java, are replaced by the following code?

```java
int[] firstHalf = new int[list.length / 2 + 1];
System.arraycopy(list, 0, firstHalf, 0, list.length / 2 + 1);
mergeSort(firstHalf);

// Merge sort the second half
int secondHalfLength = list.length - list.length / 2 - 1;
int[] secondHalf = new int[secondHalfLength];
System.arraycopy(list, list.length / 2, secondHalf, 0, secondHalfLength);
mergeSort(secondHalf);
```

### 25.4 Quick Sort

A quick sort works as follows: The algorithm selects an element, called the pivot, in the array. It divides the array into two parts, so that all the elements in the first part are less than or equal to the pivot and all the elements in the second part are greater than the pivot. The quick sort algorithm is then recursively applied to the first part and then the second part.

The quick sort algorithm, developed by C.A.R. Hoare in 1962, is described in Listing 25.6.

#### Listing 25.6  Quick Sort Algorithm

```java
public static void quickSort(int[] list) {
    if (list.length > 1) {
        select a pivot;
        partition list into list1 and list2 such that
        all elements in list1 <= pivot and
        all elements in list2 > pivot;
        quickSort(list1);
        quickSort(list2);
    }
}
```

Each partition places the pivot in the right place. The selection of the pivot affects the performance of the algorithm. Ideally, the algorithm should choose the pivot that divides the two parts evenly. For simplicity, assume the first element in the array is chosen as the pivot. (Programming Exercise 25.4 proposes an alternative strategy for selecting the pivot.)
Figure 25.5 illustrates how to sort an array (5 2 9 3 8 4 0 1 6 7) using quick sort. Choose the first element, 5, as the pivot. The array is partitioned into two parts, as shown in Figure 25.5b. The highlighted pivot is placed in the right place in the array. Apply quick sort on two partial arrays (4 2 1 3 0) and then (8 9 6 7). The pivot 4 partitions (4 2 1 3 0) into just one partial array (0 2 1 3), as shown in Figure 25.5c. Apply quick sort on (0 2 1 3). The pivot 0 partitions it into just one partial array (2 1 3), as shown in Figure 25.5d. Apply quick sort on (2 1 3). The pivot 2 partitions it into (1) and (3), as shown in Figure 25.5e. Apply quick sort on (1). Since the array contains just one element, no further partition is needed.

The quick sort algorithm is implemented in Listing 25.7. There are two overloaded quickSort methods in the class. The first method (line 2) is used to sort an array. The second is a helper method (line 6) that sorts a partial array with a specified range.

**LISTING 25.7 QuickSort.java**

```java
public class QuickSort {
    public static void quickSort(int[] list) {
        quickSort(list, 0, list.length - 1);
    }

    public static void quickSort(int[] list, int first, int last) {
        if (last > first) {
            int pivotIndex = partition(list, first, last);
            quickSort(list, first, pivotIndex - 1);
            quickSort(list, pivotIndex + 1, last);
        }
    }

    /** Partition the array list[first..last] */
    public static int partition(int[] list, int first, int last) {
        int pivot = list[first]; // Choose the first element as the pivot
        int low = first + 1; // Index for forward search
        int high = last; // Index for backward search

        while (high > low) {
            // Search forward from left
            while (low <= high && list[low] <= pivot)
                low++;
```
25 // Search backward from right
26 while (low <= high && list[high] > pivot)
27     high--;
28
29 // Swap two elements in the list
30 if (high > low) {
31     int temp = list[high];
32     list[high] = list[low];
33     list[low] = temp;
34 }
35 }
36
37 while (high > first && list[high] >= pivot)
38     high--;
39
40 // Swap pivot with list[high]
41 if (pivot > list[high]) {
42     list[first] = list[high];
43     list[high] = pivot;
44     return high;
45 }
46 else {
47     return first;
48 }
49 }
50
51 /** A test method */
52 public static void main(String[] args) {
53     int[] list = {2, 3, 2, 5, 6, 1, -2, 3, 14, 12};
54     quickSort(list);
55     for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
56         System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
57 }
58 }

-2 1 2 2 3 3 5 6 12 14

The **partition** method (lines 15–49) partitions the array `list[first..last]` using the pivot. The first element in the partial array is chosen as the pivot (line 16). Initially `low` points to the second element in the partial array (line 17) and `high` points to the last element in the partial array (line 18).

Starting from the left, the method searches forward in the array for the first element that is greater than the pivot (lines 22–23), then searches from the right backward for the first element in the array that is less than or equal to the pivot (lines 26–27). It then swaps these two elements and repeats the same search and swap operations until all the elements are searched in a **while** loop (lines 20–35).

The method returns the new index for the pivot that divides the partial array into two parts if the pivot has been moved (line 44). Otherwise, it returns the original index for the pivot (line 47).

Figure 25.6 illustrates how to partition an array (5 2 9 3 8 4 0 1 6 7). Choose the first element, 5, as the pivot. Initially `low` is the index that points to element 2 and `high` points to element 7, as shown in Figure 25.6a. Advance index `low` forward to search for the first element (9) that is greater than the pivot and move index `high` backward to search for the first element (1) that is less than or equal to the pivot, as shown in Figure 25.6b. Swap 9 with 1, as shown in Figure 25.6c. Continue the search and move `low` to point to element 8 and `high` to point to element 0, as shown in Figure 25.6d. Swap element 8 with 0, as shown in Figure 25.6e.
Continue to move \textit{low} until it passes \textit{high}, as shown in Figure 25.6f. Now all the elements are examined. Swap the pivot with element 4 at index \textit{high}. The final partition is shown in Figure 25.6g. The index of the pivot is returned when the method is finished.

The index of the pivot is returned

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{partition_example.png}
\caption{The \textit{partition} method returns the index of the pivot after it is put in the correct place.}
\end{figure}

To partition an array of \( n \) elements, it takes \( n \) comparisons and \( n \) moves in the worst-case analysis. Thus, the time required for partition is \( O(n) \).

In the worst case, the pivot divides the array each time into one big subarray with the other array empty. The size of the big subarray is one less than the one before divided. The algorithm requires \((n - 1) + (n - 2) + \ldots + 2 + 1 = O(n^2)\) time.

In the best case, the pivot divides the array each time into two parts of about the same size. Let \( T(n) \) denote the time required for sorting an array of \( n \) elements using quick sort. Thus,

\[
T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n.
\]

Similar to the merge sort analysis, \( T(n) = O(n \log n) \).
On the average, the pivot will not divide the array into two parts of the same size or one empty part each time. Statistically, the sizes of the two parts are very close. Therefore, the average time is $O(n \log n)$. The exact average-case analysis is beyond the scope of this book.

Both merge sort and quick sort employ the divide-and-conquer approach. For merge sort, the bulk of the work is to merge two sublists, which takes place after the sublists are sorted. For quick sort, the bulk of the work is to partition the list into two sublists, which takes place before the sublists are sorted. Merge sort is more efficient than quick sort in the worst case, but the two are equally efficient in the average case. Merge sort requires a temporary array for sorting two subarrays. Quick sort does not need additional array space. Thus, quick sort is more space efficient than merge sort.

25.7 Describe how quick sort works. What is the time complexity for a quick sort?

25.8 Why is quick sort more space efficient than merge sort?

25.9 Use Figure 25.5 as an example to show how to apply a quick sort on

{45, 11, 50, 59, 60, 2, 4, 7, 10}.

25.5 Heap Sort

A heap sort uses a binary heap. It first adds all the elements to a heap and then removes the largest elements successively to obtain a sorted list.

Heap sorts use a binary heap, which is a complete binary tree. A binary tree is a hierarchical structure. It either is empty or it consists of an element, called the root, and two distinct binary trees, called the left subtree and right subtree. The length of a path is the number of the edges in the path. The depth of a node is the length of the path from the root to the node.

A binary heap is a binary tree with the following properties:

- **Shape property:** It is a complete binary tree.
- **Heap property:** Each node is greater than or equal to any of its children.

A binary tree is complete if each of its levels is full, except that the last level may not be full and all the leaves on the last level are placed leftmost. For example, in Figure 25.7, the binary trees in (a) and (b) are complete, but the binary trees in (c) and (d) are not complete. Further, the binary tree in (a) is a heap, but the binary tree in (b) is not a heap, because the root (39) is less than its right child (42).

**Figure 25.7** A binary heap is a special complete binary tree.
25.5 Heap Sort

Pedagogical Note
A heap can be implemented efficiently for inserting keys and for deleting the root. For an interactive demo on how a heap works, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HeapAnimation.html, as shown in Figure 25.8.

heap animation on Companion Website

25.5.1 Storing a Heap
A heap can be stored in an ArrayList or an array if the heap size is known in advance. The heap in Figure 25.9a can be stored using the array in Figure 25.9b. The root is at position 0, and its two children are at positions 1 and 2. For a node at position \( i \), its left child is at position \( 2i + 1 \), its right child is at position \( 2i + 2 \), and its parent is \( (i - 1)/2 \). For example, the node for element 39 is at position 4, so its left child (element 14) is at \( 9 (2 \times 4 + 1) \), its right child (element 33) is at \( 10 (2 \times 4 + 2) \), and its parent (element 42) is at \( 1 ((4 - 1)/2) \).

Figure 25.9 A binary heap can be implemented using an array.

25.5.2 Adding a New Node
To add a new node to the heap, first add it to the end of the heap and then rebuild the tree as follows:

Let the last node be the current node;
while (the current node is greater than its parent) {
    Swap the current node with its parent;
    Now the current node is one level up;
}

Figure 25.8 The heap animation tool enables you to insert a key and delete the root visually.
Suppose a heap is initially empty. That heap is shown in Figure 25.10, after adding numbers 3, 5, 1, 19, 11, and 22 in this order.

![Figure 25.10](image)

Elements 3, 5, 1, 19, 11, and 22 are inserted into the heap.

Now consider adding 88 into the heap. Place the new node 88 at the end of the tree, as shown in Figure 25.11a. Swap 88 with 19, as shown in Figure 25.11b. Swap 88 with 22, as shown in Figure 25.11c.

![Figure 25.11](image)

Rebuild the heap after adding a new node.

25.5.3 Removing the Root

Often you need to remove the maximum element, which is the root in a heap. After the root is removed, the tree must be rebuilt to maintain the heap property. The algorithm for rebuilding the tree can be described as follows:

Move the last node to replace the root;
Let the root be the current node;
while (the current node has children and the current node is smaller than one of its children) {
    Swap the current node with the larger of its children;
    Now the current node is one level down;
}

Figure 25.12 shows the process of rebuilding a heap after the root 62 is removed from Figure 25.9a. Move the last node, 9, to the root, as shown in Figure 25.12a. Swap 9 with 59, as shown in Figure 25.12b; swap 9 with 44, as shown in Figure 25.12c; and swap 9 with 30, as shown in Figure 25.12d.
Figure 25.12  Rebuild the heap after the root 62 is removed.

Figure 25.13 shows the process of rebuilding a heap after the root, 59, is removed from Figure 25.12d. Move the last node, 17, to the root, as shown in Figure 25.13a. Swap 17 with 44, as shown in Figure 25.13b, and then swap 17 with 30, as shown in Figure 25.13c.

Figure 25.13  Rebuild the heap after the root, 59, is removed.
25.5.4 The **Heap** Class

Now you are ready to design and implement the **Heap** class. The class diagram is shown in Figure 25.14. Its implementation is given in Listing 25.8.

**Figure 25.14** The **Heap** class provides operations for manipulating a heap.

**Listing 25.8 Heap.java**

```java
public class Heap<E extends Comparable<E>> {

    private java.util.ArrayList<E> list = new java.util.ArrayList<E>();

    public Heap() {
    }

    public Heap(E[] objects) {
        for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++)
            add(objects[i]);
    }

    public void add(E newObject) {
        list.add(newObject); // Append to the heap
        int currentIndex = list.size() - 1; // The index of the last node
        while (currentIndex > 0) {
            int parentIndex = (currentIndex - 1) / 2;
            // Swap if the current object is greater than its parent
            if (list.get(currentIndex).compareTo(list.get(parentIndex)) > 0) {
                E temp = list.get(currentIndex);
                list.set(currentIndex, list.get(parentIndex));
                list.set(parentIndex, temp);
            } else
                break; // The tree is a heap now
        }
        currentIndex = parentIndex;
    }

    public E remove() {
```

if (list.size() == 0) return null;

E removedObject = list.get(0);
list.set(0, list.get(list.size() - 1));
list.remove(list.size() - 1);

int currentIndex = 0;
while (currentIndex < list.size()) {
    int leftChildIndex = 2 * currentIndex + 1;
    int rightChildIndex = 2 * currentIndex + 2;

    // Find the maximum between two children
    if (leftChildIndex >= list.size()) break; // The tree is a heap
    int maxIndex = leftChildIndex;
    if (rightChildIndex < list.size()) {
        if (list.get(maxIndex).compareTo(
                list.get(rightChildIndex)) < 0) {
            maxIndex = rightChildIndex;
        }
    }

    // Swap if the current node is less than the maximum
    if (list.get(currentIndex).compareTo(
            list.get(maxIndex)) < 0) {
        E temp = list.get(maxIndex);
        list.set(maxIndex, list.get(currentIndex));
        list.set(currentIndex, temp);
        currentIndex = maxIndex;
    } else
        break; // The tree is a heap
}

return removedObject;

/** Get the number of nodes in the tree */
public int getSize() {
    return list.size();
}

A heap is represented using an array list internally (line 2). You can change the array list to other data structures, but the Heap class contract will remain unchanged.

The add(E newObject) method (lines 15–33) appends the object to the tree and then swaps the object with its parent if the object is greater than its parent. This process continues until the new object becomes the root or is not greater than its parent.

The remove() method (lines 36–71) removes and returns the root. To maintain the heap property, the method moves the last object to the root position and swaps it with its larger child if it is less than the larger child. This process continues until the last object becomes a leaf or is not less than its children.

### 25.5.5 Sorting Using the Heap Class

To sort an array using a heap, first create an object using the Heap class, add all the elements to the heap using the add method, and remove all the elements from the heap using the remove method. The elements are removed in descending order. Listing 25.9 gives a program for sorting an array using a heap.
Listing 25.9  HeapSort.java

```java
public class HeapSort {
    /** Heap sort method */
    public static <E extends Comparable> void heapSort(E[] list) {
        // Create a Heap of integers
        Heap<E> heap = new Heap<E>();

        // Add elements to the heap
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            heap.add(list[i]);

        // Remove elements from the heap
        for (int i = list.length - 1; i >= 0; i--)
            list[i] = heap.remove();
    }

    /** A test method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Integer[] list = {-44, -5, -3, 3, 3, -4, 0, 1, 2, 4, 5, 53};
        heapSort(list);
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            System.out.print(list[i] + " ");
    }
}
```

25.5.6 Heap Sort Time Complexity

Let us turn our attention to analyzing the time complexity for the heap sort. Let $h$ denote the height for a heap of $n$ elements. The height of a heap is the number of nodes in the longest path from the root to a leaf node. Since a heap is a complete binary tree, the first level has 1 node, the second level has 2 nodes, the $k$th level has $2^{k-1}$ nodes, the $(h-1)$ level has $2^{h-2}$ nodes, and the $h$th level has at least 1 and at most $2^{h-1}$ nodes. Therefore,

$$1 + 2 + \ldots + 2^{h-2} < n \leq 1 + 2 + \ldots + 2^{h-2} + 2^{h-1}$$

That is,

$$2^{h-1} - 1 < n \leq 2^h - 1$$
$$2^{h-1} < n + 1 \leq 2^h$$
$$h - 1 < \log(n + 1) \leq h$$

Thus, $h < \log(n + 1) + 1$ and $\log(n + 1) \leq h$. Therefore, $\log(n + 1) \leq h < \log(n + 1) + 1$. Hence, the height of the heap is $O(\log n)$.

Since the `add` method traces a path from a leaf to a root, it takes at most $h$ steps to add a new element to the heap. Thus, the total time for constructing an initial heap is $O(n \log n)$ for an array of $n$ elements. Since the `remove` method traces a path from a root to a leaf, it takes at most $h$ steps to rebuild a heap after removing the root from the heap. Since the `remove` method is invoked $n$ times, the total time for producing a sorted array from a heap is $O(n \log n)$.

Both merge sorts and heap sorts require $O(n \log n)$ time. A merge sort requires a temporary array for merging two subarrays; a heap sort does not need additional array space. Therefore, a heap sort is more space efficient than a merge sort.

25.10 What is a complete binary tree? What is a heap? Describe how to remove the root from a heap and how to add a new object to a heap.
25.11 What is the return value from invoking the remove method if the heap is empty?

25.12 Add the elements 4, 5, 1, 2, 9, and 3 into a heap in this order. Draw the diagrams to show the heap after each element is added.

25.13 Show the heap after the root in the heap in Figure 25.13c is removed.

25.14 What is the time complexity of inserting a new element into a heap and what is the time complexity of deleting an element from a heap?

25.15 Show the steps of creating a heap using \{45, 11, 50, 59, 60, 2, 4, 7, 10\}.

25.16 Given the following heap, show the steps of removing all nodes from the heap.

```
25.17 Which of the following statements are wrong?

1  Heap<Object> heap1 = new Heap<Object>();
2  Heap<Number> heap2 = new Heap<Number>();
3  Heap<BigInteger> heap3 = new Heap<BigInteger>();
4  Heap<Calendar> heap4 = new Heap<Calendar>();
5  Heap<String> heap5 = new Heap<String>();
```

25.6 Bucket Sort and Radix Sort

Bucket sorts and radix sorts are efficient for sorting integers.

All sort algorithms discussed so far are general sorting algorithms that work for any types of keys (e.g., integers, strings, and any comparable objects). These algorithms sort the elements by comparing their keys. The lower bound for general sorting algorithms is \(O(n \log n)\), so no sorting algorithms based on comparisons can perform better than \(O(n \log n)\). However, if the keys are small integers, you can use a bucket sort without having to compare the keys.

The bucket sort algorithm works as follows. Assume the keys are in the range from 0 to t. We need \(t + 1\) buckets labeled 0, 1, \ldots, and t. If an element’s key is i, the element is put into the bucket i. Each bucket holds the elements with the same key value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements with key 0</th>
<th>Elements with key 1</th>
<th>Elements with key 2</th>
<th>\ldots</th>
<th>Elements with key t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

You can use an \texttt{ArrayList} to implement a bucket. The bucket sort algorithm for sorting a list of elements can be described as follows:

```java
void bucketSort(E[] list) {
    E[] bucket = (E[])\texttt{new java.util.ArrayList[t+1]};

    // Distribute the elements from list to buckets
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++) {
        // TODO: Distribute the elements to the buckets
    }

    // Collect the elements from buckets in sorted order
    for (int i = 0; i < bucket.length; i++) {
        for (E elem : bucket[i]) {
            list[index++] = elem;
        }
    }
}
```
```java
int key = list[i].getKey();

if (bucket[key] == null)
    bucket[key] = new java.util.ArrayList();

bucket[key].add(list[i]);
}

// Now move the elements from the buckets back to list
int k = 0; // k is an index for list
for (int i = 0; i < bucket.length; i++) {
    if (bucket[i] != null) {
        for (int j = 0; j < bucket[i].size(); j++)
            list[k++] = bucket[i].get(j);
    }
}
```

Clearly, it takes $O(n + t)$ time to sort the list and uses $O(n + t)$ space, where $n$ is the list size.

Note that if $t$ is too large, using the bucket sort is not desirable. Instead, you can use a radix sort. The radix sort is based on the bucket sort, but a radix sort uses only ten buckets.

It is worthwhile to note that a bucket sort is stable, meaning that if two elements in the original list have the same key value, their order is not changed in the sorted list. That is, if element $e_1$ and element $e_2$ have the same key and $e_1$ precedes $e_2$ in the original list, $e_1$ still precedes $e_2$ in the sorted list.

Assume that the keys are positive integers. The idea for the radix sort is to divide the keys into subgroups based on their radix positions. It applies a bucket sort repeatedly for the key values on radix positions, starting from the least-significant position.

Consider sorting the elements with the following keys:

331, 454, 230, 34, 343, 45, 59, 453, 345, 231, 9

Apply the bucket sort on the last radix position, and the elements are put into the buckets as follows:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>230</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

After being removed from the buckets, the elements are in the following order:

230, 331, 231, 343, 453, 454, 34, 45, 345, 59, 9

Apply the bucket sort on the second-to-last radix position, and the elements are put into the buckets as follows:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

After being removed from the buckets, the elements are in the following order:

9, 230, 331, 231, 34, 343, 45, 345, 453, 454, 59

(Note that 9 is 009.)
Apply the bucket sort on the third-to-last radix position, and the elements are put into the buckets as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>453</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td>231</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>454</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After being removed from the buckets, the elements are in the following order:

9, 34, 45, 59, 230, 231, 331, 343, 345, 453, 454

The elements are now sorted.

Radix sort takes $O(dn)$ time to sort $n$ elements with integer keys, where $d$ is the maximum number of the radix positions among all keys.

25.18 Can you sort a list of strings using a bucket sort?
25.19 Show how the radix sort works using the numbers 454, 34, 23, 43, 74, 86, and 76.

25.7 External Sort

You can sort a large amount data using an external sort.

All the sort algorithms discussed in the preceding sections assume that all the data to be sorted are available at one time in internal memory, such as in an array. To sort data stored in an external file, you must first bring the data to the memory and then sort it internally. However, if the file is too large, all the data in the file cannot be brought to memory at one time. This section discusses how to sort data in a large external file. This is called an external sort.

For simplicity, assume that two million int values are stored in a binary file named largedata.dat. This file was created using the program in Listing 25.10.

**LISTING 25.10 CreateLargeFile.java**

```java
import java.io.*;

public class CreateLargeFile {
  public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
    DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(
        new BufferedOutputStream(
            new FileOutputStream("largedata.dat")));

    for (int i = 0; i < 800004; i++)
      output.writeInt((int)(Math.random() * 1000000));

    output.close();

    // Display first 100 numbers
    DataInputStream input =
        new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream("largedata.dat"));
    for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
      System.out.println(input.readInt() + " ");

    input.close();
  }
}
```
A variation of merge sort can be used to sort this file in two phases:

**Phase I:** Repeatedly bring data from the file to an array, sort the array using an internal sorting algorithm, and output the data from the array to a temporary file. This process is shown in Figure 25.15. Ideally, you want to create a large array, but its maximum size depends on how much memory is allocated to the JVM by the operating system. Assume that the maximum array size is 100,000 int values. In the temporary file, every 100,000 int values are sorted. They are denoted as \( S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k \), where the last segment, \( S_k \), may contain less than 100,000 values.

**Phase II:** Merge a pair of sorted segments (e.g., \( S_1 \) with \( S_2 \), \( S_3 \) with \( S_4 \), \ldots, and so on) into a larger sorted segment and save the new segment into a new temporary file. Continue the same process until only one sorted segment results. Figure 25.16 shows how to merge eight segments.

**Note**

It is not necessary to merge two successive segments. For example, you can merge \( S_1 \) with \( S_5 \), \( S_2 \) with \( S_6 \), \( S_3 \) with \( S_7 \), and \( S_4 \) with \( S_8 \), in the first merge step. This observation is useful in implementing Phase II efficiently.
25.7.1 Implementing Phase I
Listing 25.11 gives the method that reads each segment of data from a file, sorts the segment, and stores the sorted segments into a new file. The method returns the number of segments.

**LISTING 25.11 Creating Initial Sorted Segments**

```java
/** Sort original file into sorted segments */
private static int initializeSegments(int segmentSize, String originalFile, String f1)
    throws Exception {
    int[] list = new int[segmentSize];
    DataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream(originalFile)));
    DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream(f1)));

    int numberOfSegments = 0;
    while (input.available() > 0) {
        numberOfSegments++;
        int i = 0;
        for (; input.available() > 0 && i < segmentSize; i++) {
            list[i] = input.readInt();
        }

        // Sort an array list[0..i-1]
        java.util.Arrays.sort(list, 0, i);

        // Write the array to f1.dat
        for (int j = 0; j < i; j++) {
            output.writeInt(list[j]);
        }
    }

    input.close();
    output.close();
    return numberOfSegments;
}
```

The method creates an array with the maximum size in line 5, a data input stream for the original file in line 6, and a data output stream for a temporary file in line 8. Buffered streams are used to improve performance.

Lines 14–17 read a segment of data from the file into the array. Line 20 sorts the array. Lines 23–25 write the data in the array to the temporary file.

The number of segments is returned in line 31. Note that every segment has `MAX_ARRAY_SIZE` number of elements except the last segment, which may have fewer elements.

25.7.2 Implementing Phase II
In each merge step, two sorted segments are merged to form a new segment. The size of the new segment is doubled. The number of segments is reduced by half after each merge step. A segment is too large to be brought to an array in memory. To implement a merge step, copy half the number of segments from the file `f1.dat` to a temporary file `f2.dat`. Then merge the first remaining segment in `f1.dat` with the first segment in `f2.dat` into a temporary file named `f3.dat`, as shown in Figure 25.17.
Chapter 25  Sorting

**Listing 25.12** Copying First Half Segments

```java
private static void copyHalfToF2(int numberOfSegments, int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataOutputStream f2) throws Exception {
    for (int i = 0; i < (numberOfSegments / 2) * segmentSize; i++) {
        f2.writeInt(f1.readInt());
    }
}
```

**Listing 25.13** Merging All Segments

```java
private static void mergeSegments(int numberOfSegments, int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataInputStream f2, DataOutputStream f3) throws Exception {
    for (int i = 0; i < numberOfSegments; i++) {
        mergeTwoSegments(segmentSize, f1, f2, f3);
    }
    // If f1 has one extra segment, copy it to f3
    while (f1.available() > 0) {
        f3.writeInt(f1.readInt());
    }
}
```

**Listing 25.14** Merging Two Segments

```java
private static void mergeTwoSegments(int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataInputStream f2, DataOutputStream f3) throws Exception {
    int intFromF1 = f1.readInt();
    int intFromF2 = f2.readInt();
    int f1Count = 1;
    int f2Count = 1;
    while (true) {
        if (intFromF1 < intFromF2) {
            f3.writeInt(intFromF1);
            intFromF1 = f1.readInt();
            f1Count = 1;
        } else {
            f3.writeInt(intFromF2);
            intFromF2 = f2.readInt();
            f2Count = 1;
        }
    }
}
```

---

**Note**

*f1.dat* may have one segment more than *f2.dat*. If so, move the last segment into *f3.dat* after the merge.

Listing 25.12 gives a method that copies the first half of the segments in *f1.dat* to *f2.dat*. Listing 25.13 gives a method that merges a pair of segments in *f1.dat* and *f2.dat*. Listing 25.14 gives a method that merges two segments.

**Figure 25.17** Sorted segments are merged iteratively.
if (f1.available() == 0 || f1Count++ >= segmentSize) {
    f3.writeInt(intFromF2);
    break;
} else {
    intFromF1 = f1.readInt();
}
else {
    f3.writeInt(intFromF2);
    if (f2.available() == 0 || f2Count++ >= segmentSize) {
        f3.writeInt(intFromF1);
        break;
    }
    else {
        intFromF2 = f2.readInt();
    }
}
while (f1.available() > 0 && f1Count++ < segmentSize) {
    f3.writeInt(f1.readInt());
}
while (f2.available() > 0 && f2Count++ < segmentSize) {
    f3.writeInt(f2.readInt());
}

25.7.3 Combining Two Phases
Listing 25.15 gives the complete program for sorting int values in largedata.dat and storing the sorted data in sortedfile.dat.

LISTING 25.15  SortLargeFile.java

import java.io.*;

public class SortLargeFile {
    public static final int MAX_ARRAY_SIZE = 100000;
    public static final int BUFFER_SIZE = 100000;

    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        sort("largedata.dat", "sortedfile.dat");

        displayFile("sortedfile.dat");
    }

    /** Sort data in source file and into target file */
    public static void sort(String sourcefile, String targetfile) throws Exception {
        // Implement Phase 1: Create initial segments
        int numberOfSegments = initializeSegments(MAX_ARRAY_SIZE, sourcefile, "f1.dat");

        // Implement Phase 2: Merge segments recursively
        merge(numberOfSegments, MAX_ARRAY_SIZE,
              "f1.dat", "f2.dat", "f3.dat", targetfile);
    }

/** Sort original file into sorted segments */

private static int initializeSegments
    (int segmentSize, String originalFile, String f1)
    throws Exception {
    // Same as Listing 25.11, so omitted
}

private static void merge(int numberOfSegments, int segmentSize,
    String f1, String f2, String f3, String targetfile)
    throws Exception {
if (numberOfSegments > 1) {
    mergeOneStep(numberOfSegments, segmentSize, f1, f2, f3);
    merge((numberOfSegments + 1) / 2, segmentSize * 2,
        f3, f1, f2, targetfile);
} else { // Rename f1 as the final sorted file
        File sortedFile = new File(targetfile);
        if (sortedFile.exists()) sortedFile.delete();
        new File(f1).renameTo(sortedFile);
    }
}

private static void mergeOneStep(int numberOfSegments,
    int segmentSize, String f1, String f2, String f3)
    throws Exception {
input stream f1Input
    DataInputStream f1Input = new DataInputStream(
        new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream(f1), BUFFER_SIZE));
output stream f2Output
    DataOutputStream f2Output = new DataOutputStream(
        new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream(f2), BUFFER_SIZE));

// Copy half number of segments from f1.dat to f2.dat
    copyHalfToF2(numberOfSegments, segmentSize, f1Input, f2Output);
    f2Output.close();

input stream f2Input
    DataInputStream f2Input = new DataInputStream(
        new BufferedInputStream(new FileInputStream(f2), BUFFER_SIZE));
output stream f3Output
    DataOutputStream f3Output = new DataOutputStream(
        new BufferedOutputStream(new FileOutputStream(f3), BUFFER_SIZE));

merge two segments
    mergeSegments(numberOfSegments / 2,
        segmentSize, f1Input, f2Input, f3Output);
    f1Input.close();
    f2Input.close();
    f3Output.close();
}

/** Copy first half number of segments from f1.dat to f2.dat */
private static void copyHalfToF2(int numberOfSegments,
    int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataOutputStream f2)
    throws Exception {
    // Same as Listing 25.12, so omitted
}

/** Merge all segments */
private static void mergeSegments(int numberOfSegments,
    int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataInputStream f2,
/** Merges two segments */
private static void mergeTwoSegments(int segmentSize, DataInputStream f1, DataInputStream f2, DataOutputStream f3) throws Exception {
  // Same as Listing 25.14, so omitted
}

/** Display the first 100 numbers in the specified file */
public static void displayFile(String filename) {
  try {
    DataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(new FileInputStream(filename));
    for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++)
      System.out.print(input.readInt() + " ");
    input.close();
  } catch (IOException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
  }
}

Before you run this program, first run Listing 25.10, CreateLargeFile.java, to create the file largedata.dat. Invoking sort("largedata.dat", "sortedfile.dat") (line 9) reads data from largedata.dat and writes sorted data to sortedfile.dat. Invoking displayFile("sortedfile.dat") (line 12) displays the first 100 numbers in the specified file. Note that the files are created using binary I/O. You cannot view them using a text editor such as Notepad.

The sort method first creates initial segments from the original array and stores the sorted segments in a new file, f1.dat (lines 19–20), then produces a sorted file in targetfile (lines 23–24).

The merge method

merge(int numberOfSegments, int segmentSize, String f1, String f2, String f3, String targetfile)

merges the segments in f1 into f3 using f2 to assist the merge. The merge method is invoked recursively with many merge steps. Each merge step reduces the numberOfSegments by half and doubles the sorted segment size. After the completion of one merge step, the next merge step merges the new segments in f3 to f2 using f1 to assist the merge. The statement to invoke the new merge method is

merge((numberOfSegments + 1) / 2, segmentSize * 2, f3, f1, f2, targetfile);

The numberOfSegments for the next merge step is (numberOfSegments + 1) / 2. For example, if numberOfSegments is 5, numberOfSegments is 3 for the next merge step, because every two segments are merged but one is left unmerged.

The recursive merge method ends when numberOfSegments is 1. In this case, f1 contains sorted data. File f1 is renamed to targetfile (line 45).
25.7.4 External Sort Complexity

In the external sort, the dominating cost is that of I/O. Assume \( n \) is the number of elements to be sorted in the file. In Phase I, \( n \) number of elements are read from the original file and output to a temporary file. Therefore, the I/O for Phase I is \( O(n) \).

In Phase II, before the first merge step, the number of sorted segments is \( \frac{n}{c} \), where \( c \) is \texttt{MAX_ARRAY_SIZE}. Each merge step reduces the number of segments by half. Thus, after the first merge step, the number of segments is \( \frac{n}{2c} \). After the second merge step, the number of segments is \( \frac{n}{2^2c} \), and after the third merge step the number of segments is \( \frac{n}{2^3c} \). After \( \log \left( \frac{n}{c} \right) \) merge steps, the number of segments has been reduced to 1. Therefore, the total number of merge steps is \( \log \left( \frac{n}{c} \right) \).

In each merge step, half the number of segments are read from file \( f_1 \) and then written into a temporary file \( f_2 \). The remaining segments in \( f_1 \) are merged with the segments in \( f_2 \). The number of I/Os in each merge step is \( O(n) \). Since the total number of merge steps is \( \log \left( \frac{n}{c} \right) \), the total number of I/Os is

\[
O(n) \times \log \left( \frac{n}{c} \right) = O(n \log n)
\]

Therefore, the complexity of the external sort is \( O(n \log n) \).

25.20 Describe how external sort works. What is the complexity of the external sort algorithm?

25.21 Ten numbers \{2, 3, 4, 0, 5, 6, 7, 9, 8, 1\} are stored in the external file \texttt{largedata.dat}. Trace the \texttt{SortLargeFile} program by hand with \texttt{MAX ARRAY SIZE}=2.

### Key Terms

- bubble sort 984
- bucket sort 911
- complete binary tree 904
- external sort 913
- heap 904
- heap sort 904
- height of a heap 910
- merge sort 896
- quick sort 900
- radix sort 912

### Chapter Summary

1. The worst-case complexity for a selection sort, insertion sort, bubble sort, and quick sort is \( O(n^2) \).

2. The average-case and worst-case complexity for a merge sort is \( O(n \log n) \). The average time for a quick sort is also \( O(n \log n) \).

3. 

4. The time complexity for a heap sort is \( O(n \log n) \).
5. *Bucket sorts* and *radix sorts* are specialized sorting algorithms for integer keys. These algorithms sort keys using buckets rather than by comparing keys. They are more efficient than general sorting algorithms.

6. A variation of the merge sort—called an *external sort*—can be applied to sort large amounts of data from external files.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 25.2–25.4

25.1 (*Generic bubble sort*) Write the following two generic methods using bubble sort. The first method sorts the elements using the `Comparable` interface and the second uses the `Comparator` interface.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>>
    void bubbleSort(E[] list)

public static <E> void bubbleSort(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

25.2 (*Generic merge sort*) Write the following two generic methods using merge sort. The first method sorts the elements using the `Comparable` interface and the second uses the `Comparator` interface.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>>
    void mergeSort(E[] list)

public static <E> void mergeSort(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

25.3 (*Generic quick sort*) Write the following two generic methods using quick sort. The first method sorts the elements using the `Comparable` interface and the second uses the `Comparator` interface.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>>
    void quickSort(E[] list)

public static <E> void quickSort(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

25.4 (*Improve quick sort*) The quick sort algorithm presented in the book selects the first element in the list as the pivot. Revise it by selecting the median among the first, middle, and last elements in the list.

*25.5 (*Generic heap sort*) Write the following two generic methods using heap sort. The first method sorts the elements using the `Comparable` interface and the second uses the `Comparator` interface.

```java
public static <E extends Comparable<E>>
    void heapSort(E[] list)

public static <E> void heapSort(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

25.6 (*Check order*) Write the following overloaded methods that check whether an array is ordered in ascending order or descending order. By default, the method
checks ascending order. To check descending order, pass false to the ascending argument in the method.

public static boolean ordered(int[] list)
public static boolean ordered(int[] list, boolean ascending)
public static boolean ordered(double[] list)
public static boolean ordered
    (double[] list, boolean descending)
public static <E extends Comparable<E>> boolean ordered(E[] list)
public static <E extends Comparable<E>> boolean ordered
    (E[] list, boolean ascending)
public static <E> boolean ordered(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator)
public static <E> boolean ordered(E[] list,
    Comparator<? super E> comparator, boolean ascending)

Section 25.5

25.7 (Min-heap) The heap presented in the text is also known as a max-heap, in which each node is greater than or equal to any of its children. A min-heap is a heap in which each node is less than or equal to any of its children. Min-heaps are often used to implement priority queues. Revise the Heap class in Listing 25.8 to implement a min-heap.

*25.8 (Sort using a heap) Implement the following sort method using a heap.

public static <E extends Comparable<E>> void sort(E[] list)

*25.9 (Generic Heap using Comparator) Revise Heap in Listing 25.8, using a generic parameter and a Comparator for comparing objects. Define a new constructor with a Comparator as its argument as follows:

Heap(Comparator<? super E> comparator)

**25.10 (Heap visualization) Write a Java applet that displays a heap graphically, as shown in Figure 25.8. The applet lets you insert and delete an element from the heap.

25.11 (Heap clone and equals) Implement the clone and equals method in the Heap class.

Section 25.6

*25.12 (Radix sort) Write a program that randomly generates 1,000,000 integers and sorts them using radix sort.

*25.13 (Execution time for sorting) Write a program that obtains the execution time of selection sort, bubble sort, merge sort, quick sort, heap sort, and radix sort for input size 50,000, 100,000, 150,000, 200,000, 250,000, and 300,000. Your program should create data randomly and print a table like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Array size</th>
<th>Selection Sort</th>
<th>Bubble Sort</th>
<th>Merge Sort</th>
<th>Quick Sort</th>
<th>Heap Sort</th>
<th>Radix Sort</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Hint: You can use the following code template to obtain the execution time.)

```java
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
perform the task;
long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
long executionTime = endTime - startTime;
```

The text gives a recursive quick sort. Write a nonrecursive version in this exercise.

**Section 25.7**

*(25.14) (Execution time for external sorting)* Write a program that obtains the execution time of external sorts for integers of size 5,000,000, 10,000,000, 15,000,000, 20,000,000, 25,000,000, and 30,000,000. Your program should print a table like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>File size</th>
<th>5,000,000</th>
<th>10,000,000</th>
<th>15,000,000</th>
<th>20,000,000</th>
<th>25,000,000</th>
<th>30,000,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehensive**

*(25.15) (Selection sort animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the selection sort algorithm. Create an array that consists of 20 distinct numbers from 1 to 20 in a random order. The array elements are displayed in a histogram, as shown in Figure 25.18a. Clicking the *Step* button causes the program to perform an iteration of the outer loop in the algorithm and repaints the histogram for the new array. Color the last bar in the sorted subarray. When the algorithm is finished, display a dialog box to inform the user. Clicking the *Reset* button creates a new random array for a new start. (You can easily modify the program to animate the insertion algorithm.)

![Selection Sort Animation](image1)

![Bubble Sort Animation](image2)

**Figure 25.18** (a) The program animates selection sort. (b) The program animates bubble sort.

*(25.16) (Bubble sort animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the bubble sort algorithm. Create an array that consists of 20 distinct numbers from 1 to 20 in a random order. The array elements are displayed in a histogram, as shown in Figure 25.18b. Clicking the *Step* button causes the program to perform one comparison in the algorithm and repaints the histogram for the new array.
Color the bar that represents the number being considered in the swap. When the algorithm is finished, display a dialog box to inform the user. Clicking the Reset button creates a new random array for a new start.

**25.17** *(Radix sort animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the radix sort algorithm. Create an array that consists of 20 random numbers from 0 to 1,000. The array elements are displayed, as shown in Figure 25.19. Clicking the Step button causes the program to place a number in a bucket. The number that has just been placed is displayed in red. Once all the numbers are placed in the buckets, clicking the Step button collects all the numbers from the buckets and moves them back to the array. When the algorithm is finished, clicking the Step button displays a dialog box to inform the user. Clicking the Reset button creates a new random array for a new start.

![Figure 25.19](image)

**Figure 25.19** The program animates radix sort.

**25.18** *(Merge animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the merge of two sorted lists. Create two arrays, `list1` and `list2`, each of which consists of 8 random numbers from 1 to 999. The array elements are displayed, as shown in Figure 25.20a. Clicking the Step button causes the program to move an element from `list1` or `list2` to `temp`. Clicking the Reset button creates two new random arrays for a new start. When the algorithm is finished, clicking the Step button displays a dialog box to inform the user.

![Figure 25.20](image)

**Figure 25.20** The program animates a merge of two sorted lists. (b) The program animates a partition for quick sort.
*25.19  *(Quick sort partition animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the partition for a quick sort. The applet creates a list that consists of 20 random numbers from 1 to 999. The list is displayed, as shown in Figure 25.20b. Clicking the *Step* button causes the program to move *low* to the right or *high* to the left, or swap the elements at *low* and *high*. Clicking the *Reset* button creates a new list of random numbers for a new start. When the algorithm is finished, clicking the *Step* button displays a dialog box to inform the user.

*25.20  *(Modify merge sort)* Rewrite the *mergeSort* method to recursively sort the first half of the array and the second half of the array without creating new temporary arrays, and then merge the two into a temporary array and copy its contents to the original array, as shown in Figure 25.4b.
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IMPLEMENTING LISTS, STACKS, QUEUES, AND PRIORITY QUEUES

Objectives

■ To design common features of lists in an interface and provide skeleton implementation in a convenience abstract class (§26.2).
■ To design and implement an array list using an array (§26.3).
■ To design and implement a linked list using a linked structure (§26.4).
■ To design and implement a stack class using an array list and a queue class using a linked list (§26.5).
■ To design and implement a priority queue using a heap (§26.6).
Chapter 26  Implementing Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

26.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on implementing data structures.

Lists, stacks, queues, and priority queues are classic data structures typically covered in a data structures course. They are supported in the Java API, and their uses were presented in Chapter 22, Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues. This chapter will examine how these data structures are implemented under the hood. Implementation of sets and maps is covered in Chapter 28. Through these examples, you will learn how to design and implement custom data structures.

26.2 Common Features for Lists

Common features of lists are defined in the List interface.

A list is a popular data structure for storing data in sequential order—for example, a list of students, a list of available rooms, a list of cities, a list of books. You can perform the following operations on most lists:

- Retrieve an element from the list.
- Insert a new element into the list.
- Delete an element from the list.
- Find out how many elements are in the list.
- Determine whether an element is in the list.
- Check whether the list is empty.

There are two ways to implement a list. One is to use an array to store the elements. Array size is fixed. If the capacity of the array is exceeded, you need to create a new, larger array and copy all the elements from the current array to the new array. The other approach is to use a linked structure. A linked structure consists of nodes. Each node is dynamically created to hold an element. All the nodes are linked together to form a list. Thus you can define two classes for lists. For convenience, let’s name these two classes MyArrayList and MyLinkedList. These two classes have common operations but different implementations.

Design Guide

The common operations can be generalized in an interface or an abstract class. A good strategy is to combine the virtues of interfaces and abstract classes by providing both an interface and a convenience abstract class in the design so that the user can use either of them, whichever is convenient. The abstract class provides a skeletal implementation of the interface, which minimizes the effort required to implement the interface.

Pedagogical Note

For an interactive demo on how array lists and linked lists work, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/ArrayListAnimation.html and www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/LinkedListAnimation.html, as shown in Figure 26.1.

Let us name the interface MyList and the convenience abstract class MyAbstractList. Figure 26.2 shows the relationship of MyList, MyAbstractList, MyArrayList, and MyLinkedList. The methods in MyList and the methods implemented in MyAbstractList are shown in Figure 26.3. Listing 26.1 gives the source code for MyList.
26.2 Common Features for Lists

MyList defines a common interface for MyAbstractList, MyArrayList, and MyLinkedList.

Listing 26.1  MyList.java

```java
public interface MyList<E> extends java.lang.Iterable<E> {
    /** Add a new element at the end of this list */
    public void add(E e);

    /** Add a new element at the specified index in this list */
    public void add(int index, E e);

    /** Clear the list */
    public void clear();

    /** Return true if this list contains the element */
    public boolean contains(E e);

    /** Return the element from this list at the specified index */
    public E get(int index);

    /** Return the index of the first matching element in this list.
     * Return -1 if no match. */
    public int indexOf(E e);

    /** Return true if this list doesn't contain any elements */
    public boolean isEmpty();

    /** Return the index of the last matching element in this list
     * Return -1 if no match. */
    public int lastIndexOf(E e);

    /** Remove the first occurrence of the element e from this list.
     * Shift any subsequent elements to the left.
     * Return true if the element is removed. */
```

Figure 26.1  The animation tool enables you to see how array lists and linked lists work.

Figure 26.2  MyList defines a common interface for MyAbstractList, MyArrayList, and MyLinkedList.
Chapter 26  Implementing Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

```java
public boolean remove(E e); remove(index)
/** Remove the element at the specified position in this list.
 *  Shift any subsequent elements to the left.
 *  Return the element that was removed from the list. */
public E remove(int index);
/** Replace the element at the specified position in this list
 *  with the specified element and return the old element. */
public Object set(int index, E e);
/** Return the number of elements in this list */
public int size();
public boolean remove(E e);
```

MyAbstractList declares variable size to indicate the number of elements in the list. The methods isEmpty, size, add, and remove can be implemented in the class, as shown in Listing 26.2.

```java
MyAbstractList declares variable size to indicate the number of elements in the list. The methods isEmpty, size, add, and remove can be implemented in the class, as shown in Listing 26.2.

```
### Listing 26.2 MyAbstractList.java

```java
public abstract class MyAbstractList<E> implements MyList<E> {
    protected int size = 0; // The size of the list

    /** Create a default list */
    protected MyAbstractList() {
    }

    /** Create a list from an array of objects */
    protected MyAbstractList(E[] objects) {
        for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++)
            add(objects[i]);
    }

    @Override /** Add a new element at the end of this list */
    public void add(E e) {
        add(size, e);
    }

    @Override /** Return true if this list doesn't contain any elements */
    public boolean isEmpty() {
        return size == 0;
    }

    @Override /** Return the number of elements in this list */
    public int size() {
        return size;
    }

    @Override /** Remove the first occurrence of the element e from this list. Shift any subsequent elements to the left. */
    public boolean remove(E e) {
        if (indexOf(e) >= 0) {
            remove(indexOf(e));
            return true;
        } else
            return false;
    }
}
```

The following sections give the implementation for MyArrayList and MyLinkedList, respectively.

**Design Guide**

Protected data fields are rarely used. However, making size a protected data field in the MyAbstractList class is a good choice. The subclass of MyAbstractList can access size, but nonsubclasses of MyAbstractList in different packages cannot access it. As a general rule, you can declare protected data fields in abstract classes.

### 26.1 Suppose list is an instance of MyList, can you get an iterator for list using list.iterator()?

### 26.2 Can you create a list using new MyAbstractList()?

### 26.3 What methods in MyList are overridden in MyAbstractList?

### 26.4 What are the benefits of defining both the MyList interface and the MyAbstractList class?
26.3 Array Lists

An array list is implemented using an array.

An array is a fixed-size data structure. Once an array is created, its size cannot be changed. Nevertheless, you can still use arrays to implement dynamic data structures. The trick is to create a larger new array to replace the current array, if the current array cannot hold new elements in the list.

Initially, an array, say `data` of `E[]` type, is created with a default size. When inserting a new element into the array, first make sure that there is enough room in the array. If not, create a new array twice as large as the current one. Copy the elements from the current array to the new array. The new array now becomes the current array. Before inserting a new element at a specified index, shift all the elements after the index to the right and increase the list size by 1, as shown in Figure 26.4.

Before inserting `e` at insertion point `i`

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & i & i+1 & \cdots & k-1 & k & k+1 \\
e_0 & e_1 & \cdots & e_i & e_{i+1} & \cdots & e_{k-1} & e_k & \\
\end{array}
\]

After inserting `e` at insertion point `i`, list size is incremented by 1

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & i & i+1 & i+2 & \cdots & k & k+1 \\
e_0 & e_1 & \cdots & e_i & e & e_{i+1} & \cdots & e_{k-1} & e_k & \\
\end{array}
\]

**FIGURE 26.4** Inserting a new element into the array requires that all the elements after the insertion point be shifted one position to the right, so that the new element can be inserted at the insertion point.

**Note**

The data array is of type `E[]`. Each cell in the array actually stores the reference of an object.

To remove an element at a specified index, shift all the elements after the index to the left by one position and decrease the list size by 1, as shown in Figure 26.5.

Before deleting the element at index `i`

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & i & i+1 & \cdots & k-1 & k \\
e_0 & e_1 & \cdots & e_i & e_{i+1} & \cdots & e_{k-1} & e_k & \\
\end{array}
\]

After deleting the element, list size is decremented by 1

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & k-2 & k-1 & k \\
e_0 & e_1 & \cdots & e_{i-1} & e_{i+1} & \cdots & e_k & e_k & \\
\end{array}
\]

**FIGURE 26.5** Deleting an element from the array requires that all the elements after the deletion point be shifted one position to the left.

MyArrayList uses an array to implement MyAbstractList, as shown in Figure 26.6. Its implementation is given in Listing 26.3.
26.3 Array Lists

MyAbstractList<E>

MyArrayList<E>

- data: E[]
  + MyArrayList()
  + MyArrayList(objects: E[])
  + trimToSize(): void
  - ensureCapacity(): void
  - checkIndex(index: int): void

Creates a default array list.
Creates an array list from an array of objects.
Trims the capacity of this array list to the list’s current size.
Doubles the current array size if needed.
Throws an exception if the index is out of bounds in the list.

Figure 26.6 MyArrayList implements a list using an array.

LISTING 26.3 MyArrayList.java

```java
public class MyArrayList<E> extends MyAbstractList<E> {

    public static final int INITIAL_CAPACITY = 16;
    private E[] data = (E[]) new Object[INITIAL_CAPACITY];

    /** Create a default list */
    public MyArrayList() {
    }

    /** Create a list from an array of objects */
    public MyArrayList(E[] objects) {
        for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++)
            add(objects[i]); // Warning: don't use super(objects)!
    }

    @Override /** Add a new element at the specified index */
    public void add(int index, E e) {
        ensureCapacity();

        // Move the elements to the right after the specified index
        for (int i = size - 1; i >= index; i--)
            data[i + 1] = data[i];

        // Insert new element to data[index]
        data[index] = e;

        // Increase size by 1
        size++;
    }

    /** Create a new larger array, double the current size + 1 */
    private void ensureCapacity() {
        if (size >= data.length) {
            E[] newData = (E[]) (new Object[size * 2 + 1]);
            System.arraycopy(data, 0, newData, 0, size);
            data = newData;
        }
    }
}
```
```java
39    @Override /** Clear the list */
40    public void clear() {
41      data = (E[]) new Object[INITIAL_CAPACITY];
42      size = 0;
43    }
44
45    @Override /** Return true if this list contains the element */
46    public boolean contains(E e) {
47      for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
48        if (e.equals(data[i])) return true;
49      return false;
50    }
51
52    @Override /** Return the element at the specified index */
53    public E get(int index) {
54      checkIndex(index);
55      return data[index];
56    }
57
58    private void checkIndex(int index) {
59      if (index < 0 || index >= size)
60        throw new IndexOutOfBoundsException(
61            "index " + index + " out of bounds");
62    }
63
64    @Override /** Return the index of the first matching element 
65    * in this list. Return -1 if no match. */
66    public int indexOf(E e) {
67      for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
68        if (e.equals(data[i])) return i;
69      return -1;
70    }
71
72    @Override /** Return the index of the last matching element 
73    * in this list. Return -1 if no match. */
74    public int lastIndexOf(E e) {
75      for (int i = size - 1; i >= 0; i--)
76        if (e.equals(data[i])) return i;
77      return -1;
78    }
79
80    @Override /** Remove the element at the specified position 
81    * in this list. Shift any subsequent elements to the left. 
82    * Return the element that was removed from the list. */
83    public E remove(int index) {
84      checkIndex(index);
85
86      E e = data[index];
87      // Shift data to the left
88      for (int j = index; j < size - 1; j++)
89        data[j] = data[j + 1];
90      data[size - 1] = null; // This element is now null
91      // Decrement size
92      size--;
93    }
```
26.3 Array Lists 935
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return e;
}
@Override /** Replace the element at the specified position
* in this list with the specified element. */
public E set(int index, E e) {
checkIndex(index);
E old = data[index];
data[index] = e;
return old;
}
@Override
public String toString() {
StringBuilder result = new StringBuilder("[");

set

toString

for (int i = 0; i < size; i++) {
result.append(data[i]);
if (i < size - 1) result.append(", ");
}
return result.toString() + "]";
}
/** Trims the capacity to current size */
public void trimToSize() {
if (size != data.length) {
E[] newData = (E[])(new Object[size]);
System.arraycopy(data, 0, newData, 0, size);
data = newData;
} // If size == capacity, no need to trim
}
@Override /** Override iterator() defined in Iterable */
public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator() {
return new ArrayListIterator();
}
private class ArrayListIterator
implements java.util.Iterator<E> {
private int current = 0; // Current index
@Override
public boolean hasNext() {
return (current < size);
}
@Override
public E next() {
return data[current++];
}
@Override
public void remove() {
MyArrayList.this.remove(current);
}
}
}

trimToSize

iterator


The constant `INITIAL_CAPACITY` (line 2) is used to create an initial array `data` (line 3). Owing to generics type erasure, you cannot create a generic array using the syntax `new e[INITIAL_CAPACITY]`. To circumvent this limitation, an array of the `Object` type is created in line 3 and cast into `E[]`.

Note that the implementation of the second constructor in `MyArrayList` is the same as for `MyAbstractList`. Can you replace lines 11–12 with `super(objects)`? See Checkpoint Question 26.8 for answers.

**add**

The `add(int index, E e)` method (lines 16–28) inserts element `e` at the specified `index` in the array. This method first invokes `ensureCapacity()` (line 17), which ensures that there is a space in the array for the new element. It then shifts all the elements after the index one position to the right before inserting the element (lines 20–21). After the element is added, `size` is incremented by 1 (line 27). Note that the variable `size` is defined as `protected` in `MyAbstractList`, so it can be accessed in `MyArrayList`.

**ensureCapacity**

The `ensureCapacity()` method (lines 31–37) checks whether the array is full. If so, the program creates a new array that doubles the current array copies the current array to the new array using the `System.arraycopy` method, and sets the new array as the current array.

**clear**

The `clear()` method (lines 40–43) creates a new array using the size as `INITIAL_CAPACITY` and resets the variable `size` to 0. The class will work if line 41 is deleted. However, the class will have a memory leak, because the elements are still in the array, although they are no longer needed. By creating a new array and assigning it to `data`, the old array and the elements stored in the old array become garbage, which will be automatically collected by the JVM.

**contains**

The `contains(E e)` method (lines 46–51) checks whether element `e` is contained in the array by comparing `e` with each element in the array using the `equals` method.

The `get(int index)` method (lines 54–57) checks if `index` is within the range and returns `data[index]` if `index` is in the range.

**checkIndex**

The `checkIndex(int index)` method (lines 59–63) checks if `index` is within the range. If not, the method throws an `IndexOutOfBoundsException` (line 61).

**indexOf**

The `indexOf(E e)` method (lines 67–72) compares element `e` with the elements in the array, starting from the first one. If a match is found, the index of the element is returned; otherwise, `-1` is returned.

**lastIndexOf**

The `lastIndexOf(E e)` method (lines 76–81) compares element `e` with the elements in the array, starting from the last one. If a match is found, the index of the element is returned; otherwise, `-1` is returned.

**remove**

The `remove(int index)` method (lines 86–101) shifts all the elements after the index one position to the left (lines 92–93) and decrements `size` by 1 (line 98). The last element is not used anymore and is set to `null` (line 95).

**set**

The `set(int index, E e)` method (lines 105–110) simply assigns `e` to `data[index]` to replace the element at the specified index with element `e`.

**toString**

The `toString()` method (lines 113–122) overrides the `toString` method in the `Object` class to return a string representing all the elements in the list.

**trimToSize**

The `trimToSize()` method creates a new array whose size matches the current array-list size (line 127), copies the current array to the new array using the `System.arraycopy` method (line 128), and sets the new array as the current array (line 129). Note that if `size == capacity`, there is no need to trim the size of the array.

**iterator**

The `iterator()` method defined in the `java.lang.Iterable` interface is implemented to return an instance on `java.util.Iterator` (lines 134–136). The `ArrayListIterator` class implements `Iterator` with concrete methods for `hasNext`, `next`, and `remove` (lines 143–155). It uses `current` to denote the current position of the element being traversed (line 140).

Listing 26.4 gives an example that creates a list using `MyArrayList`. It uses the `add` method to add strings to the list and the `remove` method to remove strings. Since
**MyArrayList** implements **Iterable**, the elements can be traversed using a for-each loop (lines 35–36).

**LISTING 26.4** TestMyArrayList.java

```java
public class TestMyArrayList {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a list
        MyList<String> list = new MyArrayList<String>();

        // Add elements to the list
        list.add("America"); // Add it to the list
        System.out.println("(1) " + list);

        list.add(0, "Canada"); // Add it to the beginning of the list
        System.out.println("(2) " + list);

        list.add("Russia"); // Add it to the end of the list
        System.out.println("(3) " + list);

        list.add("France"); // Add it to the end of the list
        System.out.println("(4) " + list);

        list.add(2, "Germany"); // Add it to the list at index 2
        System.out.println("(5) " + list);

        list.add(5, "Norway"); // Add it to the list at index 5
        System.out.println("(6) " + list);

        // Remove elements from the list
        list.remove("Canada"); // Same as list.remove(0) in this case
        System.out.println("(7) " + list);

        list.remove(2); // Remove the element at index 2
        System.out.println("(8) " + list);

        list.remove(list.size() - 1); // Remove the last element
        System.out.println("(9) " + list + "\n(10) ");

        for (String s: list)
            System.out.print(s.toUpperCase() + " ");
    }
}
```

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[America]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[Canada, America]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[Canada, America, Russia]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[Canada, America, Russia, France]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France, Norway]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>[America, Germany, Russia, France, Norway]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>[America, Germany, France, Norway]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>[America, Germany, France]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>AMERICA GERMANY FRANCE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**26.5** What are the limitations of the array data type?

**26.6** **MyArrayList** is implemented using an array, and an array is a fixed-size data structure. Why is **MyArrayList** considered a dynamic data structure?
26.7 Show the length of the array in MyArrayList after each of the following statements is executed.

1 MyArrayList<Double> list = new MyArrayList<Double>();
2 list.add(1.5);
3 list.trimToSize();
4 list.add(3.4);
5 list.add(7.4);
6 list.add(17.4);

26.8 What is wrong if lines 11–12 in Listing 26.3, MyArrayList.java,

for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++)
    add(objects[i]);

are replaced by

super(objects);

or

data = objects;
size = objects.length;

26.9 If you change the code in line 33 in Listing 26.3, MyArrayList.java, from

E[] newData = (E[])(new Object[size * 2 + 1]);

to

E[] newData = (E[])(new Object[size * 2]);

the program is incorrect. Can you find the reason?

26.10 Will the MyArrayList class have memory leak if the following code in line 41 is deleted?

data = (E[])new Object[INITIAL_CAPACITY];

26.4 Linked Lists

A linked list is implemented using a linked structure.

Since MyArrayList is implemented using an array, the methods get(int index) and set(int index, E e) for accessing and modifying an element through an index and the add(E e) method for adding an element at the end of the list are efficient. However, the methods add(int index, E e) and remove(int index) are inefficient, because they require shifting a potentially large number of elements. You can use a linked structure to implement a list to improve efficiency for adding and removing an element at the beginning of a list.

26.4.1 Nodes

In a linked list, each element is contained in an object, called the node. When a new element is added to the list, a node is created to contain it. Each node is linked to its next neighbor, as shown in Figure 26.7.

A node can be created from a class defined as follows:

class Node<E> {
    E element;
We use the variable `head` to refer to the first node in the list, and the variable `tail` to the last node. If the list is empty, both `head` and `tail` are `null`. Here is an example that creates a linked list to hold three nodes. Each node stores a string element.

Step 1: Declare `head` and `tail`.

```java
Node<String> head = null;  // The list is empty now
Node<String> tail = null;
```

`head` and `tail` are both `null`. The list is empty.

Step 2: Create the first node and append it to the list, as shown in Figure 26.8. After the first node is inserted in the list, `head` and `tail` point to this node.

```java
head = new Node<String>("Chicago");
last = head;
```

**Figure 26.8** Append the first node to the list.

Step 3: Create the second node and append it into the list, as shown in Figure 26.9a. To append the second node to the list, link the first node with the new node. The new node is now the tail node, so you should move `tail` to point to this new node, as shown in Figure 26.9b.

```java
tail.next = new Node<String>("Denver");
tail = tail.next;
```

**Figure 26.9** Append the second node to the list.

Step 4: Create the third node and append it to the list, as shown in Figure 26.10a. To append the new node to the list, link the last node in the list with the new node. The

```java
Node next;
```

```java
public Node(E e) {
    element = e;
}
```

(a)

tail = tail.next;

head ---> "Chicago" next ---> "Denver" next ---> "Dallas" next: null

(b)

Figure 26.10 Append the third node to the list.

new node is now the tail node, so you should move tail to point to this new node, as shown in Figure 26.10b.

Each node contains the element and a data field named next that points to the next element. If the node is the last in the list, its pointer data field next contains the value null. You can use this property to detect the last node. For example, you can write the following loop to traverse all the nodes in the list.

```
1  Node current = head;
2   while (current != null) {
3     System.out.println(current.element);
4     current = current.next;
5   }
```

The variable current points initially to the first node in the list (line 1). In the loop, the element of the current node is retrieved (line 3), and then current points to the next node (line 4). The loop continues until the current node is null.

26.4.2 The MyLinkedList Class

The MyLinkedList class uses a linked structure to implement a dynamic list. It extends MyAbstractList. In addition, it provides the methods addFirst, addLast, removeFirst, removeLast, getFirst, and getLast, as shown in Figure 26.11.

Figure 26.11 MyLinkedList implements a list using a linked list of nodes.
Assuming that the class has been implemented, Listing 26.5 gives a test program that uses the class.

**Listing 26.5  TestMyLinkedList.java**

```java
public class TestMyLinkedList {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a list for strings
        MyLinkedList<String> list = new MyLinkedList<String>();
        // Add elements to the list
        list.add("America"); // Add it to the list
        System.out.println("(1) " + list);
        list.add(0, "Canada"); // Add it to the beginning of the list
        System.out.println("(2) " + list);
        list.add("Russia"); // Add it to the end of the list
        System.out.println("(3) " + list);
        list.addLast("France"); // Add it to the end of the list
        System.out.println("(4) " + list);
        list.add(2, "Germany"); // Add it to the list at index 2
        System.out.println("(5) " + list);
        list.add(5, "Norway"); // Add it to the list at index 5
        System.out.println("(6) " + list);
        list.add(0, "Poland"); // Same as list.addFirst("Poland")
        System.out.println("(7) " + list);
        // Remove elements from the list
        list.remove(0); // Same as list.remove("Poland") in this case
        System.out.println("(8) " + list);
        list.remove(2); // Remove the element at index 2
        System.out.println("(9) " + list);
        list.remove(list.size() - 1); // Remove the last element
        System.out.println("(10) " + list + \"\n(11) \");
        for (String s: list)
            System.out.print(s.toUpperCase() + \" ");
    }
```

(1) [America]
(2) [Canada, America]
(3) [Canada, America, Russia]
(4) [Canada, America, Russia, France]
(5) [Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France]
(6) [Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France, Norway]
(7) [Poland, Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France, Norway]
(8) [Canada, America, Germany, Russia, France, Norway]
(9) [Canada, America, Russia, France, Norway]
(10) [Canada, America, Russia, France]
(11) CANADA AMERICA RUSSIA FRANCE
26.4.3 Implementing MyLinkedList

Now let us turn our attention to implementing the MyLinkedList class. We will discuss how to implement the methods addFirst, addLast, add(index, e), removeFirst, removeLast, and remove(index) and leave the other methods in the MyLinkedList class as exercises.

26.4.3.1 Implementing addFirst(e)

The addFirst(e) method creates a new node for holding element e. The new node becomes the first node in the list. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
public void addFirst(E e) {
    // Create a new node
    Node<E> newNode = new Node<E>(e); // Create a new node with e
    newNode.next = head; // link the new node with head
    head = newNode; // head points to the new node
    size++; // Increase list size
    if (tail == null) // The new node is the only node in list
        tail = head;
}
```

The addFirst(e) method creates a new node to store the element (line 2) and inserts the node at the beginning of the list (line 3), as shown in Figure 26.12a. After the insertion, head should point to this new element node (line 4), as shown in Figure 26.12b.

![Figure 26.12 A new element is added to the beginning of the list.](image)

If the list is empty (line 7), both head and tail will point to this new node (line 8). After the node is created, size should be increased by 1 (line 5).

26.4.3.2 Implementing addLast(e)

The addLast(e) method creates a node to hold the element and appends the node at the end of the list. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
public void addLast(E e) {
    // Create a new node
    Node<E> newNode = new Node<E>(e); // Create a new node for e
    newNode.next = null; // The node is inserted last
    tail.next = newNode; // tail points to the new node
    tail = newNode; // Increase list size
    size++; // Increase list size
}
```
The `addLast(e)` method creates a new node to store the element (line 2) and appends it to the end of the list. Consider two cases:

1. If the list is empty (line 4), both `head` and `tail` will point to this new node (line 5);
2. Otherwise, link the node with the last node in the list (line 8). `tail` should now point to this new node (line 9). Figure 26.13a and Figure 26.13b show the new node for element `e` before and after the insertion.

In any case, after the node is created, the size should be increased by 1 (line 12).

![Diagram showing insertion before and after](image)

**Figure 26.13** A new element is added at the end of the list.

### 26.4.3.3 Implementing `add(index, e)`

The `add(index, e)` method inserts an element into the list at the specified index. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
public void add(int index, E e) {
    if (index == 0) addFirst(e); // Insert first
    else if (index >= size) addLast(e); // Insert last
    else { // Insert in the middle
        Node<E> current = head;
        for (int i = 1; i < index; i++)
            current = current.next;
        Node<E> temp = current.next;
        current.next = new Node<E>(e);
        current.next.next = temp;
    }
}
```
There are three cases when inserting an element into the list:

1. If `index` is 0, invoke `addFirst(e)` (line 2) to insert the element at the beginning of the list.

2. If `index` is greater than or equal to `size`, invoke `addLast(e)` (line 3) to insert the element at the end of the list.

3. Otherwise, create a new node to store the new element and locate where to insert it. As shown in Figure 26.14a, the new node is to be inserted between the nodes `current` and `temp`. The method assigns the new node to `current.next` and assigns `temp` to the new node’s `next`, as shown in Figure 26.14b. The size is now increased by 1 (line 11).

![Figure 26.14](image)

**Figure 26.14** A new element is inserted in the middle of the list.

### 26.4.3.4 Implementing `removeFirst()`

The `removeFirst()` method removes the first element from the list. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
public E removeFirst() {
  if (size == 0) return null; // Nothing to delete
  else {
    Node<E> temp = head; // Keep the first node temporarily
    head = head.next; // Move head to point to next node
    size--; // Decrease size by 1
    if (head == null) tail = null; // List becomes empty
    return temp.element; // Return the deleted element
  }
}
```
Consider two cases:

1. If the list is empty, there is nothing to delete, so return `null` (line 2).

2. Otherwise, remove the first node from the list by pointing `head` to the second node.
   Figure 26.15a and Figure 26.15b show the linked list before and after the deletion. The size is reduced by 1 after the deletion (line 6). If the list becomes empty, after removing the element, `tail` should be set to `null` (line 7).

![Diagram of linked list before and after deletion]

**Figure 26.15** The first node is deleted from the list.

### 26.4.3.5 Implementing `removeLast()`

The `removeLast()` method removes the last element from the list. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
    public E removeLast() {
        if (size == 0) return null; // Nothing to remove
        else if (size == 1) {
            Node<E> temp = head;
            head = tail = null; // list becomes empty
            size = 0;
            return temp.element;
        }
        else {
            Node<E> current = head;
            for (int i = 0; i < size - 2; i++)
                current = current.next;
            Node<E> temp = tail;
            tail = current;
            tail.next = null;
            size--;
            return temp.element;
        }
    }
```
Consider three cases:

1. If the list is empty, return null (line 2).

2. If the list contains only one node, this node is destroyed; head and tail both become null (line 5). The size becomes 0 after the deletion (line 6) and the element value of the deleted node is returned (line 7).

3. Otherwise, the last node is destroyed (line 17) and the tail is repositioned to point to the second-to-last node. Figure 26.16a and Figure 26.16b show the last node before and after it is deleted. The size is reduced by 1 after the deletion (line 18) and the element value of the deleted node is returned (line 19).

26.4.3.6 Implementing remove(index)

The remove(index) method finds the node at the specified index and then removes it. It can be implemented as follows:

```java
public E remove(int index) {
    if (index < 0 || index >= size) return null; // Out of range
    else if (index == 0) return removeFirst(); // Remove first
    else if (index == size - 1) return removeLast(); // Remove last
    else {
        Node<E> previous = head;
        for (int i = 1; i < index; i++) {
            previous = previous.next;
        }
        Node<E> current = previous.next;
        previous.next = current.next;
        size--;
        return current.element;
    }
}
```

**Figure 26.16** The last node is deleted from the list.
Consider four cases:

1. If `index` is beyond the range of the list (i.e., `index < 0 || index >= size`), return `null` (line 2).

2. If `index` is `0`, invoke `removeFirst()` to remove the first node (line 3).

3. If `index` is `size - 1`, invoke `removeLast()` to remove the last node (line 4).

4. Otherwise, locate the node at the specified `index`. Let `current` denote this node and `previous` denote the node before this node, as shown in Figure 26.17a. Assign `current.next` to `previous.next` to eliminate the current node, as shown in Figure 26.17b.

![Diagram of node deletion](image)

**Figure 26.17** A node is deleted from the list.

Listing 26.6 gives the implementation of `MyLinkedList`. The implementation of `get(index)`, `indexOf(e)`, `lastIndexOf(e)`, `contains(e)`, and `set(index, e)` is omitted and left as an exercise. The `iterator()` method defined in the `java.lang.Iterable` interface is implemented to return an instance on `java.util.Iterator` (lines 126–128). The `LinkedListIterator` class implements `Iterator` with concrete methods for `hasNext`, `next`, and `remove` (lines 134–149). This implementation uses `current` to point to the current position of the element being traversed (line 132). Initially, `current` points to the head of the list.

**Listing 26.6** MyLinkedList.java

```java
public class MyLinkedList<E> extends MyAbstractList<E> {
    private Node<E> head, tail;

    /** Create a default list */
    public MyLinkedList() {
    }

    /** Create a list from an array of objects */
    public MyLinkedList(E[] objects) {
        super(objects);
    }

    /** Return the head element in the list */
    public E getFirst() {
        if (size == 0) {
            return null;
        }
    }
```
/** Return the head element of the list */
17  
18  if (size == 0) {
19    return null;
20  }
21  
22  /* Return the last element in the list */
23  getLast
24  public E getLast() {
25    if (size == 0) {
26      return null;
27    } else {
28      return tail.element;
29    }
30  }
31  
32  /* Add an element to the beginning of the list */
33  addFirst
34  public void addFirst(E e) {
35    // Implemented in §26.4.3.1, so omitted here
36  }
37  
38  /* Add an element to the end of the list */
39  addLast
40  public void addLast(E e) {
41    // Implemented in §26.4.3.2, so omitted here
42  }
43  
44  @Override /* Add a new element at the specified index
45  * in this list. The index of the head element is 0 */
46  add
47  public void add(int index, E e) {
48    // Implemented in §26.4.3.3, so omitted here
49  }
50  
51  /* Remove the head node and
52  * return the object that is contained in the removed node. */
53  removeFirst
54  public E removeFirst() {
55    // Implemented in §26.4.3.4, so omitted here
56  }
57  
58  /* Remove the last node and
59  * return the object that is contained in the removed node. */
60  removeLast
61  public E removeLast() {
62    // Implemented in §26.4.3.5, so omitted here
63  }
64  
65  @Override /* Remove the element at the specified position in this
66  * list. Return the element that was removed from the list. */
67  remove
68  public E remove(int index) {
69    // Implemented earlier in §26.4.3.6, so omitted here
70  }
71  
72  @Override
73  toString
74  public String toString() {
75    StringBuilder result = new StringBuilder("[");
76    Node<E> current = head;
77    for (int i = 0; i < size; i++) {
78      result.append(current.element);
79      current = current.next;
80      if (current != null) {
81        result.append(", "); // Separate two elements with a comma
82      }
83    }
84    result.append("]");
85    }
```java
    } else { // Insert the closing ] in the string
      result.append("]");  
    }
  }

  return result.toString();
}

@Override /** Clear the list */
public void clear() {
  size = 0;
  head = tail = null;
}

@Override /** Return true if this list contains the element e */
public boolean contains(E e) {
  System.out.println("Implementation left as an exercise");
  return true;
}

@Override /** Return the element at the specified index */
public E get(int index) {
  System.out.println("Implementation left as an exercise");
  return null;
}

@Override /** Return the index of the head matching element */
public int indexOf(E e) {
  System.out.println("Implementation left as an exercise");
  return 0;
}

@Override /** Return the index of the last matching element */
public int lastIndexOf(E e) {
  System.out.println("Implementation left as an exercise");
  return 0;
}

@Override /** Replace the element at the specified position */
public E set(int index, E e) {
  System.out.println("Implementation left as an exercise");
  return null;
}

@Override /** Override iterator() defined in Iterable */
public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator() {
  return new LinkedListIterator();
}

private class LinkedListIterator implements java.util.Iterator<E> {
  private Node<E> current = head; // Current index

  @Override
  public boolean hasNext() {
    return (current != null);
  }

  ... // Remaining code for the LinkedListIterator class...
```
Chapter 26  Implementing Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

TABLE 26.1 Time Complexities for Methods in MyArrayList and MyLinkedList

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>MyArrayList/ArrayList</th>
<th>MyLinkedList/LinkedList</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>add(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add(index: int, e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contains(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get(index: int)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indexOf(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isEmpty()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lastIndexOf(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remove(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remove(index: int)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set(index: int, e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>addFirst(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>removeFirst()</td>
<td>$O(n)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26.6.4  MyArrayList vs. MyLinkedList

Both MyArrayList and MyLinkedList can be used to store a list. MyArrayList is implemented using an array and MyLinkedList is implemented using a linked list. The overhead of MyArrayList is smaller than that of MyLinkedList. However, MyLinkedList is more efficient if you need to insert elements into and delete elements from the beginning of the list. Table 26.1 summarizes the complexity of the methods in MyArrayList and MyLinkedList.
Note that MyArrayList is the same as java.util.ArrayList and MyLinkedList is the same as java.util.LinkedList.

26.4.5 Variations of Linked Lists

The linked list introduced in the preceding sections is known as a singly linked list. It contains a pointer to the list’s first node, and each node contains a pointer to the next node sequentially. Several variations of the linked list are useful in certain applications.

A circular, singly linked list is like a singly linked list, except that the pointer of the last node points back to the first node, as shown in Figure 26.18a. Note that tail is not needed for circular linked lists. head points to the current node in the list. Insertion and deletion take place at the current node. A good application of a circular linked list is in the operating system that serves multiple users in a timesharing fashion. The system picks a user from a circular list and grants a small amount of CPU time, then moves on to the next user in the list.

A doubly linked list contains nodes with two pointers. One points to the next node and the other to the previous node, as shown in Figure 26.18b. These two pointers are conveniently called a forward pointer and a backward pointer. Thus, a doubly linked list can be traversed forward and backward. The java.util.LinkedList class is implemented using a doubly linked list, and it supports traversing of the list forward and backward using the ListIterator.

A circular, doubly linked list is like a doubly linked list, except that the forward pointer of the last node points to the first node and the backward pointer of the first pointer points to the last node, as shown in Figure 26.18c.

The implementations of these linked lists are left as exercises.

26.11 Both MyArrayList and MyLinkedList are used to store a list of objects. Why do we need both types of lists?

26.12 Draw a diagram to show the linked list after each of the following statements is executed.

```java
MyLinkedList<Double> list = new MyLinkedList<Double>();
list.add(1.5);
list.add(6.2);
```
list.add(3.4);
list.add(7.4);
list.remove(1.5);
list.remove(2);

26.13 What is the time complexity of the `addFirst(e)` and `removeFirst()` methods in `MyLinkedList`?

26.14 Suppose you need to store a list of elements. If the number of elements in the program is fixed, what data structure should you use? If the number of elements in the program changes, what data structure should you use?

26.15 If you have to add or delete the elements at the beginning of a list, should you use `MyArrayList` or `MyLinkedList`? If most of the operations on a list involve retrieving an element at a given index, should you use `MyArrayList` or `MyLinkedList`?

26.5 Stacks and Queues

Stacks can be implemented using array lists and queues can be implemented using linked lists.

A stack can be viewed as a special type of list whose elements are accessed, inserted, and deleted only from the end (top), as shown in Figure 10.10. A queue represents a waiting list. It can be viewed as a special type of list whose elements are inserted into the end (tail) of the queue, and are accessed and deleted from the beginning (head), as shown in Figure 26.19.

![Figure 26.19](image)

**Figure 26.19** A queue holds objects in a first-in, first-out fashion.

For an interactive demo on how stacks and queues work, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/StackAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/StackAnimation.html) and [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/QueueAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/QueueAnimation.html), as shown in Figure 26.20.

![Figure 26.20](image)

**Figure 26.20** The animation tool enables you to see how stacks and queues work.
Since the insertion and deletion operations on a stack are made only at the end of the stack, it is more efficient to implement a stack with an array list than with a linked list. Since deletions are made at the beginning of the list, it is more efficient to implement a queue using a linked list than an array list. This section implements a stack class using an array list and a queue class using a linked list.

There are two ways to design the stack and queue classes:

- Using inheritance: You can define a stack class by extending `ArrayList`, and a queue class by extending `LinkedList`, as shown in Figure 26.21a.
- Using composition: You can define an array list as a data field in the stack class, and a linked list as a data field in the queue class, as shown in Figure 26.21b.

![Figure 26.21](image)

**Figure 26.21** GenericStack and GenericQueue may be implemented using inheritance or composition.

Both designs are fine, but using composition is better because it enables you to define a completely new stack class and queue class without inheriting the unnecessary and inappropriate methods from the array list and linked list. The implementation of the stack class using the composition approach was given in Listing 21.1, GenericStack.java. Listing 26.7 implements the GenericQueue class using the composition approach. Figure 26.22 shows the UML of the class.

![Figure 26.22](image)

**Figure 26.22** GenericQueue uses a linked list to provide a first-in, first-out data structure.

**LISTING 26.7** GenericQueue.java

```java
public class GenericQueue<E> {
    private java.util.LinkedList<E> list = new java.util.LinkedList<E>();

    public void enqueue(E e) {
        list.addLast(e);
    }

    public E dequeue() {
        return list.removeFirst();
    }

    public int getSize() {
        return list.size();
    }
}
```
Chapter 26  Implementing Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

```java
@Override
public String toString() {
    return "Queue: " + list.toString();
}
}
```

A linked list is created to store the elements in a queue (lines 2–3). The `enqueue(e)` method (lines 5–7) adds element `e` into the tail of the queue. The `dequeue()` method (lines 9–11) removes an element from the head of the queue and returns the removed element. The `getSize()` method (lines 13–15) returns the number of elements in the queue.

Listing 26.8 gives an example that creates a stack using `GenericStack` and a queue using `GenericQueue`. It uses the `push (enqueue)` method to add strings to the stack (queue) and the `pop (dequeue)` method to remove strings from the stack (queue).

**Listing 26.8  TestStackQueue.java**

```java
public class TestStackQueue {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a stack
        GenericStack<String> stack =
            new GenericStack<String>();

        // Add elements to the stack
        stack.push("Tom"); // Push it to the stack
        System.out.println("(1) " + stack);

        stack.push("Susan"); // Push it to the stack
        System.out.println("(2) " + stack);

        stack.push("Kim"); // Push it to the stack
        stack.push("Michael"); // Push it to the stack
        System.out.println("(3) " + stack);

        // Remove elements from the stack
        System.out.println("(4) " + stack.pop());
        System.out.println("(5) " + stack.pop());
        System.out.println("(6) " + stack);

        // Create a queue
        GenericQueue<String> queue = new GenericQueue<String>();

        // Add elements to the queue
        queue.enqueue("Tom"); // Add it to the queue
        System.out.println("(7) " + queue);

        queue.enqueue("Susan"); // Add it to the queue
        System.out.println("(8) " + queue);

        queue.enqueue("Kim"); // Add it to the queue
        queue.enqueue("Michael"); // Add it to the queue
        System.out.println("(9) " + queue);

        // Remove elements from the queue
        System.out.println("(10) " + queue.dequeue());
        System.out.println("(11) " + queue.dequeue());
        System.out.println("(12) " + queue);
    }
}
```
26.6 Priority Queues

Priority queues can be implemented using heaps.

An ordinary queue is a first-in, first-out data structure. Elements are appended to the end of the queue and removed from the beginning. In a priority queue, elements are assigned with priorities. When accessing elements, the element with the highest priority is removed first. For example, the emergency room in a hospital assigns priority numbers to patients; the patient with the highest priority is treated first.

A priority queue can be implemented using a heap, in which the root is the object with the highest priority in the queue. Heaps were introduced in Section 25.5, Heap Sort. The class diagram for the priority queue is shown in Figure 26.23. Its implementation is given in Listing 26.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MyPriorityQueue &lt;E extends Comparable&lt;E&gt;&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-heap: Heap&lt;E&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+enqueue(element: E): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+dequeue(): E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getSize(): int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adds an element to this queue.
Removes an element from this queue.
Returns the number of elements in this queue.

Figure 26.23 MyPriorityQueue uses a heap to provide a largest-in, first-out data structure.
Chapter 26  Implementing Lists, Stacks, Queues, and Priority Queues

LISTING 26.9  MyPriorityQueue.java

```java
public class MyPriorityQueue<E extends Comparable<E>> {
    private Heap<E> heap = new Heap<E>();

    public void enqueue(E newObject) {
        heap.add(newObject);
    }

    public E dequeue() {
        return heap.remove();
    }

    public int getSize() {
        return heap.getSize();
    }
}
```

Listing 26.10 gives an example of using a priority queue for patients. The `Patient` class is defined in lines 19–37. Four patients are created with associated priority values in lines 3–6. Line 8 creates a priority queue. The patients are enqueued in lines 10–13. Line 16 dequeues a patient from the queue.

LISTING 26.10  TestPriorityQueue.java

```java
public class TestPriorityQueue {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Patient patient1 = new Patient("John", 2);
        Patient patient2 = new Patient("Jim", 1);
        Patient patient3 = new Patient("Tim", 5);
        Patient patient4 = new Patient("Cindy", 7);

        MyPriorityQueue<Patient> priorityQueue = new MyPriorityQueue<Patient>();
        priorityQueue.enqueue(patient1);
        priorityQueue.enqueue(patient2);
        priorityQueue.enqueue(patient3);
        priorityQueue.enqueue(patient4);

        while (priorityQueue.getSize() > 0)
            System.out.print(priorityQueue.dequeue() + " ");
    }
}
```

```java
static class Patient implements Comparable<Patient> {
    private String name;
    private int priority;

    public Patient(String name, int priority) {
        this.name = name;
        this.priority = priority;
    }

    @Override
    public String toString() {
        return name + "(priority:" + priority + ")";
    }

    @Override
    public int compareTo(Patient patient) {
        return priority - patient.priority;
    }
}
```
Java

```java
_progress__

 wijx

 ✓

 ✓

 ✓

 ✓

 35

return this.priority - patient.priority;

36

}

37

}

38

}

Cindy(priority:7) Tim(priority:5) John(priority:2) Jim(priority:1)

26.19 What is a priority queue?
26.20 What are the time complexity of the enqueue, dequeue, and getSize methods in MyPriorityQueue?
26.21 Which of the following statements are wrong?

1. MyPriorityQueue<Object> q1 = new MyPriorityQueue<Object>();
2. MyPriorityQueue<Number> q2 = new MyPriorityQueue<Number>();
3. MyPriorityQueue<Integer> q3 = new MyPriorityQueue<Integer>();
4. MyPriorityQueue<Date> q4 = new MyPriorityQueue<Date>();
5. MyPriorityQueue<String> q5 = new MyPriorityQueue<String>();

Chapter Summary

1. You learned how to implement array lists, linked lists, stacks, and queues.
2. To define a data structure is essentially to define a class. The class for a data structure should use data fields to store data and provide methods to support operations such as insertion and deletion.
3. To create a data structure is to create an instance from the class. You can then apply the methods on the instance to manipulate the data structure, such as inserting an element into the data structure or deleting an element from the data structure.
4. You learned how to implement a priority queue using a heap.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Programming Exercises

26.1 (Add set operations in MyList) Define the following methods in MyList and implement them in MyAbstractList:

```java
/** Adds the elements in otherList to this list.
 * Returns true if this list changed as a result of the call */
public boolean addAll(MyList<E> otherList);

/** Removes all the elements in otherList from this list
 * Returns true if this list changed as a result of the call */
public boolean removeAll(MyList<E> otherList);

/** Retains the elements in this list that are also in otherList
 * Returns true if this list changed as a result of the call */
public boolean retainAll(MyList<E> otherList);
```
Write a test program that creates two MyArrayLists, list1 and list2, with the initial values {"Tom", "George", "Peter", "Jean", "Jane"} and {"Tom", "George", "Michael", "Michelle", "Daniel"}, then perform the following operations:

- Invokes list1.addAll(list2), and displays list1 and list2.
- Recreates list1 and list2 with the same initial values, invokes list1.removeAll(list2), and displays list1 and list2.
- Recreates list1 and list2 with the same initial values, invokes list1.retainAll(list2), and displays list1 and list2.

*26.2 (Implement MyLinkedList) The implementations of the methods contains(E e), get(int index), indexOf(E e), lastIndexOf(E e), and set(int index, E e) are omitted in the text. Implement these methods.

*26.3 (Implement a doubly linked list) The MyLinkedList class used in Listing 26.6 is a one-way directional linked list that enables one-way traversal of the list. Modify the Node class to add the new field name previous to refer to the previous node in the list, as follows:

```java
public class Node<E> {
    E element;
    Node<E> next;
    Node<E> previous;

    public Node(E e) {
        element = e;
    }
}
```

Implement a new class named MyTwoWayLinkedList that uses a doubly linked list to store elements. The MyLinkedList class in the text extends MyAbstractList. Define MyTwoWayLinkedList to extend the java.util.AbstractSequentialList class. You need to implement the methods listIterator() and listIterator(int index). Both return an instance of java.util.ListIterator<E>. The former sets the cursor to the head of the list and the latter to the element at the specified index.

26.4 (Use the GenericStack class) Write a program that displays the first 50 prime numbers in descending order. Use a stack to store the prime numbers.

26.5 (Implement GenericQueue using inheritance) In Section 26.5, Stacks and Queues, GenericQueue is implemented using composition. Define a new queue class that extends java.util.LinkedList.

*26.6 (Generic PriorityQueue using Comparator) Revise MyPriorityQueue in Listing 26.9, using a generic parameter for comparing objects. Define a new constructor with a Comparator as its argument as follows:

```
PriorityQueue(Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```

**26.7 (Animation: linked list) Write an applet to animate search, insertion, and deletion in a linked list, as shown in Figure 26.1b. The Search button searches to determine whether the specified value is in the list. The Delete button deletes the specified value from the list. The Insert button inserts the value into the specified index in the list.
Programming Exercises

*26.8 (Animation: array list) Write an applet to animate search, insertion, and deletion in an array list, as shown in Figure 26.1a. The Search button searches to determine whether the specified value is in the list. The Delete button deletes the specified value from the list. The Insert button inserts the value into the specified index in the list.

*26.9 (Animation: queue) Write an applet to animate the enqueue and dequeue operations on a queue, as shown in Figure 26.20b.

*26.10 (Animation: stack) Write an applet to animate push and pop in a stack, as shown in Figure 26.20a.

*26.11 (Animation: doubly linked list) Write an applet to animate search, insertion, and deletion in a doubly linked list, as shown in Figure 26.24a. The Search button searches to determine whether the specified value is in the list. The Delete button deletes the specified value from the list. The Insert button inserts the value into the specified index in the list. Also add two buttons named Forward Traversal and Backward Traversal for displaying the elements in a message dialog box forward and backward order, respectively, using iterators, as shown in Figure 26.24b.

![Doubly Linked List Animation](image)

**Figure 26.24** The applet animates the work of a doubly linked list.
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Binary Search Trees

Objectives

■ To design and implement a binary search tree (§27.2).
■ To represent binary trees using linked data structures (§27.2.1).
■ To search an element in a binary search tree (§27.2.2).
■ To insert an element into a binary search tree (§27.2.3).
■ To traverse elements in a binary tree (§27.2.4).
■ To design and implement the Tree interface, AbstractTree class, and the BST class (§27.2.5).
■ To delete elements from a binary search tree (§27.3).
■ To display a binary tree graphically (§27.4).
■ To create iterators for traversing a binary tree (§27.5).
■ To implement Huffman coding for compressing data using a binary tree (§27.6).
27.1 Introduction

A tree is a classic data structure with many important applications.

A tree provides a hierarchical organization in which data are stored in the nodes. This chapter introduces binary search trees. You will learn how to construct a binary search tree, how to search an element, insert an element, delete an element, and traverse elements in a binary search tree.

27.2 Binary Search Trees

A binary search tree can be implemented using a linked structure.

Recall that lists, stacks, and queues are linear structures that consist of a sequence of elements. A binary tree is a hierarchical structure. It either is empty or consists of an element, called the root, and two distinct binary trees, called the left subtree and right subtree, either or both of which may be empty. Examples of binary trees are shown in Figure 27.1.

![Binary Tree Diagram](image)

**Figure 27.1** Each node in a binary tree has zero, one, or two subtrees.

The length of a path is the number of the edges in the path. The depth of a node is the length of the path from the root to the node. The set of all nodes at a given depth is sometimes called a level of the tree. Siblings are nodes that share the same parent node. The root of a left (right) subtree of a node is called a left (right) child of the node. A node without children is called a leaf. The height of an empty tree is 0. The height of a nonempty tree is the length of the path from the root node to its furthest leaf + 1. Consider the tree in Figure 27.1a. The length of the path from node 60 to 45 is 2. The depth of node 60 is 0, the depth of node 55 is 1, and the depth of node 45 is 2. The height of the tree is 3. Nodes 45 and 57 are siblings. Nodes 45, 57, 67, and 107 are at the same level.

A special type of binary tree called a binary search tree (BST) is often useful. A BST (with no duplicate elements) has the property that for every node in the tree, the value of any node in its left subtree is less than the value of the node, and the value of any node in its right subtree is greater than the value of the node. The binary trees in Figure 27.1 are all BSTs.

Pedagogical Note

For an interactive GUI demo to see how a BST works, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/BSTAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/BSTAnimation.html), as shown in Figure 27.2.
27.2.1 Representing Binary Search Trees

A binary tree can be represented using a set of linked nodes. Each node contains a value and two links named left and right that reference the left child and right child, respectively, as shown in Figure 27.3.

A node can be defined as a class, as follows:

```java
class TreeNode<E> {
    protected E element;
    protected TreeNode<E> left;
    protected TreeNode<E> right;

    public TreeNode(E e) {
        element = e;
    }
}
```

The variable root refers to the root node of the tree. If the tree is empty, root is null. The following code creates the first three nodes of the tree in Figure 27.3.

```java
// Create the root node
TreeNode<Integer> root = new TreeNode<Integer>(new Integer(60));
```
27.2.2 Searching for an Element

To search for an element in the BST, you start from the root and scan down from it until a match is found or you arrive at an empty subtree. The algorithm is described in Listing 27.1. Let current point to the root (line 2). Repeat the following steps until current is null (line 4) or the element matches current.element (line 12).

- If element is less than current.element, assign current.left to current (line 6).
- If element is greater than current.element, assign current.right to current (line 9).
- If element is equal to current.element, return true (line 12).

If current is null, the subtree is empty and the element is not in the tree (line 14).

LISTING 27.1 Searching for an Element in a BST

```java
public boolean search(E element) {
    TreeNode<E> current = root; // Start from the root
    while (current != null) {
        if (element < current.element) {
            current = current.left; // Go left
        } else if (element > current.element) {
            current = current.right; // Go right
        } else { // Element matches current.element
            return true; // Element is found
        }
    }
    return false; // Element is not in the tree
}
```

27.2.3 Inserting an Element into a BST

To insert an element into a BST, you need to locate where to insert it in the tree. The key idea is to locate the parent for the new node. Listing 27.2 gives the algorithm.

LISTING 27.2 Inserting an Element into a BST

```java
boolean insert(E e) {
    if (tree is empty) {
        // Create the node for e as the root;
    } else {
        // Locate the parent node
        parent = current = root;
        while (current != null) {
            if (e < the value in current.element) {
                parent = current; // Keep the parent
                current = current.left; // Go left
            } else if (e > the value in current.element) {
                parent = current; // Keep the parent
                current = current.right; // Go right
            }
        }
        // If the element is not in the tree, the current is null,
        // so create the new node and link parent to it
        if (current == null) {
            TreeNode<E> newNode = new TreeNode<>(e);
            if (element < current.element) {
                parent = current.left = newNode;
            } else {
                parent = current.right = newNode;
            }
        }
    }
    return true; // Element is inserted
}
```
current = current.right; // Go right
}
else
    return false; // Duplicate node not inserted

// Create a new node for e and attach it to parent
return true; // Element inserted
}

If the tree is empty, create a root node with the new element (lines 2–3). Otherwise, locate the
parent node for the new element node (lines 6–17). Create a new node for the element and link
this node to its parent node. If the new element is less than the parent element, the node for the
new element will be the left child of the parent. If the new element is greater than the parent
element, the node for the new element will be the right child of the parent.

For example, to insert 101 into the tree in Figure 27.3, after the while loop finishes in the
algorithm, parent points to the node for 107, as shown in Figure 27.4a. The new node for
101 becomes the left child of the parent. To insert 59 into the tree, after the while loop
finishes in the algorithm, the parent points to the node for 57, as shown in Figure 27.4b. The new
node for 59 becomes the right child of the parent.

**Figure 27.4** Two new elements are inserted into the tree.

### 27.2.4 Tree Traversal

Tree traversal is the process of visiting each node in the tree exactly once. There are several
ways to traverse a tree. This section presents **inorder**, **postorder**, **preorder**, **depth-first**, and
**breadth-first** traversals.

With **inorder traversal**, the left subtree of the current node is visited first recursively, then
the current node, and finally the right subtree of the current node recursively. The inorder tra-
versal displays all the nodes in a BST in increasing order.

With **postorder traversal**, the left subtree of the current node is visited recursively first,
then recursively the right subtree of the current node, and finally the current node itself. An
application of postorder is to find the size of the directory in a file system. As shown in Figure
27.5, each directory is an internal node and a file is a leaf node. You can apply postorder to get
the size of each file and subdirectory before finding the size of the root directory.

With **preorder traversal**, the current node is visited first, then recursively the left subtree of
the current node, and finally the right subtree of the current node recursively. Depth-first traversal is
the same as preorder traversal. An application of preorder is to print a structured document. As
shown in Figure 27.6, you can print a book’s table of contents using preorder traversal.
Chapter 27 Binary Search Trees

**Note**
You can reconstruct a binary search tree by inserting the elements in their preorder. The reconstructed tree preserves the parent and child relationship for the nodes in the original binary search tree.

With breadth-first traversal, the nodes are visited level by level. First the root is visited, then all the children of the root from left to right, then the grandchildren of the root from left to right, and so on.

For example, in the tree in Figure 27.4b, the inorder is

\[45 \ 55 \ 57 \ 59 \ 60 \ 67 \ 100 \ 101 \ 107\]

The postorder is

\[45 \ 59 \ 57 \ 55 \ 67 \ 101 \ 107 \ 100 \ 60 \]

The preorder is

\[60 \ 55 \ 45 \ 57 \ 59 \ 100 \ 67 \ 107 \ 101\]

The breadth-first traversal is

\[60 \ 55 \ 100 \ 45 \ 57 \ 67 \ 107 \ 59 \ 101\]

You can use the following tree to help remember inorder, postorder, and preorder.

The inorder is \[1 \ + \ 2\], the postorder is \[1 \ 2 \ +\], and the preorder is \(+ \ 1 \ 2\).
27.2.5 The **BST** Class

Following the design pattern of the Java Collections Framework API, we use an interface named **Tree** to define all common operations for trees and provide an abstract class named **AbstractTree** that partially implements **Tree**, as shown in Figure 27.7. A concrete **BST** class can be defined to extend **AbstractTree**, as shown in Figure 27.8.

![Diagram of BST class structure]

**FIGURE 27.7** The **Tree** interface defines common operations for trees, and the **AbstractTree** class partially implements **Tree**.

![Diagram of BST class structure]

**FIGURE 27.8** The **BST** class defines a concrete BST.
Listings 27.3, 27.4, and 27.5 give the implementations for `Tree`, `AbstractTree`, and `BST`.

**LISTING 27.3**  Tree.java

```java
public interface Tree<E extends Comparable<E>> extends Iterable<E> {
    /** Return true if the element is in the tree */
    public boolean search(E e);

    /** Insert element e into the binary search tree. * Return true if the element is inserted successfully. */
    public boolean insert(E e);

    /** Delete the specified element from the tree. * Return true if the element is deleted successfully. */
    public boolean delete(E e);

    /** Inorder traversal from the root*/
    public void inorder();

    /** Postorder traversal from the root */
    public void postorder();

    /** Preorder traversal from the root */
    public void preorder();

    /** Get the number of nodes in the tree */
    public int getSize();

    /** Return true if the tree is empty */
    public boolean isEmpty();

    /** Return an iterator to traverse elements in the tree */
    public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator();
}
```

**LISTING 27.4** AbstractTree.java

```java
public abstract class AbstractTree<E extends Comparable<E>> extends Iterable<E> {
    implements Tree<E> {
        @Override /** Inorder traversal from the root*/
        public void inorder() {
        }

        @Override /** Postorder traversal from the root */
        public void postorder() {
        }

        @Override /** Preorder traversal from the root */
        public void preorder() {
        }

        @Override /** Return true if the tree is empty */
        public boolean isEmpty() {
            return getSize() == 0;
        }

        @Override /** Return an iterator for the tree */
        public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator() {
            return null;
        }
    }
```
```java
public class BST<E extends Comparable<E>> {
    extends AbstractTree<E> {
        protected TreeNode<E> root;
        protected int size = 0;

        /** Create a default binary search tree */
        public BST() {
            }

        /** Create a binary search tree from an array of objects */
        public BST(E[] objects) {
            for (int i = 0; i < objects.length; i++)
                insert(objects[i]);
        }

        @Override /** Return true if the element is in the tree */
        public boolean search(E e) {
            TreeNode<E> current = root; // Start from the root
            while (current != null) {
                if (e.compareTo(current.element) < 0) {
                    current = current.left;
                } else if (e.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
                    current = current.right;
                } else // element matches current.element
                    return true; // Element is found
            }
            return false;
        }

        @Override /** Insert element e into the binary search tree.
        * Return true if the element is inserted successfully. */
        public boolean insert(E e) {
            if (root == null)
                root = createNewNode(e); // Create a new root
            else {
                // Locate the parent node
                TreeNode<E> parent = null;
                TreeNode<E> current = root;
                while (current != null)
                    if (e.compareTo(current.element) < 0) {
                        parent = current;
                        current = current.left;
                    } else if (e.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
                        parent = current;
                        current = current.right;
                    } else // Duplicate node not inserted
                    return false; // Duplicate node not inserted
                // Create the new node and attach it to the parent node
                if (e.compareTo(parent.element) < 0)
                    parent.left = createNewNode(e);
                else
```
Chapter 27 Binary Search Trees

```java
protected TreeNode<E> createNewNode(E e) {
    return new TreeNode<E>(e);
}

@Override /** Inorder traversal from the root*/
public void inorder() {
    inorder(root);
}

/** Inorder traversal from a subtree */
protected void inorder(TreeNode<E> root) {
    if (root == null) return;
    inorder(root.left);
    System.out.print(root.element + " ");
    inorder(root.right);
}

@Override /** Postorder traversal from the root */
public void postorder() {
    postorder(root);
}

/** Postorder traversal from a subtree */
protected void postorder(TreeNode<E> root) {
    if (root == null) return;
    postorder(root.left);
    postorder(root.right);
    System.out.print(root.element + " ");
}

@Override /** Preorder traversal from the root */
public void preorder() {
    preorder(root);
}

/** Preorder traversal from a subtree */
protected void preorder(TreeNode<E> root) {
    if (root == null) return;
    System.out.print(root.element + " ");
    preorder(root.left);
    preorder(root.right);
}

/** This inner class is static, because it does not access any instance members defined in its outer class */
public static class TreeNode<E extends Comparable<E>> {
    protected E element;
    protected TreeNode<E> left;
    protected TreeNode<E> right;
	node = e;
}
```
@Override /** Get the number of nodes in the tree */
public int getSize() {
    return size;
}

/** Returns the root of the tree */
public TreeNode<E> getRoot() {
    return root;
}

/** Returns a path from the root leading to the specified element */
public java.util.ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path(E e) {
    java.util.ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> list = new java.util.ArrayList<TreeNode<E>>();
    TreeNode<E> current = root; // Start from the root
    while (current != null) {
        list.add(current); // Add the node to the list
        if (e.compareTo(current.element) < 0) {
            current = current.left;
        } else if (e.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
            current = current.right;
        } else
            break;
    }
    return list; // Return an array of nodes
}

@Override /** Delete an element from the binary search tree. *
* Return true if the element is deleted successfully. *
* Return false if the element is not in the tree. */
public boolean delete(E e) {
    TreeNode<E> parent = null;
    TreeNode<E> current = root;
    while (current != null) {
        if (e.compareTo(current.element) < 0) {
            parent = current;
            current = current.left;
        } else if (e.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
            parent = current;
            current = current.right;
        } else
            break; // Element is in the tree pointed at by current
    }
    if (current == null)
        return false; // Element is not in the tree

    // Case 1: current has no left children
    if (current.left == null) {
        // Connect the parent with the right child of the current node
        if (parent == null) {
Chapter 27  Binary Search Trees

```
179          root = current.right;
180        }
181    
reconnect parent
182    else {
183        if (e.compareTo(parent.element) < 0)
184            parent.left = current.right;
185    else
186                parent.right = current.right;
187    }
188
reconnect parent
189    }
190    
191    
else
192  // Case 2: The current node has a left child.
193  // Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of
194  // the current node and also its parent.
195  TreeNode<E> parentOfRightMost = current;
196  TreeNode<E> rightMost = current.left;
197  
while (rightMost.right != null) {
198          parentOfRightMost = rightMost;
199          rightMost = rightMost.right; // Keep going to the right
200      }
201  
202  // Replace the element in current by the element in rightMost
203  current.element = rightMost.element;
204  
reconnect parent
205  // Eliminate rightmost node
206  if (parentOfRightMost.right == rightMost)
207        parentOfRightMost.right = rightMost.left;
208  else
209    // Special case: parentOfRightMost == current
210        parentOfRightMost.left = rightMost.left;
211    }
212  
reduce size
213  size--;  
successful deletion
214  return true;  // Element deleted
215    }
216    
@Override /** Obtain an iterator. Use inorder. */
217    public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator() {
218        return new InorderIterator();
219      }
220    
private class InorderIterator implements java.util.Iterator<E> {
221      // Inner class InorderIterator
222      // Store the elements in a list
223      private java.util.ArrayList<E> list =
224        new java.util.ArrayList<E>();
225      private int current = 0;  // Point to the current element in list
226      
227      public InorderIterator() {
228        inorder();  // Traverse binary tree and store elements in list
229      }
230      
obtain inorder list
231      /** Inorder traversal from the root*/
232      private void inorder() {
233        inorder(root);
234      }
235      
236      /** Inorder traversal from a subtree */
```
The `insert(E e)` method (lines 36–64) creates a node for element `e` and inserts it into the tree. If the tree is empty, the node becomes the root. Otherwise, the method finds an appropriate parent for the node to maintain the order of the tree. If the element is already in the tree, the method returns `false`; otherwise it returns `true`.

The `inorder()` method (lines 71–81) invokes `inorder(root)` to traverse the entire tree. The method `inorder(TreeNode<E> root)` traverses the tree with the specified root. This is a recursive method. It recursively traverses the left subtree, then the root, and finally the right subtree. The traversal ends when the tree is empty.

The implementation of `delete()` and `iterator()` (lines 155–269) will be discussed in Sections 27.3 and 27.5.

Listing 27.6 gives an example that creates a binary search tree using `BST` (line 4). The program adds strings into the tree (lines 5–11), traverses the tree in inorder, postorder, and preorder (lines 14–20), searches for an element (line 24), and obtains a path from the node containing `Peter` to the root (lines 28–31).
LISTING 27.6 TestBST.java

1 public class TestBST {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         // Create a BST
4         BST<String> tree = new BST<String>();
5         tree.insert("George");
6         tree.insert("Michael");
7         tree.insert("Tom");
8         tree.insert("Adam");
9         tree.insert("Jones");
10        tree.insert("Peter");
11        tree.insert("Daniel");
12
13        // Traverse tree
14        System.out.print("Inorder (sorted): ");
15        tree.inorder();
16        System.out.print("\nPostorder: ");
17        tree.postorder();
18        System.out.print("\nPreorder: ");
19        tree.preorder();
20        System.out.print("\nThe number of nodes is "+ tree.getSize());
21
22        // Search for an element
23        System.out.print("\nIs Peter in the tree? "+
24            tree.search("Peter"));
25
26        // Get a path from the root to Peter
27        System.out.print("\nA path from the root to Peter is: ");
28        java.util.ArrayList<BST.TreeNode<String>> path
29            = tree.path("Peter");
30        for (int i = 0; path != null && i < path.size(); i++)
31            System.out.print(path.get(i).element + ");
32
33        Integer[] numbers = {2, 4, 3, 1, 8, 5, 6, 7};
34        BST<Integer> intTree = new BST<Integer>(numbers);
35        System.out.print("\nInorder (sorted): ");
36        intTree.inorder();
37    }
38 }

Inorder (sorted): Adam Daniel George Jones Michael Peter Tom
Postorder: Daniel Adam Jones Peter Tom Michael George
Preorder: George Adam Daniel Michael Jones Tom Peter
The number of nodes is 7
Is Peter in the tree? true
A path from the root to Peter is: George Michael Tom Peter
Inorder (sorted): 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

The program checks path != null in line 30 to ensure that the path is not null before invoking path.get(i). This is an example of defensive programming to avoid potential runtime errors.

The program creates another tree for storing int values (line 34). After all the elements are inserted in the trees, the trees should appear as shown in Figure 27.9.

If the elements are inserted in a different order (e.g., Daniel, Adam, Jones, Peter, Tom, Michael, George), the tree will look different. However, the inorder traversal prints elements in the same order as long as the set of elements is the same. The inorder traversal displays a sorted list.
27.3 Deleting Elements from a BST

To delete an element from a BST, first locate it in the tree and then consider two cases—whether or not the node has a left child—before deleting the element and reconnecting the tree.

The `insert(element)` method was presented in Section 27.2.3. Often you need to delete an element from a binary search tree. Doing so is far more complex than adding an element into a binary search tree.

To delete an element from a binary search tree, you need to first locate the node that contains the element and also its parent node. Let `current` point to the node that contains the element in the binary search tree and `parent` point to the parent of the `current` node. The `current` node may be a left child or a right child of the `parent` node. There are two cases to consider.

**Case 1:** The current node does not have a left child, as shown in Figure 27.10a. In this case, simply connect the parent with the right child of the current node, as shown in Figure 27.10b.

For example, to delete node 10 in Figure 27.11a, you would connect the parent of node 10 with the right child of node 10, as shown in Figure 27.11b.
**Chapter 27 Binary Search Trees**

### delete a leaf

**Figure 27.10** Case 1: The current node has no left child.

**Figure 27.11** Case 1: Deleting node 10 from (a) results in (b).

**Note**

If the current node is a leaf, it falls into Case 1. For example, to delete element 16 in Figure 27.11a, connect its right child (in this case, it is null) to the parent of node 16. In this case, the right child of node 16 is null.

**Case 2:** The current node has a left child. Let rightMost point to the node that contains the largest element in the left subtree of the current node and parentOfRightMost point to the parent node of the rightMost node, as shown in Figure 27.12a. Note that the rightMost node cannot have a right child but may have a left child. Replace the element value in the current node with the one in the rightMost node, connect the parentOfRightMost node with the left child of the rightMost node, and delete the rightMost node, as shown in Figure 27.12b.

For example, consider deleting node 20 in Figure 27.13a. The rightMost node has the element value 16. Replace the element value 20 with 16 in the current node and make node 10 the parent for node 14, as shown in Figure 27.13b.

**Note**

If the left child of current does not have a right child, current.left points to the large element in the left subtree of current. In this case, rightMost is current.left and parentOfRightMost is current. You have to take care of this special case to reconnect the right child of rightMost with parentOfRightMost.
27.3 Deleting Elements from a BST

FIGURE 27.12 Case 2: The current node has a left child.

FIGURE 27.13 Case 2: Deleting node 20 from (a) results in (b).

The algorithm for deleting an element from a binary search tree can be described in Listing 27.7.

LISTING 27.7 Deleting an Element from a BST

```
1    boolean delete(E e) {
2        Locate element e in the tree;
3        if element e is not found
4            not in the tree
```
locate parent
Case 1
9  if (current has no left child) // Case 1
10    Connect the right child of
11      current with parent; now current is not referenced, so
12      it is eliminated;
Case 2
13  else // Case 2
14    Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of current.
15    Copy the element value in the rightmost node to current.
16    Connect the parent of the rightmost node to the left child
17      of rightmost node;
18  return true; // Element deleted
20 }

The complete implementation of the delete method is given in lines 155–213 in Listing 27.5. The method locates the node (named current) to be deleted and also locates its parent (named parent) in lines 157–170. If current is null, the element is not in the tree. Therefore, the method returns false (line 173). Please note that if current is root, parent is null. If the tree is empty, both current and parent are null.

Case 1 of the algorithm is covered in lines 176–187. In this case, the current node has no left child (i.e., current.left == null). If parent is null, assign current.right to root (lines 178–180). Otherwise, assign current.right to either parent.left or parent.right, depending on whether current is a left or right child of parent (182–185).

Case 2 of the algorithm is covered in lines 188–209. In this case, current has a left child. The algorithm locates the rightmost node (named rightMost) in the left subtree of the current node and also its parent (named parentOfRightMost) (lines 195–198). Replace the element in current by the element in rightMost (line 201); assign rightMost.left to either parentOfRightMost.right or parentOfRightMost.left (lines 204–208), depending on whether rightMost is a right or left child of parentOfRightMost.

Listing 27.8 gives a test program that deletes the elements from the binary search tree.

**LISTING 27.8  TestBSTDelete.java**

```java
public class TestBSTDelete {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    BST<String> tree = new BST<String>();
    tree.insert("George");
    tree.insert("Michael");
    tree.insert("Tom");
    tree.insert("Adam");
    tree.insert("Jones");
    tree.insert("Peter");
    tree.insert("Daniel");
    printTree(tree);
    System.out.println("\nAfter delete George:");
    tree.delete("George");
    printTree(tree);
    System.out.println("\nAfter delete Adam:");
    tree.delete("Adam");
    printTree(tree);
    System.out.println("\nAfter delete Michael:");
    tree.delete("Michael");
```
27.3 Deleting Elements from a BST

```java
public static void printTree(BST tree) {
    // Traverse tree
    System.out.print("Inorder (sorted): ");
    tree.inorder();
    System.out.print("Postorder: ");
    tree.postorder();
    System.out.print("Preorder: ");
    tree.preorder();
    System.out.print("The number of nodes is " + tree.getSize());
    System.out.println();
}
```

Inorder (sorted): Adam Daniel George Jones Michael Peter Tom
Postorder: Daniel Adam Jones Peter Tom Michael George
Preorder: George Adam Daniel Michael Jones Tom Peter
The number of nodes is 7

After delete George:
Inorder (sorted): Adam Daniel Jones Michael Peter Tom
Postorder: Adam Jones Peter Tom Michael Daniel
Preorder: Daniel Adam Michael Jones Tom Peter
The number of nodes is 6

After delete Adam:
Inorder (sorted): Daniel Jones Michael Peter Tom
Postorder: Jones Peter Tom Michael Daniel
Preorder: Daniel Michael Jones Tom Peter
The number of nodes is 5

After delete Michael:
Inorder (sorted): Daniel Jones Peter Tom
Postorder: Peter Tom Jones Daniel
Preorder: Daniel Jones Tom Peter
The number of nodes is 4

Figures 27.14–27.16 show how the tree evolves as the elements are deleted from it.

![Deleting George](image1)
![After George is deleted](image2)

**Figure 27.14** Deleting George falls into Case 2.
FIGURE 27.15 Deleting Adam falls into Case 1.

FIGURE 27.16 Deleting Michael falls into Case 2.

Note
It is obvious that the time complexity for the inorder, preorder, and postorder is $O(n)$, since each node is traversed only once. The time complexity for search, insertion, and deletion is the height of the tree. In the worst case, the height of the tree is $O(n)$. If a tree is well-balanced, the height would be $O(\log n)$. We will introduce well-balanced binary trees in Chapter 29 and bonus Chapters 47 and 48.

27.5 Show the result of deleting 55 from the tree in Figure 27.4b.
27.6 Show the result of deleting 60 from the tree in Figure 27.4b.
27.7 What is the time complexity of deleting an element from a BST?
27.8 Is the algorithm correct if lines 204–208 in Listing 27.5 in Case 2 of the delete() method are replaced by the following code?

```java
parentOfRightMost.right = rightMost.left;
```
27.4 Tree Visualization

You can use recursion to display a binary tree.

**Pedagogical Note**
One challenge facing the data-structure course is to motivate students. Displaying a binary tree graphically will not only help you understand the working of a binary tree but perhaps also stimulate your interest in programming. You can apply visualization techniques to other projects.

How do you display a binary tree? It is a recursive structure, so you can display a binary tree using recursion. You can simply display the root, then display the two subtrees recursively. The techniques for displaying the Sierpinski triangle (Listing 20.9, SierpinskiTriangle.java) can be applied to displaying a binary tree. For simplicity, we assume the keys are positive integers less than 100. Listings 27.9 and 27.10 give the program, and Figure 27.17 shows some sample runs of the program.

![Figure 27.17](image)

(a) Inserting 50, 25, 35, 30, and 60
(b) After 50 is deleted

**Listing 27.9 DisplayBST.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class DisplayBST extends JApplet {

    public DisplayBST() {
        add(new TreeControl(new BST<Integer>()));
    }
}
```

**Listing 27.10 TreeControl.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TreeControl extends JPanel {

    private BST<Integer> tree; // A binary tree to be displayed
    private JTextField jtfKey = new JTextField(5);
    private TreeView view = new TreeView();
    private JButton jbtInsert = new JButton("Insert");
    private JButton jbtDelete = new JButton("Delete");
    
    // create a view
    main method omitted
    
    // paint tree
```
```java
/** Construct a view for a binary tree */
public TreeControl(BST<Integer> tree) {
    this.tree = tree; // Set a binary tree to be displayed
    setUI();
}

/** Initialize UI for binary tree */
private void setUI() {
    this.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    add(view, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    JPanel panel = new JPanel();
    panel.add(new JLabel("Enter a key: ");
    panel.add(jtfKey);
    panel.add(jbtInsert);
    panel.add(jbtDelete);
    add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
}

@Override // Process the Insert button event
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    int key = Integer.parseInt(jtfKey.getText());
    if (tree.search(key)) { // key is in the tree already
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, key + " is already in the tree");
    } else {
        tree.insert(key); // Insert a new key
        view.repaint(); // Repaint the tree
    }
}

@Override // Process the Delete button event
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    int key = Integer.parseInt(jtfKey.getText());
    if (!tree.search(key)) { // key is not in the tree
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, key + " is not in the tree");
    } else {
        tree.delete(key); // Delete a key
        view.repaint(); // Repaint the tree
    }
}

class TreeView extends JPanel {
    private int radius = 20; // Tree node radius
    private int vGap = 50; // Gap between two levels in a tree

    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        if (tree.getRoot() != null) {
            displayTree(g, tree.getRoot(), getWidth() / 2, 30,
```
```java
/** Display a subtree rooted at position (x, y) */
private void displayTree(Graphics g, 
        BST.TreeNode<Integer> root, int x, int y, int hGap) {
    // Display the root
    g.drawString(root.element + "", x - 6, y + 4);
    if (root.left != null) {
        // Draw a line to the left node
        connectTwoCircles(g, x + hGap, y + vGap, x, y);
        // Draw the left subtree recursively
        displayTree(g, root.left, x - hGap, y + vGap, hGap / 2);
    }
    if (root.right != null) {
        // Draw a line to the right node
        connectTwoCircles(g, x + hGap, y + vGap, x, y);
        // Draw the right subtree recursively
        displayTree(g, root.right, x + hGap, y + vGap, hGap / 2);
    }
}
/** Connect two circles centered at (x1, y1) and (x2, y2) */
private void connectTwoCircles(Graphics g,
        int x1, int y1, int x2, int y2) {
    double d = Math.sqrt(vGap * vGap + (x2 - x1) * (x2 - x1));
    int x11 = (int)((x1 - radius * (x1 - x2) / d);
    int y11 = (int)((y1 - radius * (y1 - y2) / d);
    int x21 = (int)((x2 + radius * (x1 - x2) / d);
    int y21 = (int)((y2 + radius * (y1 - y2) / d);
    g.drawLine(x11, y11, x21, y21);
}
```

After a new key is inserted into the tree (line 38), the tree is repainted (line 39) to reflect the change. After a key is deleted (line 53), the tree is repainted (line 54) to reflect the change.

The node is displayed as a circle with radius 20 (line 62). The distance between two levels in the tree is defined in vGap 50 (line 63). hGap (line 77) defines the distance between two nodes horizontally. This value is reduced by half(hGap / 2) in the next level when the displayTree method is called recursively (lines 87, 94). Note that vGap is not changed in the tree.

Invoking connectTwoCircles connects a parent with a left or right child. You need to find the two endpoints (x11, y11) and (x21, y21) in order to connect the two nodes, as shown in Figure 27.18. The mathematical calculation for finding the two ends is illustrated in Figure 27.18. Note that

\[
    d = \sqrt{vGap^2 + (x_2 - x_1)^2}
\]

\[
    \frac{x_{11} - x_1}{radius} = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{d}, \text{ so } x_{11} = x_1 + radius \times \frac{x_2 - x_1}{d},
\]

\[
    \frac{y_{11} - y_1}{radius} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{d}, \text{ so } y_{11} = y_1 + radius \times \frac{y_2 - y_1}{d}
\]
The program assumes that the keys are integers. You can easily modify the program with a generic type to display keys of characters or short strings.

27.9 How many times will the displayTree method be invoked if the tree is empty? How many times will the displayTree method be invoked if the tree has 100 nodes?

27.10 In what order are the nodes in the tree visited by the displayTree method: inorder, preorder, or postorder?

27.5 Iterators

BST is iterable because it is defined as a subtype of the java.lang.Iterable interface.

The methods inorder(), preorder(), and postorder() display the elements in inorder, preorder, and postorder in a binary tree. These methods are limited to displaying the elements in a tree. If you wish to process the elements in a binary tree rather than display them, these methods cannot be used. Recall that an iterator is provided for traversing the elements in a set or list. You can apply the same approach in a binary tree to provide a uniform way of traversing the elements in a binary tree.

The java.lang.Iterable interface defines the iterator method, which returns an instance of the java.util.Iterator interface. The java.util.Iterator interface (see Figure 27.19) defines the common features of iterators.

```
+hasNext(): boolean
+next(): Object
+remove(): void
```

Returns true if the iterator has more elements.
Returns the next element in the iterator.
Removes from the underlying container the last element returned by the iterator (optional operation).

Figure 27.19 The Iterator interface defines a uniform way of traversing the elements in a container.

The Tree interface extends java.lang.Iterable. Since BST is a subclass of AbstractTree and AbstractTree implements Tree, BST is a subtype of Iterable. The Iterable interface contains the iterator() method that returns an instance of java.util.Iterator.
You can traverse a binary tree in inorder, preorder, or postorder. Since inorder is used frequently, we will use inorder for traversing the elements in a binary tree. We define an iterator class named `InorderIterator` to implement the `java.util.Iterator` interface in Listing 27.5 (lines 221–263). The `iterator` method simply returns an instance of `InorderIterator` (line 217).

The `InorderIterator` constructor invokes the `inorder` method (line 228). The `inorder(root)` method (lines 237–242) stores all the elements from the tree in `list`. The elements are traversed in `inorder`.

Once an `Iterator` object is created, its `current` value is initialized to `0` (line 225), which points to the first element in the list. Invoking the `next()` method returns the current element and moves `current` to point to the next element in the list (line 253).

The `hasNext()` method checks whether `current` is still in the range of `list` (line 246). The `remove()` method removes the current element from the tree (line 259). Afterward, a new list is created (lines 260–261). Note that `current` does not need to be changed.

Listing 27.11 gives a test program that stores the strings in a BST and displays all strings in uppercase.

### Listing 27.11 TestBSTWithIterator.java

```java
public class TestBSTWithIterator {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        BST<String> tree = new BST<String>();
        tree.insert("George");
        tree.insert("Michael");
        tree.insert("Tom");
        tree.insert("Adam");
        tree.insert("Jones");
        tree.insert("Peter");
        tree.insert("Daniel");

        for (String s: tree)
            System.out.print(s.toUpperCase() + " ");
    }
}
```

The for-each loop (lines 12–13) uses an iterator to traverse all elements in the tree.

**Design Guide**

Iterator is an important software design pattern. It provides a uniform way of traversing the elements in a container, while hiding the container’s structural details. By implementing the same interface `java.util.Iterator`, you can write a program that traverses the elements of all containers in the same way.

**Note**

`java.util.Iterator` defines a forward iterator, which traverses the element in the iterator in a forward direction, and each element can be traversed only once. The Java API also provides the `java.util.ListIterator`, which supports traversing in both forward and backward directions. If your data structure warrants flexible traversing, you may define iterator classes as a subtype of `java.util.ListIterator`.

The implementation of the iterator is not efficient. Every time you remove an element through the iterator, the whole list is rebuilt (line 261 in Listing 27.5 BST.java). The client should always...
use the `delete` method in the `BinaryTree` class to remove an element. To prevent the user from using the `remove` method in the iterator, implement the iterator as follows:

```java
public void remove() {
    throw new UnsupportedOperationException(
        "Removing an element from the iterator is not supported");
}
```

After making the `remove` method unsupported by the iterator class, you can implement the iterator more efficiently without having to maintain a list for the elements in the tree. You can use a stack to store the nodes, and the node on the top of the stack contains the element that is to be returned from the `next()` method. If the tree is well-balanced, the maximum stack size will be \( O(\log n) \).

27.11 What is an iterator?

27.12 What method is defined in the `java.lang.Iterable<E>` interface?

27.13 Suppose you delete `extends Iterable<E>` from line 1 in Listing 27.3, `Tree.java`. Will Listing 27.11 still compile?

27.14 What is the benefit of being a subtype of `Iterable<E>`?

27.6 Case Study: Data Compression

Huffman coding compresses data by using fewer bits to encode characters that occur more frequently. The codes for the characters are constructed based on the occurrence of the characters in the text using a binary tree, called the Huffman coding tree.

Compressing data is a common task. There are many utilities available for compressing files. This section introduces Huffman coding, invented by David Huffman in 1952. In ASCII, every character is encoded in 8 bits. If a text consists of 100 characters, it will take 800 bits to represent the text. The idea of Huffman coding is to use a fewer bits to encode frequently used characters in the text and more bits to encode less frequently used characters to reduce the overall size of the file. In Huffman coding, the characters’ codes are constructed based on the characters’ occurrence in the text using a binary tree, called the Huffman coding tree. Suppose the text is `Mississippi`. Its Huffman tree can be shown as in Figure 27.20a. The left and right edges of a node are assigned a value 0 and 1, respectively. Each character is a leaf in the tree. The code for the character consists of the edge values in the path from the root to the leaf, as shown in Figure 27.20b. Since `i` and `s` appear more than `M` and `p` in the text, they are assigned shorter codes.

![Huffman coding tree](image)

**Figure 27.20** The codes for characters are constructed based on the occurrence of characters in the text using a coding tree.
The coding tree is also used for decoding a sequence of bits into characters. To do so, start with the first bit in the sequence and determine whether to go to the left or right branch of the tree’s root based on the bit value. Consider the next bit and continue to go down to the left or right branch based on the bit value. When you reach a leaf, you have found a character. The next bit in the stream is the first bit of the next character. For example, the stream 011001 is decoded to sip, with 01 matching s, 1 matching i, and 001 matching p.

To construct a Huffman coding tree, use an algorithm as follows:

1. Begin with a forest of trees. Each tree contains a node for a character. The weight of the node is the frequency of the character in the text.

2. Repeat the following action to combine trees until there is only one tree: Choose two trees with the smallest weight and create a new node as their parent. The weight of the new tree is the sum of the weight of the subtrees.

3. For each interior node, assign its left edge a value 0 and right edge a value 1. All leaf nodes represent characters in the text.

Here is an example of building a coding tree for the text Mississippi. The frequency table for the characters is shown in Figure 27.20b. Initially the forest contains single-node trees, as shown in Figure 27.21a. The trees are repeatedly combined to form large trees until only one tree is left, as shown in Figures 27.21b–d.

![Diagram of a Huffman coding tree](image)

**Figure 27.21** The coding tree is built by repeatedly combining the two smallest-weighted trees.

It is worth noting that no code is a prefix of another code. This property ensures that the streams can be decoded unambiguously.

**Pedagogical Note**
For an interactive GUI demo to see how Huffman coding works, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HuffmanCodingAnimation.html, as shown in Figure 27.22.
Chapter 27 Binary Search Trees

The algorithm used here is an example of a greedy algorithm. A greedy algorithm is often used in solving optimization problems. The algorithm makes the choice that is optimal locally in the hope that this choice will lead to a globally optimal solution. In this case, the algorithm always chooses two trees with the smallest weight and creates a new node as their parent. This intuitive optimal local solution indeed leads to a final optimal solution for constructing a Huffman tree. As another example, consider changing money into the fewest possible coins. A greedy algorithm would take the largest possible coin first. For example, for 98¢, you would use three quarters to make 75¢, additional two dimes to make 95¢, and additional three pennies to make the 98¢. The greedy algorithm finds an optimal solution for this problem. However, a greedy algorithm is not always going to find the optimal result; see the bin packing problem in Programming Exercise 27.22.

Listing 27.12 gives a program that prompts the user to enter a string, displays the frequency table of the characters in the string, and displays the Huffman code for each character.

**Listing 27.12** HuffmanCode.java

```java
import java.util.Scanner;

public class HuffmanCode {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter text: ");
        String text = input.nextLine();

        // Count frequency
        int[] counts = getCharacterFrequency(text); // Count frequency
        System.out.printf("%-15s%-15s%-15s%-15s
", "ASCII Code", "Character", "Frequency", "Code");

        // Create a Huffman tree
        Tree tree = getHuffmanTree(counts); // Create a Huffman tree
        String[] codes = getCode(tree.root); // Get codes

        for (int i = 0; i < codes.length; i++)
            if (counts[i] != 0) // (char)i is not in text if counts[i] is 0
                System.out.printf("%-15d%-15s%-15d%-15s\n", i, (char)i, counts[i], codes[i]);
```

The animation tool enables you to create and view a Huffman tree, and it performs encoding and decoding using the tree.
public static String[] getCode(Tree.Node root) {
    if (root == null) return null;
    String[] codes = new String[2 * 128];
    assignCode(root, codes);
    return codes;
}

private static void assignCode(Tree.Node root, String[] codes) {
    if (root.left != null) {
        root.left.code = root.code + "0";
        assignCode(root.left, codes);
        root.right.code = root.code + "1";
        assignCode(root.right, codes);
    } else {
        codes[(int)root.element] = root.code;
    }
}

public static Tree getHuffmanTree(int[] counts) {
    // Create a heap to hold trees
    Heap<Tree> heap = new Heap<Tree>(); // Defined in Listing 25.10
    for (int i = 0; i < counts.length; i++) {
        if (counts[i] > 0)
            heap.add(new Tree(counts[i], (char)i)); // A leaf node tree
    }
    while (heap.getSize() > 1) {
        Tree t1 = heap.remove(); // Remove the smallest-weight tree
        Tree t2 = heap.remove(); // Remove the next smallest
        heap.add(new Tree(t1, t2)); // Combine two trees
    }
    return heap.remove(); // The final tree
}

public static int[] getCharacterFrequency(String text) {
    int[] counts = new int[256]; // 256 ASCII characters
    for (int i = 0; i < text.length(); i++)
        counts[(int)text.charAt(i)]++; // Count the characters in text
    return counts;
}

public static class Tree implements Comparable<Tree> {

    public static int[] getCharacterFrequency(String text) {
        int[] counts = new int[256]; // 256 ASCII characters
        for (int i = 0; i < text.length(); i++)
            counts[(int)text.charAt(i)]++; // Count the characters in text
        return counts;
    }

    public static Tree getHuffmanTree(int[] counts) {
        // Create a heap to hold trees
        Heap<Tree> heap = new Heap<Tree>(); // Defined in Listing 25.10
        for (int i = 0; i < counts.length; i++) {
            if (counts[i] > 0)
                heap.add(new Tree(counts[i], (char)i)); // A leaf node tree
        }
        while (heap.getSize() > 1) {
            Tree t1 = heap.remove(); // Remove the smallest-weight tree
            Tree t2 = heap.remove(); // Remove the next smallest
            heap.add(new Tree(t1, t2)); // Combine two trees
        }
        return heap.remove(); // The final tree
    }

    public static class Tree implements Comparable<Tree> {

        public static int[] getCharacterFrequency(String text) {
            int[] counts = new int[256]; // 256 ASCII characters
            for (int i = 0; i < text.length(); i++)
                counts[(int)text.charAt(i)]++; // Count the characters in text
            return counts;
        }

        public static Tree getHuffmanTree(int[] counts) {
            // Create a heap to hold trees
            Heap<Tree> heap = new Heap<Tree>(); // Defined in Listing 25.10
            for (int i = 0; i < counts.length; i++) {
                if (counts[i] > 0)
                    heap.add(new Tree(counts[i], (char)i)); // A leaf node tree
            }
            while (heap.getSize() > 1) {
                Tree t1 = heap.remove(); // Remove the smallest-weight tree
                Tree t2 = heap.remove(); // Remove the next smallest
                heap.add(new Tree(t1, t2)); // Combine two trees
            }
            return heap.remove(); // The final tree
        }
    }
```java
public Tree(Tree t1, Tree t2) {
    root = new Node();
    root.left = t1.root;
    root.right = t2.root;
    root.weight = t1.root.weight + t2.root.weight;
}

/** Create a tree containing a leaf node */
public Tree(int weight, char element) {
    root = new Node(weight, element);
}

@Override /** Compare trees based on their weights */
public int compareTo(Tree t) {
    if (root.weight < t.root.weight) { // Purposely reverse the order
        return 1;
    } else if (root.weight == t.root.weight) {
        return 0;
    } else {
        return -1;
    }
}

public class Node {
    char element; // Stores the character for a leaf node
    int weight; // weight of the subtree rooted at this node
    Node left; // Reference to the left subtree
    Node right; // Reference to the right subtree
    String code = ""; // The code of this node from the root

    /** Create an empty node */
    public Node() {
    }

    /** Create a node with the specified weight and character */
    public Node(int weight, char element) {
        this.weight = weight;
        this.element = element;
    }
}
```

The program prompts the user to enter a text string (lines 5–7) and counts the frequency of the characters in the text (line 9). The `getCharacterFrequency` method (lines 66–73) creates an array `counts` to count the occurrences of each of the 256 ASCII characters in the text. If a character appears in the text, its corresponding count is increased by 1 (line 70).
The program obtains a Huffman coding tree based on counts (line 14). The tree consists of linked nodes. The Node class is defined in lines 102–118. Each node consists of properties element (storing character), weight (storing weight of the subtree under this node), left (linking to the left subtree), right (linking to the right subtree), and code (storing the Huffman code for the character). The Tree class (lines 76–119) contains the root property. From the root, you can access all the nodes in the tree. The Tree class implements Comparable. The trees are comparable based on their weights. The compare order is purposely reversed (lines 93–100) so that the smallest-weight tree is removed first from the heap of trees.

The getHuffmanTree method returns a Huffman coding tree. Initially, the single-node trees are created and added to the heap (lines 50–54). In each iteration of the while loop (lines 56–60), two smallest-weight trees are removed from the heap and are combined to form a big tree, and then the new tree is added to the heap. This process continues until the heap contains just one tree, which is our final Huffman tree for the text.

The assignCode method assigns the code for each node in the tree (lines 34–45). The getCode method gets the code for each character in the leaf node (lines 26–31). The element codes[i] contains the code for character (char)i, where i is from 0 to 255. Note that codes[i] is null if (char)i is not in the text.

27.15 Every internal node in a Huffman tree has two children. Is it true?
27.16 What is a greedy algorithm? Give an example.

**Key Terms**

- binary search tree 962
- binary tree 962
- breadth-first traversal 966
- depth-first traversal 965
- greedy algorithm 988
- Huffman coding 986
- inorder traversal 965
- postorder traversal 965
- preorder traversal 965
- tree traversal 965

**Chapter Summary**

1. A binary search tree (BST) is a hierarchical data structure. You learned how to define and implement a BST class, how to insert and delete elements into/from a BST, and how to traverse a BST using inorder, postorder, preorder, depth-first, and breadth-first searches.

2. An iterator is an object that provides a uniform way of traversing the elements in a container, such as a set, a list, or a binary tree. You learned how to define and implement iterator classes for traversing the elements in a binary tree.

3. Huffman coding is a scheme for compressing data by using fewer bits to encode characters that occur more frequently. The codes for characters are constructed based on the occurrence of characters in the text using a binary tree, called the Huffman coding tree.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.
**PROGRAMMING EXERCISES**

 Sections 27.2–27.6

**27.1**  (*Add new methods in BST*) Add the following new methods in **BST**.

```java
/** Displays the nodes in a breadth-first traversal */
public void breadthFirstTraversal()
```

```java
/** Returns the height of this binary tree, i.e., the
 * number of the nodes in the longest path of the root to a leaf */
public int height()
```

**27.2**  (*Test full binary tree*) A full binary tree is a binary tree with the leaves on the same level. Add a method in the **BST** class to return true if the tree is a full binary tree. (*Hint: The number of nodes in a full binary tree is 2^depth + 1.*)

```java
/** Returns true if the tree is a full binary tree */
boolean isFullBST()
```

**27.3**  (*Implement inorder traversal without using recursion*) Implement the **inorder** method in **BST** using a stack instead of recursion.

**27.4**  (*Implement preorder traversal without using recursion*) Implement the **preorder** method in **BST** using a stack instead of recursion.

**27.5**  (*Implement postorder traversal without using recursion*) Implement the **postorder** method in **BST** using a stack instead of recursion.

**27.6**  (*Find the leaves*) Add a method in the **BST** class to return the number of the leaves as follows:

```java
/** Returns the number of leaf nodes */
public int getNumberOfLeaves()
```

**27.7**  (*Find the nonleaves*) Add a method in the **BST** class to return the number of the nonleaves as follows:

```java
/** Returns the number of nonleaf nodes */
public int getNumberOfNonLeaves()
```

***27.8***  (*Implement bidirectional iterator*) The **java.util.Iterator** interface defines a forward iterator. The Java API also provides the **java.util.ListIterator** interface that defines a bidirectional iterator. Study **ListIterator** and define a bidirectional iterator for the **BST** class.

**27.9**  (*Tree clone and equals*) Implement the **clone** and **equals** methods in the **BST** class.

**Comprehensive**

**27.10**  (*BST search visualization*) Write a Java applet that displays a search path, as shown in Figure 27.23a. The applet allows the user to enter a key. If the key is not in the tree, a message dialog box is displayed. Otherwise, the nodes in the path from the root leading to the key are colored.

**27.11**  (*BST animation*) The preceding exercise simply highlights a search path. Write a Java applet that animates how a search is performed. First you see that the root is searched, and then a subtree is searched recursively. When a node is
searched, the node is highlighted. The search stops when a key is found in the tree, or the applet displays a message that a key is not in the tree.

**27.12 (BST insert animation) Add an Insert button to the preceding exercise to animate how insertion is performed, as shown in Figure 27.23b. When the Insert button is clicked, the applet first animates a search. If the key is already in the tree, display a dialog box. Otherwise, insert the key and repaint the tree.

**27.13 (Add new buttons in TreeControl) Modify Listing 27.10, TreeControl.java, to add three new buttons—Show Inorder, Show Preorder, and Show Postorder—to display the result in a message dialog box, as shown in Figure 27.24. You need also to modify BST.java to implement the `inorderList()`, `preorderList()`, and `postorderList()` methods so that each of these methods returns a `List` of the node elements in inorder, preorder, and postorder, as follows:

```java
public java.util.List<E> inorderList();
public java.util.List<E> preorderList();
public java.util.List<E> postorderList();
```

**27.14 (Generic BST using Comparator) Revise BST in Listing 27.5, using a generic parameter and a Comparator for comparing objects. Define a new constructor with a Comparator as its argument as follows:

```java
BST(Comparator<? super E> comparator)
```
27.15 **(Parent reference for BST)** Redefine `TreeNode` by adding a reference to a node’s parent, as shown below:

```java
BinaryTree.TreeNode<E>
#element: E
#left: TreeNode<E>
#right: TreeNode<E>
#parent: TreeNode<E>
```

Add the following two new methods in `BST`:

```java
/** Returns the parent for the specified node. */
public TreeNode<E> getParent(TreeNode<E> node)

/** Returns the path from the specified node to the root in an array list. */
public ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> getPath(TreeNode<E> node)
```

Write a test program that adds numbers 1, 2, ..., 100 to the tree and displays the paths for all leaf nodes.

27.16 **(BST animation)** Write a Java applet that animates the binary search tree `insert`, `delete`, and `search` methods, as shown in Figure 27.2.

27.17 **(Animation: heap)** Write an applet to display a heap visually, as shown in Figure 25.8.

27.18 **(Data compression: Huffman coding)** Write a program that prompts the user to enter a file name, then displays the frequency table of the characters in the file and displays the Huffman code for each character.

27.19 **(Data compression: Huffman coding animation)** Write an applet that enables the user to enter text and displays the Huffman coding tree based on the text, as shown in Figure 27.25a. Display the weight of the subtree inside the subtree’s root circle. Display each leaf node’s character. Display the encoded bits for the text in a dialog box, as shown in Figure 27.25b. When the user clicks the `Decode Text` button, a bit string is decoded into text, as shown in Figure 27.25c.

![Figure 27.25](image-url)

**Figure 27.25** The animation shows the coding tree for a given text string in (a), encoded bits in (b), and the text for the given bit sequence in (c).
27.20 (Compress a file) Write a program that compresses a source file into a target file using the Huffman coding method. First use `ObjectOutputStream` to output the Huffman codes into the target file, and then use `BitOutputStream` in Programming Exercise 19.17 to output the encoded binary contents to the target file. Pass the files from the command line using the following command:

```
java Exercise27_20 sourcefile targetfile
```

27.21 (Decompress a file) The preceding exercise compresses a file. The compressed file contains the Huffman codes and the compressed contents. Write a program that decompresses a source file into a target file using the following command:

```
java Exercise27_21 sourcefile targetfile
```

27.22 (Bin packing using first fit) Write a program that packs the objects of various weights into containers. Each container can hold a maximum of 10 pounds. The program uses a greedy algorithm that places an object into the first bin in which it would fit. Your program should prompt the user to enter the total number of objects and the weight of each object. The program displays the total number of containers needed to pack the objects and the contents of each container. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the number of objects: 5
Enter the weights of the objects: 7 5 2 3 5 8
Container 1 contains objects with weight 7 2
Container 2 contains objects with weight 5 3
Container 3 contains objects with weight 5
Container 4 contains objects with weight 8
```

Does this program produce an optimal solution, that is, finding the minimum number of containers to pack the objects?

27.23 (Bin packing with smallest object first) Rewrite the preceding program that uses a new greedy algorithm that places an object with the smallest weight into the first bin in which it would fit. Your program should prompt the user to enter the total number of objects and the weight of each object. The program displays the total number of containers needed to pack the objects and the contents of each container. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter the number of objects: 5
Enter the weights of the objects: 7 5 2 3 5 8
Container 1 contains objects with weight 2 3 5
Container 2 contains objects with weight 5
Container 3 contains objects with weight 7
Container 4 contains objects with weight 8
```

Does this program produce an optimal solution, that is, finding the minimum number of containers to pack the objects?

27.24 (Optimal bin packing) Rewrite the preceding program so that it finds an optimal solution that packs all objects using the smallest number of containers. What is the time complexity of your program?
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CHAPTER 28

HASHING

Objectives

■ To understand what hashing is and what hashing is used for (§28.2).
■ To obtain the hash code for an object and design the hash function to map a key to an index (§28.3).
■ To handle collisions using open addressing (§28.4).
■ To know the differences among linear probing, quadratic probing, and double hashing (§28.4).
■ To handle collisions using separate chaining (§28.5).
■ To understand the load factor and the need for rehashing (§28.6).
■ To implement MyHashMap using hashing (§28.7).
■ To implement MyHashSet using hashing (§28.8).
28.1 Introduction

Hashing is supersensitive. It takes $O(1)$ time to search, insert, and delete an element using hashing.

The preceding chapter introduced binary search trees. An element can be found in $O(\log n)$ time in a well-balanced search tree. Is there a more efficient way to search for an element in a container? This chapter introduces a technique called hashing. You can use hashing to implement a map or a set to search, insert, and delete an element in $O(1)$ time.

28.2 What Is Hashing?

Hashing uses a hashing function to map a key to an index.

Before introducing hashing, let us review map, which is a data structure that is implemented using hashing. Recall that a map (introduced in Section 23.5) is a container object that stores entries. Each entry contains two parts: a key and a value. The key, also called a search key, is used to search for the corresponding value. For example, a dictionary can be stored in a map, in which the words are the keys and the definitions of the words are the values.

A map is also called a dictionary, a hash table, or an associative array.

The Java Collections Framework defines the `java.util.Map` interface for modeling maps. Three concrete implementations are `java.util.HashMap`, `java.util.LinkedHashMap`, and `java.util.TreeMap`. `java.util.HashMap` is implemented using hashing, `java.util.LinkedHashMap` using `LinkedList`, and `java.util.TreeMap` using red-black trees. (The bonus Chapter 48 introduces red-black trees.) You will learn the concept of hashing and use it to implement a map in this chapter.

If you know the index of an element in the array, you can retrieve the element using the index in $O(1)$ time. So does that mean we can store the values in an array and use the key as the index to find the value? The answer is yes—if you can map a key to an index. The array that stores the values is called a hash table. The function that maps a key to an index in the hash table is called a hash function. As shown in Figure 28.1, a hash function obtains an index from a key and uses the index to retrieve the value for the key. Hashing is a technique that retrieves the value using the index obtained from the key without performing a search.

How do you design a hash function that produces an index from a key? Ideally, we would like to design a function that maps each search key to a different index in the hash table. Such a function is called a perfect hash function. However, it is difficult to find a perfect hash
function. When two or more keys are mapped to the same hash value, we say that a collision has occurred. Although there are ways to deal with collisions, which are discussed later in this chapter, it is better to avoid collisions in the first place. Thus, you should design a fast and easy-to-compute hash function that minimizes collisions.

28.1 What is a hash function? What is a perfect hash function? What is a collision?

28.3 Hash Functions and Hash Codes

*A typical hash function first converts a search key to an integer value called a hash code, then compresses the hash code into an index to the hash table.*

Java’s root class `java.lang.Object` has the `hashCode` method, which returns an integer hash code. By default, the method returns the memory address for the object. The general contract for the `hashCode` method is as follows:

1. You should override the `hashCode` method whenever the `equals` method is overridden to ensure that two equal objects return the same hash code.
2. During the execution of a program, invoking the `hashCode` method multiple times returns the same integer, provided that the object’s data are not changed.
3. Two unequal objects may have the same hash code, but you should implement the `hashCode` method to avoid too many such cases.

28.3.1 Hash Codes for Primitive Types

For search keys of the type `byte`, `short`, `int`, and `char`, simply cast them to `int`. Therefore, two different search keys of any one of these types will have different hash codes.

For a search key of the type `float`, use `Float.floatToIntBits(key)` as the hash code. Note that `floatToIntBits(float f)` returns an `int` value whose bit representation is the same as the bit representation for the floating number `f`. Thus, two different search keys of the `float` type will have different hash codes.

For a search key of the type `long`, simply casting it to `int` would not be a good choice, because all keys that differ in only the first 32 bits will have the same hash code. To take the first 32 bits into consideration, divide the 64 bits into two halves and perform the exclusive-or operation to combine the two halves. This process is called folding. The hashing code for a `long` keyword is

```java
int hashCode = (int)(key ^ (key >> 32));
```

Note that `>>` is the right-shift operator that shifts the bits 32 positions to the right. For example, `1010110 >> 2` yields `0010101`. The `^` is the bitwise exclusive-or operator. It operates on two corresponding bits of the binary operands. For example, `1010110 ^ 0110111` yields `1100001`. For more on bitwise operations, see Appendix G, Bitwise Operations.

For a search key of the type `double`, first convert it to a `long` value using the `Double.doubleToLongBits` method, and then perform a folding as follows:

```java
long bits = Double.doubleToLongBits(key);
int hashCode = (int)(bits ^ (bits >> 32));
```

28.3.2 Hash Codes for Strings

Search keys are often strings, so it is important to design a good hash function for strings. An intuitive approach is to sum the Unicode of all characters as the hash code for the string. This approach may work if two search keys in an application don’t contain the same letters, but it
Chapter 28 Hashing

will produce a lot of collisions if the search keys contain the same letters, such as **tod** and **dot**.

A better approach is to generate a hash code that takes the position of characters into consideration. Specifically, let the hash code be

\[ s_0b^{(N-1)} + s_1b^{(N-2)} + \ldots + s_{N-1} \]

where \( s_i \) is `s.charAt(i)`. This expression is a polynomial for some positive \( b \), so this is called a **polynomial hash code**. Using Horner's rule for polynomial evaluation (see Section 9.4), the hash code can be calculated efficiently as follows:

\[
(\ldots ((s_0b + s_1)b + s_2)b + \ldots + s_{N-2})b + s_{N-1}
\]

This computation can cause an overflow for long strings, but arithmetic overflow is ignored in Java. You should choose an appropriate value for \( b \) to minimize collisions. Experiments show that good choices for \( b \) are 31, 33, 37, 39, and 41. In the **String** class, the **hashCode** is overridden using the polynomial hash code with \( b \) being 31.

### 28.3.3 Compressing Hash Codes

The hash code for a key can be a large integer that is out of the range for the hash-table index, so you need to scale it down to fit in the index's range. Assume the index for a hash table is between 0 and \( N-1 \). The most common way to scale an integer to between 0 and \( N-1 \) is to use

\[ h(\text{hashCode}) = \text{hashCode} \mod N \]

To ensure that the indices are spread evenly, choose \( N \) to be a prime number greater than 2.

Ideally, you should choose a prime number for \( N \). However, it is time consuming to find a large prime number. In the Java API implementation for **java.util.HashMap**, \( N \) is set to a value of the power of 2. There is a good reason for this choice. When \( N \) is a value of the power of 2,

\[ h(\text{hashCode}) = \text{hashCode} \mod (N - 1) \]

The ampersand, & , is a bitwise AND operator (see Appendix G, Bitwise Operations). The AND of two corresponding bits yields a 1 if both bits are 1. For example, assume \( N = 4 \) and \( \text{hashCode} = 11 \), \( 11 \mod 4 = 3 \), which is the same as \( 01011 \mod 00011 = 11 \). The & operator can be performed much faster than the \mod \% operator.

To ensure that the hashing is evenly distributed, a supplemental hash function is also used along with the primary hash function in the implementation of **java.util.HashMap**. The supplemental function is defined as:

```java
private static int supplementalHash(int h) {
    h ^= (h >>> 20) ^ (h >>> 12);
    return h ^ (h >>> 7) ^ (h >>> 4);
}
```

^ and >>> are bitwise exclusive-or and unsigned right-shift operations (also introduced in Appendix G). The bitwise operations are much faster than the multiplication, division, and remainder operations. You should replace these operations with the bitwise operations wherever possible.

The complete hash function is defined as:

\[ h(\text{hashCode}) = \text{supplementalHash(hashCode)} \mod N \]
This is the same as

\[ h(\text{hashCode}) = \text{supplementalHash(hashCode) \& (N - 1)} \]

since \( N \) is a value of the power of 2.

28.2 What is a hash code? What is the hash code for \( \text{Byte, Short, Integer, and Character} \)?

28.3 How is the hash code for a \( \text{Float} \) object computed?

28.4 How is the hash code for a \( \text{Long} \) object computed?

28.5 How is the hash code for a \( \text{Double} \) object computed?

28.6 How is the hash code for a \( \text{String} \) object computed?

28.7 How is a hash code compressed to an integer representing the index in a hash table?

28.8 If \( N \) is a value of the power of 2, is \( N / 2 \) same as \( N >> 1 \)?

28.9 If \( N \) is a value of the power of 2, is \( m \% N \) same as \( m \& (N - 1) \) for any integer \( m \)?

28.4 Handling Collisions Using Open Addressing

A collision occurs when two keys are mapped to the same index in a hash table.

Generally, there are two ways for handling collisions: open addressing and separate chaining.

Open addressing is the process of finding an open location in the hash table in the event of a collision. Open addressing has several variations: linear probing, quadratic probing, and double hashing.

28.4.1 Linear Probing

When a collision occurs during the insertion of an entry to a hash table, linear probing finds the next available location sequentially. For example, if a collision occurs at \( \text{hashTable}[k \% N] \), check whether \( \text{hashTable}[(k+1) \% N] \) is available. If not, check \( \text{hashTable}[(k+2) \% N] \) and so on, until an available cell is found, as shown in Figure 28.2.

Note

When probing reaches the end of the table, it goes back to the beginning of the table. Thus, the hash table is treated as if it were circular.

![Figure 28.2](image-url)
To search for an entry in the hash table, obtain the index, say $k$, from the hash function for the key. Check whether $\text{hashTable}[k \mod n]$ contains the entry. If not, check whether $\text{hashTable}[(k+1) \mod n]$ contains the entry, and so on, until it is found, or an empty cell is reached.

To remove an entry from the hash table, search the entry that matches the key. If the entry is found, place a special marker to denote that the entry is available. Each cell in the hash table has three possible states: occupied, marked, or empty. Note that a marked cell is also available for insertion.

Linear probing tends to cause groups of consecutive cells in the hash table to be occupied. Each group is called a cluster. Each cluster is actually a probe sequence that you must search when retrieving, adding, or removing an entry. As clusters grow in size, they may merge into even larger clusters, further slowing down the search time. This is a big disadvantage of linear probing.

**Pedagogical Note**
For an interactive GUI demo to see how linear probing works, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HashingLinearProbingAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HashingLinearProbingAnimation.html), as shown in Figure 28.3.

### 28.4.2 Quadratic Probing

*Quadratic probing* can avoid the clustering problem that can occur in linear probing. Linear probing looks at the consecutive cells beginning at index $k$. Quadratic probing, on the other...
28.4 Handling Collisions Using Open Addressing

Quadratic probing works in the same way as linear probing except for a change in the search sequence. Quadratic probing avoids linear probing’s clustering problem, but it has its own clustering problem, called secondary clustering; that is, the entries that collide with an occupied entry use the same probe sequence.

Linear probing guarantees that an available cell can be found for insertion as long as the table is not full. However, there is no such guarantee for quadratic probing.

For an interactive GUI demo to see how quadratic probing works, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HashingQuadraticProbingAnimation.html, as shown in Figure 28.5.

28.4.3 Double Hashing

Another open addressing scheme that avoids the clustering problem is known as double hashing. Starting from the initial index $k$, both linear probing and quadratic probing add an increment to $k$ to define a search sequence. The increment is 1 for linear probing and $j^2$ for quadratic probing. These increments are independent of the keys. Double hashing uses a secondary hash function on the keys to determine the increments to avoid the clustering problem.

For example, let the primary hash function $h$ and secondary hash function $h'$ on a hash table of size 11 be defined as follows:

$$h(k) = k \% 11;$$
$$h'(k) = 7 - k \% 7;$$

For a search key of 12, we have

$$h(12) = 12 \% 11 = 1;$$
$$h'(k) = 7 - 12 \% 7 = 2;$$

The probe sequence for key 12 starts at index 1 with an increment 2, as shown in Figure 28.6. The indices of the probe sequence are as follows: 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10. This sequence reaches the entire table. You should design your functions to produce a probe sequence that reaches the entire table. Note that the second function should never have a zero value, since zero is not an increment.
Chapter 28  Hashing

Figure 28.5  The animation tool shows how quadratic probing works.

Figure 28.6  The secondary hash function in a double hashing determines the increment of the next index in the probe sequence.

28.10  What is open addressing? What is linear probing? What is quadratic probing? What is double hashing?

28.11  Describe the clustering problem for linear probing.

28.12  What is secondary clustering?
28.13 Show the hash table of size 11 after inserting entries with keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using linear probing.

28.14 Show the hash table of size 11 after inserting entries with keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using quadratic probing.

28.15 Show the hash table of size 11 after inserting entries with keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using double hashing with the following functions:

\[
\begin{align*}
h(k) &= k \mod 11; \\
h'(k) &= 7 - k \mod 7;
\end{align*}
\]

28.16 Show the hash table of size 11 after inserting entries with the keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using separate chaining.

28.6 Load Factor and Rehashing

The load factor measures how full a hash table is. If the load factor is exceeded, increase the hash-table size and reload the entries into the new larger hash table. This is called rehashing.

Load factor \( \lambda \) (lambda) measures how full a hash table is. It is the ratio of the number of elements to the size of the hash table, that is, \( \lambda = \frac{n}{N} \), where \( n \) denotes the number of elements and \( N \) the number of locations in the hash table.

Note that \( \lambda \) is zero if the map is empty. For the open addressing scheme, \( \lambda \) is between 0 and 1; \( \lambda \) is 1 if the hash table is full. For the separate chaining scheme, \( \lambda \) can be any value. As \( \lambda \)

increases, the probability of a collision increases. Studies show that you should maintain the load factor under 0.5 for the open addressing scheme and under 0.9 for the separate chaining scheme.

Keeping the load factor under a certain threshold is important for the performance of hashing. In the implementation of the `java.util.HashMap` class in the Java API, the threshold 0.75 is used. Whenever the load factor exceeds the threshold, you need to increase the hash-table size and rehash all the entries in the map into the new larger hash table. Notice that you need to change the hash functions, since the hash-table size has been changed. To reduce the likelihood of rehashing, since it is costly, you should at least double the hash-table size. Even with periodic rehashing, hashing is an efficient implementation for map.

**Pedagogical Note**
For an interactive GUI demo to see how separate chaining works, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HashingUsingSeparateChainingAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/HashingUsingSeparateChainingAnimation.html), as shown in Figure 28.8.

**Figure 28.8** The animation tool shows how separate chaining works.

28.17 Assume the hash table has the initial size 4 and its load factor is 0.5; show the hash table after inserting entries with the keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using linear probing.

28.18 Assume the hash table has the initial size 4 and its load factor is 0.5; show the hash table after inserting entries with the keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using quadratic probing.
28.19 Assume the hash table has the initial size 4 and its load factor is 0.5; show the hash table after inserting entries with the keys 34, 29, 53, 44, 120, 39, 45, and 40, using separate chaining.

28.7 Implementing a Map Using Hashing

A map can be implemented using hashing.

Now you understand the concept of hashing. You know how to design a good hash function to map a key to an index in a hash table, how to measure performance using the load factor, and how to increase the table size and rehash to maintain the performance. This section demonstrates how to implement a map using separate chaining.

We design our custom Map interface to mirror java.util.Map and name the interface MyMap and a concrete class MyHashMap, as shown in Figure 28.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>«interface» MyMap&lt;K, V&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+clear(): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+containsKey(key: K): boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+containsValue(value: V): boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+entrySet(): Set&lt;Entry&lt;K, V&gt;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+get(key: K): V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+isEmpty(): boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+keySet(): Set&lt;K&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+put(key: K, value: V): V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+remove(key: K): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+size(): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+values(): Set&lt;V&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key Point

- MyHashMap<K, V>
  - Creates an empty map with default capacity 4 and default load factor threshold 0.75f.
  - Creates a map with a specified capacity and default load factor threshold 0.75f.
  - Creates a map with a specified capacity and load factor threshold.

- MyMap.Entry<K, V>
  - Constructs an entry with the specified key and value.
  - Returns the key in the entry.
  - Returns the value in the entry.

FIGURE 28.9 MyHashMap implements the MyMap interface.
How do you implement MyHashMap? If you use an ArrayList and store a new entry at the end of the list, the search time will be $O(n)$. If you implement MyHashMap using a binary tree, the search time will be $O(\log n)$ if the tree is well balanced. Nevertheless, you can implement MyHashMap using hashing to obtain an $O(1)$ time search algorithm. Listing 28.1 shows the MyMap interface and Listing 28.2 implements MyHashMap using separate chaining.

**Listing 28.1** MyMap.java

```java
interface MyMap {
    public interface MyMap<K, V> {
        /** Remove all of the entries from this map */
        public void clear();

        /** Return true if the specified key is in the map */
        public boolean containsKey(K key);

        /** Return true if this map contains the specified value */
        public boolean containsValue(V value);

        /** Return a set of entries in the map */
        public java.util.Set<Entry<K, V>> entrySet();

        /** Return the value that matches the specified key */
        public V get(K key);

        /** Return true if this map doesn't contain any entries */
        public boolean isEmpty();

        /** Return a set consisting of the keys in this map */
        public java.util.Set<K> keySet();

        /** Add an entry (key, value) into the map */
        public V put(K key, V value);

        /** Remove an entry for the specified key */
        public void remove(K key);

        /** Return the number of mappings in this map */
        public int size();

        /** Return a set consisting of the values in this map */
        public java.util.Set<V> values();

        /** Define an inner class for Entry */
        public static class Entry<K, V> {
            K key;
            V value;

            public Entry(K key, V value) {
                this.key = key;
                this.value = value;
            }

            public K getKey() {
                return key;
            }

            public V getValue() {
                return value;
            }
        }
    }
}
```
@Override
public String toString() {
    return "[" + key + ", " + value + "]";
}
}

LISTING 28.2  MyHashMap.java

```java
import java.util.LinkedList;

public class MyHashMap<K, V> implements MyMap<K, V> {

    // Define the default hash-table size. Must be a power of 2
    private static int DEFAULT_INITIAL_CAPACITY = 4;

    // Define the maximum hash-table size. 1 << 30 is same as 2^30
    private static int MAXIMUM_CAPACITY = 1 << 30;

    // Current hash-table capacity. Capacity is a power of 2
    private int capacity;

    // Define default load factor
    private static float DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR = 0.75f;

    // Specify a load factor used in the hash table
    private float loadFactorThreshold;

    // The number of entries in the map
    private int size = 0;

    // Hash table is an array with each cell being a linked list
    LinkedList<MyMap.Entry<K, V>>[] table;

    /** Construct a map with the default capacity and load factor */
    public MyHashMap() {
        this(DEFAULT_INITIAL_CAPACITY, DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR);
    }

    /** Construct a map with the specified initial capacity
     * and load factor */
    public MyHashMap(int initialCapacity) {
        this(initialCapacity, DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR);
    }

    /** Construct a map with the specified initial capacity
     * and load factor */
    public MyHashMap(int initialCapacity, float loadFactorThreshold) {
        if (initialCapacity > MAXIMUM_CAPACITY)
            this.capacity = MAXIMUM_CAPACITY;
        else
            this.capacity = trimToPowerOf2(initialCapacity);
        this.loadFactorThreshold = loadFactorThreshold;
        table = new LinkedList[capacity];
    }

    @Override /** Remove all of the entries from this map */
    public void clear() {
        size = 0;
    }
```
```java
private void removeEntries() {
}

@Override /** Return true if the specified key is in the map */
public boolean containsKey(K key) {
    if (get(key) != null)
        return true;
    else
        return false;
}

@Override /** Return true if this map contains the value */
public boolean containsValue(V value) {
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null) {
            LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[i];
            for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
                if (entry.getValue().equals(value))
                    return true;
        }
    }
    return false;
}

@Override /** Return a set of entries in the map */
public java.util.Set<MyMap.Entry<K, V>> entrySet() {
    java.util.Set<MyMap.Entry<K, V>> set =
        new java.util.HashSet<MyMap.Entry<K, V>>();
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null) {
            LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[i];
            for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
                set.add(entry);
        }
    }
    return set;
}

@Override /** Return the value that matches the specified key */
public V get(K key) {
    int bucketIndex = hash(key.hashCode());
    if (table[bucketIndex] != null) {
        LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[bucketIndex];
        for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
            if (entry.getKey().equals(key))
                return entry.getValue();
    }
    return null;
}

@Override /** Return true if this map contains no entries */
public boolean isEmpty() {
    return size == 0;
}
```

public java.util.Set<K> keySet() {
    java.util.Set<K> set = new java.util.HashSet<K>();
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null) {
            LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[i];
            for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
                set.add(entry.getKey());
        }
    }
    return set;
}

@Override /** Add an entry (key, value) into the map */
pubic V put(K key, V value) {
    if (get(key) != null) { // The key is already in the map
        int bucketIndex = hash(key.hashCode());
        LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[bucketIndex];
        for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
            if (entry.getKey().equals(key)) {
                V oldValue = entry.getValue();
                // Replace old value with new value
                entry.value = value;
                // Return the old value for the key
                return oldValue;
            }
    }
    // Check load factor
    if (size >= capacity * loadFactorThreshold) {
        if (capacity == MAXIMUM_CAPACITY)
            throw new RuntimeException("Exceeding maximum capacity");
        rehash();
    }
    int bucketIndex = hash(key.hashCode());
    // Create a linked list for the bucket if not already created
    if (table[bucketIndex] == null) {
        table[bucketIndex] = new LinkedList<Entry<K, V>>() ;
    }
    // Add a new entry (key, value) to hashTable[index]
    table[bucketIndex].add(new MyMap.Entry<K, V>(key, value));
    size++; // Increase size
    return value;
}

@Override /** Remove the entries for the specified key */
public void remove(K key) {
    int bucketIndex = hash(key.hashCode());
    // Remove the first entry that matches the key from a bucket
    if (table[bucketIndex] != null) {
        LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[bucketIndex];
        for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
if (entry.getKey().equals(key)) {
    bucket.remove(entry);
    size--; // Decrease size
    break; // Remove just one entry that matches the key
}

size

@override /** Return the number of entries in this map */
public int size() {
    return size;
}

values

@override /** Return a set consisting of the values in this map */
public java.util.Set<V> values() {
    java.util.Set<V> set = new java.util.HashSet<V>();
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null) {
            LinkedList<Entry<K, V>> bucket = table[i];
            for (Entry<K, V> entry: bucket)
                set.add(entry.getValue());
        }
    }
    return set;

hash

/** Hash function */
private int hash(int hashCode) {
    return supplementalHash(hashCode) & (capacity - 1);
}

supplementalHash

/** Ensure the hashing is evenly distributed */
private static int supplementalHash(int h) {
    h ^= (h >>> 20) ^ (h >>> 12);
    return h ^ (h >>> 7) ^ (h >>> 4);
}

trimToPowerOf2

/** Return a power of 2 for initialCapacity */
private int trimToPowerOf2(int initialCapacity) {
    int capacity = 1;
    while (capacity < initialCapacity) {
        capacity <<= 1; // Same as capacity *= 2. <<= is more efficient
    }
    return capacity;

removeEntries

/** Remove all entries from each bucket */
private void removeEntries() {
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null) {
            table[i].clear();
        }
    }
}

rehash

/** Rehash the map */
private void rehash() {

28.7 Implementing a Map Using Hashing

```java
java.util.Set<Entry<K, V>> set = entrySet(); // Get entries
capacity <<= 1; // Same as capacity *= 2. <<= is more efficient
table = new LinkedList[capacity]; // Create a new hash table
size = 0; // Reset size to 0
for (Entry<K, V> entry: set) {
    put(entry.getKey(), entry.getValue()); // Store to new table
}
```

```java
public String toString() {
    StringBuilder builder = new StringBuilder("[");
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
        if (table[i] != null && table[i].size() > 0)
            for (Entry<K, V> entry: table[i])
                builder.append(entry);
    }
    builder.append("]");
    return builder.toString();
}
```

The `MyHashMap` class implements the `MyMap` interface using separate chaining. The parameters that determine the hash-table size and load factors are defined in the class. The default initial capacity is 4 (line 5) and the maximum capacity is $2^8$ (line 8). The current hash-table capacity is designed as a value of the power of 2 (line 11). The default load-factor threshold is 0.75f (line 14). You can specify a custom load-factor threshold when constructing a map. The custom load-factor threshold is stored in `loadFactorThreshold` (line 17).

The data field `size` denotes the number of entries in the map (line 20). The hash table is an array. Each cell in the array is a linked list (line 23).

Three constructors are provided to construct a map. You can construct a default map with the default capacity and load-factor threshold using the no-arg constructor (lines 26–28), a map with the specified capacity and a default load-factor threshold (lines 32–34), and a map with the specified capacity and load-factor threshold (lines 38–46).

The `clear` method removes all entries from the map (lines 49–52). It invokes `removeEntries()`, which deletes all entries in the buckets (lines 221–227). The `removeEntries()` method takes $O(capacity)$ time to clear all entries in the table.

The `containsKey(key)` method checks whether the specified key is in the map by invoking the `get` method (lines 55–60). Since the `get` method takes $O(1)$ time, the `containsKey(key)` method takes $O(1)$ time.

The `containsValue(value)` method checks whether the value is in the map (lines 63–74). This method takes $O(capacity + size)$ time. It is actually $O(capacity)$, since $capacity > size$.

The `entrySet()` method returns a set that contains all entries in the map (lines 77–90). This method takes $O(capacity)$ time.

The `get(key)` method returns the value of the first entry with the specified key (lines 93–103). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The `isEmpty()` method simply returns true if the map is empty (lines 106–108). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The `keySet()` method returns all keys in the map as a Set. The method finds the keys from each bucket and adds them to a set (lines 111–123). This method takes $O(capacity)$ time.

The `put(key, value)` method adds a new entry into the map. The method first tests if the key is already in the map (line 127), if so, it locates the entry and replaces the old value with the new value.
with the new value in the entry for the key (line 134) and the old value is returned (line 136). If the key is new in the map, the new entry is created in the map (line 156). Before inserting the new entry, the method checks whether the size exceeds the load-factor threshold (line 141). If so, the program invokes `rehash()` (line 145) to increase the capacity and store entries into the new larger hash table.

The `rehash()` method first copies all entries in a set (line 231), doubles the capacity (line 232), creates a new hash table (line 233), and resets the size to 0 (line 234). The method then copies the entries into the new hash table (lines 236–238). The `rehash` method takes $O(\text{capacity})$ time. If no rehash is performed, the `put` method takes $O(1)$ time to add a new entry.

The `remove(key)` method removes the entry with the specified key in the map (lines 164–177). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The `size()` method simply returns the size of the map (lines 180–182). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The `values()` method returns all values in the map. The method examines each entry from all buckets and adds it to a set (lines 185–197). This method takes $O(\text{capacity})$ time.

The `hash()` method invokes the `supplementalHash` to ensure that the hashing is evenly distributed to produce an index for the hash table (lines 200–208). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

Table 28.1 summarizes the time complexities of the methods in `MyHashMap`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clear()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>containsKey(key: Key)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>containsValue(value: V)</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>entrySet()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get(key: K)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isEmpty()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keySet()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>put(key: K, value: V)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remove(key: K)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>values()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rehash()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since rehashing does not happen very often, the time complexity for the `put` method is $O(1)$. Note that the complexities of the `clear`, `entrySet`, `keySet`, `values`, and `rehash` methods depend on `capacity`, so to avoid poor performance for these methods you should choose an initial capacity carefully.

Listing 28.3 gives a test program that uses `MyHashMap`. 
28.7 Implementing a Map Using Hashing

LISTING 28.3  TestMyHashMap.java

```java
public class TestMyHashMap {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a map
        MyMap<String, Integer> map = new MyHashMap<String, Integer>();
        map.put("Smith", 30);
        map.put("Anderson", 31);
        map.put("Lewis", 29);
        map.put("Cook", 29);
        map.put("Smith", 65);
        System.out.println("Entries in map: " + map);
        System.out.println("The age for Lewis is " + map.get("Lewis"));
        System.out.println("Is Smith in the map? " + map.containsKey("Smith"));
        System.out.println("Is age 33 in the map? " + map.containsValue(33));
        map.remove("Smith");
        System.out.println("Entries in map: " + map);
        map.clear();
        System.out.println("Entries in map: " + map);
    }
}
```

Entries in map: [[[Anderson, 31][Smith, 65][Lewis, 29][Cook, 29]]
The age for Lewis is 29
Is Smith in the map? true
Is age 33 in the map? false
Entries in map: [[[Anderson, 31][Lewis, 29][Cook, 29]]
Entries in map: []

The program creates a map using `MyHashMap` (line 4) and adds five entries into the map (lines 5–9). Line 5 adds key `Smith` with value `30` and line 9 adds `Smith` with value `65`. The latter value replaces the former value. The map actually has only four entries. The program displays the entries in the map (line 11), gets a value for a key (line 14), checks whether the map contains the key (line 17) and a value (line 19), removes an entry with the key `Smith` (line 21), and redisplays the entries in the map (line 22). Finally, the program clears the map (line 24) and displays an empty map (line 25).

28.20 What is `1 << 30` in line 8 in Listing 28.2? What are the integers resulted from `1 << 1`, `1 << 2`, and `1 << 3`?

28.21 What are the integers resulted from `32 >> 1`, `32 >> 2`, `32 >> 3`, and `32 >> 4`?

28.22 In Listing 28.2, will the program work if `LinkedList` is replaced by `ArrayList`?

28.23 Describe how the `put(key, value)` method is implemented in the `MyHashMap` class.

28.24 Show the printout of the following code.

```java
MyMap<String, String> map = new MyHashMap<String, String>();
map.put("Texas", "Dallas");
```
A hash set can be implemented using a hash map. A set (introduced in Chapter 23) is a data structure that stores distinct values. The Java Collections Framework defines the `java.util.Set` interface for modeling sets. Three concrete implementations are `java.util.HashSet`, `java.util.LinkedHashSet`, and `java.util.TreeSet`. `java.util.HashSet` is implemented using hashing, `java.util.LinkedHashSet` using `LinkedList`, and `java.util.TreeSet` using red-black trees.

You can implement `MyHashSet` using the same approach as for implementing `MyHashMap`. The only difference is that key/value pairs are stored in the map, while elements are stored in the set.

We design our custom `Set` interface to mirror `java.util.Set` and name the interface `MySet` and a concrete class `MyHashSet`, as shown in Figure 28.10.

```java
map.put("Oklahoma", "Norman");
map.put("Texas", "Austin");
map.put("Oklahoma", "Tulsa");

System.out.println(map.get("Texas"));
System.out.println(map.size());
```

28.8 Implementing Set Using Hashing

A hash set can be implemented using a hash map. A set (introduced in Chapter 23) is a data structure that stores distinct values. The Java Collections Framework defines the `java.util.Set` interface for modeling sets. Three concrete implementations are `java.util.HashSet`, `java.util.LinkedHashSet`, and `java.util.TreeSet`. `java.util.HashSet` is implemented using hashing, `java.util.LinkedHashSet` using `LinkedList`, and `java.util.TreeSet` using red-black trees.

You can implement `MyHashSet` using the same approach as for implementing `MyHashMap`. The only difference is that key/value pairs are stored in the map, while elements are stored in the set.

We design our custom `Set` interface to mirror `java.util.Set` and name the interface `MySet` and a concrete class `MyHashSet`, as shown in Figure 28.10.
Listing 28.4 shows the MySet interface and Listing 28.5 implements MyHashSet using separate chaining.

**Listing 28.4  MySet.java**

```java
public interface MySet<E> extends java.lang.Iterable<E> {
    /** Remove all elements from this set */
    public void clear();

    /** Return true if the element is in the set */
    public boolean contains(E e);

    /** Add an element to the set */
    public boolean add(E e);

    /** Remove the element from the set */
    public boolean remove(E e);

    /** Return true if the set doesn't contain any elements */
    public boolean isEmpty();

    /** Return the number of elements in the set */
    public int size();

    /** Return an iterator for the elements in this set */
    public java.util.Iterator iterator();
}
```

**Listing 28.5  MyHashSet.java**

```java
import java.util.LinkedList;

public class MyHashSet<E> implements MySet<E> {
    // Define the default hash-table size. Must be a power of 2
    private static int DEFAULT_INITIAL_CAPACITY = 4;

    // Define the maximum hash-table size. 1 << 30 is same as 2^30
    private static int MAXIMUM_CAPACITY = 1 << 30;

    // Current hash-table capacity. Capacity is a power of 2
    private int capacity;

    // Define default load factor
    private static float DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR = 0.75f;

    // Specify a load-factor threshold used in the hash table
    private float loadFactorThreshold;

    // The number of elements in the set
    private int size = 0;

    // Hash table is an array with each cell being a linked list
    private LinkedList<E>[] table;

    /** Construct a set with the default capacity and load factor */
    public MyHashSet() {
        this(DEFAULT_INITIAL_CAPACITY, DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR);
    }
}
```
public MyHashSet(int initialCapacity) {
    this(initialCapacity, DEFAULT_MAX_LOAD_FACTOR);
}

/** Construct a set with the specified initial capacity and
 * default load factor */
constructor

/** Construct a set with the specified initial capacity
 * and load factor */
constructor

this.capacity = trimToPowerOf2(initialCapacity);

this.loadFactorThreshold = loadFactorThreshold;

public void clear() {
    size = 0;
    removeElements();
}

clear

@Override /** Return true if the element is in the set */
contains

int bucketIndex = hash(e.hashCode());

public boolean contains(E e) {
    if (table[bucketIndex] != null) {
        LinkedList<E> bucket = table[bucketIndex];
        for (E element: bucket)
            if (element.equals(e))
                return true;
    }

    return false;
}

contains

/** Add an element to the set */
add

public boolean add(E e) {
    if (contains(e)) // Duplicate element not stored
        return false;

    if (size > capacity * loadFactorThreshold) {
        if (capacity == MAXIMUM_CAPACITY)
            throw new RuntimeException("Exceeding maximum capacity");

        rehash();
    }

    int bucketIndex = hash(e.hashCode());

    if (table[bucketIndex] == null) {
        table[bucketIndex] = new LinkedList<E>();
    }

    // Add e to hashTable[index]
    table[bucketIndex].add(e);

    size++; // Increase size
public boolean remove(E e) {
    if (!contains(e)) {
        return false;
    }

    int bucketIndex = hash(e.hashCode());

    // Create a linked list for the bucket if not already created
    if (table[bucketIndex] != null) {
        LinkedList<E> bucket = table[bucketIndex];
        for (E element: bucket) {
            if (e.equals(element)) {
                bucket.remove(element);
                break;
            }
        }
    }

    size--; // Decrease size
    return true;
}

public boolean isEmpty() {
    return size == 0;
}

public int size() {
    return size;
}

public java.util.Iterator<E> iterator() {
    return new MyHashSetIterator(this);
}

private class MyHashSetIterator implements java.util.Iterator<E> {
    private java.util.ArrayList<E> list;
    private int current = 0; // Point to the current element in list
    private MyHashSet<E> set;

    public MyHashSetIterator(MyHashSet<E> set) {
        this.set = set;
        list = setToList();
    }

    @Override /** Next element for traversing? */
    public boolean hasNext() {
        if (current < list.size()) {
            return true;
        }
        return false;
    }
Chapter 28 Hashing

```java
    private int hash(int hashCode) {
        return supplementalHash(hashCode) & (capacity - 1);
    }
```

```java
    private static int supplementalHash(int h) {
        h ^= (h >>> 20) ^ (h >>> 12);
        return h ^ (h >>> 7) ^ (h >>> 4);
    }
```

```java
    private int trimToPowerOf2(int initialCapacity) {
        int capacity = 1;
        while (capacity < initialCapacity) {
            capacity <<= 1; // Same as capacity *= 2. <<= is more efficient
        }
        return capacity;
    }
```

```java
    private void removeElements() {
        for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
            if (table[i] != null) {
                table[i].clear();
            }
        }
    }
```

```java
    private void rehash() {
        java.util.ArrayList<E> list = setToList(); // Copy to a list
        capacity <<= 1; // Same as capacity *= 2. <<= is more efficient
        table = new LinkedList[capacity]; // Create a new hash table
        size = 0;
        for (E element: list) {
            add(element); // Add from the old table to the new table
        }
    }
```

```java
    private java.util.ArrayList<E> setToList() {
        java.util.ArrayList<E> list = new java.util.ArrayList<E>();
    }
```
for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
    if (table[i] != null) {
        for (E e: table[i]) {
            list.add(e);
        }
    }
}

return list;

@override /** Return a string representation for this set */
public String toString() {
    java.util.ArrayList<E> list = setToList();
    StringBuilder builder = new StringBuilder("[");
    // Add the elements except the last one to the string builder
    for (int i = 0; i < list.size() - 1; i++) {
        builder.append(list.get(i) + ", ");
    }
    // Add the last element in the list to the string builder
    if (list.size() == 0)
        builder.append("]" );
    else
        builder.append(list.get(list.size() - 1) + "]");
    return builder.toString();
}

The MyHashSet class implements the MySet interface using separate chaining. Implementing MyHashSet is very similar to implementing MyHashMap except for the following differences:

1. The elements are stored in the hash table for MyHashSet, but the entries (key/value pairs) are stored in the hash table for MyHashMap.

2. MySet extends java.lang.Iterable and MyHashSet implements MySet and overrides iterator(). So the elements in MyHashSet are iterable.

Three constructors are provided to construct a set. You can construct a default set with the default capacity and load factor using the no-arg constructor (lines 26–28), a set with the specified capacity and a default load factor (lines 32–34), and a set with the specified capacity and load factor (lines 38–46).

The clear method removes all elements from the set (lines 49–52). It invokes removeElements(), which clears all table cells (line 190). Each table cell is a linked list that stores the elements with the same hash code. The removeElements() method takes \(O(\text{capacity})\) time.

The contains(element) method checks whether the specified element is in the set by examining whether the designated bucket contains the element (lines 55–65). This method takes \(O(1)\) time.

The add(element) method adds a new element into the set. The method first checks if the element is already in the set (line 69). If so, the method returns false. The method then checks whether the size exceeds the load-factor threshold (line 72). If so, the program invokes rehash() (line 76) to increase the capacity and store elements into the new larger hash table.

The rehash() method first copies all elements in a list (line 197), doubles the capacity (line 198), obtains a new threshold (line 198), creates a new hash table (line 199), and resets
the size to 0 (line 200). The method then copies the elements into the new larger hash table (lines 202–204). The rehash method takes $O(\text{capacity})$ time. If no rehash is performed, the add method takes $O(1)$ time to add a new element.

The remove(element) method removes the specified element in the set (lines 95–114). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The size() method simply returns the number of elements in the set (lines 122–124). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

The iterator() method returns an instance of java.util.Iterator. The MyHashSetIterator class implements java.util.Iterator to create a forward iterator. When a MyHashSetIterator is constructed, it copies all the elements in the set to a list (line 141). The variable current points to the element in the list. Initially, current is 0 (line 135), which points to the first element in the list. MyHashSetIterator implements the methods hasNext(), next(), and remove() in java.util.Iterator. Invoking hasNext() returns true if current < list.size(). Invoking next() returns the current element and moves current to point to the next element (line 153). Invoking remove() removes the current element in the iterator from the set.

The hash() method invokes the supplementalHash to ensure that the hashing is evenly distributed to produce an index for the hash table (lines 166–174). This method takes $O(1)$ time.

Table 28.2 summarizes the time complexity of the methods in MyHashSet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clear()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contains(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remove(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isEmpty()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iterator()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rehash()</td>
<td>$O(\text{capacity})$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listing 28.6 gives a test program that uses MyHashSet.

**LISTING 28.6 TestMyHashSet.java**

```java
public class TestMyHashSet {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a MyHashSet
        MySet<String> set = new MyHashSet<String>();
        set.add("Smith");
        set.add("Anderson");
        set.add("Lewis");
        set.add("Cook");
        set.add("Smith");

        System.out.println("Elements in set: " + set);
        System.out.println("Number of elements in set: " + set.size());
        System.out.println("Is Smith in set? " + set.contains("Smith"));
    }
}
```
The program creates a set using `MyHashSet` (line 4) and adds five elements to the set (lines 5–9). Line 5 adds `Smith` and line 9 adds `Smith` again. Since only nonduplicate elements are stored in the set, `Smith` appears in the set only once. The set actually has four elements. The program displays the elements (line 11), gets its size (line 12), checks whether the set contains a specified element (line 13), and removes an element (line 15). Since the elements in a set are iterable, a for-each loop is used to traverse all elements in the set (lines 17–18). Finally, the program clears the set (line 20) and displays an empty set (line 21).

28.25 Why can you use a for-each loop to traverse the elements in a set?

28.26 Describe how the `add(e)` method is implemented in the `MyHashSet` class.

28.27 In Listing 28.5, the `remove` method in the iterator removes the current element from the set. It also removes the current element from the internal list (line 161):

```java
list.remove(current); // Remove current element from the list
```

Is this necessary?

## Key Terms

- associative array 998
- cluster 1002
- dictionary 998
- double hashing 1003
- hash code 999
- hash function 998
- hash map 1016
- hash set 1016
- hash table 998
- linear probing 1001
- load factor 1005
- open addressing 1001
- perfect hash function 998
- polynomial hash code 1000
- quadratic probing 1002
- rehashing 1005
- secondary clustering 1003
- separate chaining 1005

## Chapter Summary

1. A map is a data structure that stores entries. Each entry contains two parts: a key and a value. The key is also called a search key, which is used to search for the corresponding value. You can implement a map to obtain $O(1)$ time complexity on searching, retrieval, insertion, and deletion using the hashing technique.
2. A set is a data structure that stores elements. You can use the hashing technique to implement a set to achieve $O(1)$ time complexity on searching, insertion, and deletion for a set.

3. Hashing is a technique that retrieves the value using the index obtained from a key without performing a search. A typical hash function first converts a search key to an integer value called a hash code, then compresses the hash code into an index to the hash table.

4. A collision occurs when two keys are mapped to the same index in a hash table. Generally, there are two ways for handling collisions: open addressing and separate chaining.

5. Open addressing is the process of finding an open location in the hash table in the event of collision. Open addressing has several variations: linear probing, quadratic probing, and double hashing.

6. The separate chaining scheme places all entries with the same hash index into the same location, rather than finding new locations. Each location in the separate chaining scheme is called a bucket. A bucket is a container that holds multiple entries.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

**28.1** (Implement MyMap using open addressing with linear probing) Create a new concrete class that implements MyMap using open addressing with linear probing. For simplicity, use $f(key) = key \mod size$ as the hash function, where size is the hash-table size. Initially, the hash-table size is 4. The table size is doubled whenever the load factor exceeds the threshold (0.5).

**28.2** (Implement MyMap using open addressing with quadratic probing) Create a new concrete class that implements MyMap using open addressing with quadratic probing. For simplicity, use $f(key) = key \mod size$ as the hash function, where size is the hash-table size. Initially, the hash-table size is 4. The table size is doubled whenever the load factor exceeds the threshold (0.5).

**28.3** (Implement MyMap using open addressing with double hashing) Create a new concrete class that implements MyMap using open addressing with double hashing. For simplicity, use $f(key) = key \mod size$ as the hash function, where size is the hash-table size. Initially, the hash-table size is 4. The table size is doubled whenever the load factor exceeds the threshold (0.5).

**28.4** (Modify MyHashMap with duplicate keys) Modify MyHashMap to allow duplicate keys for entries. You need to modify the implementation for the put(key, value) method. Also add a new method named getAll(key) that returns a set of values that match the key in the map.

**28.5** (Implement MyHashSet using MyHashMap) Implement MyHashSet using MyHashMap. Note that you can create entries with (key, key), rather than (key, value).
**28.6** *(Animate linear probing)* Write a Java applet that animates linear probing, as shown in Figure 28.3. You can change the initial size of the hash-table in the applet. Assume the load-factor threshold is 0.75.

**28.7** *(Animate separate chaining)* Write a Java applet that animates MyHashMap, as shown in Figure 28.8. You can change the initial size of the table. Assume the load-factor threshold is 0.75.

**28.8** *(Animate quadratic probing)* Write a Java applet that animates quadratic probing, as shown in Figure 28.5. You can change the initial size of the hash-table in the applet. Assume the load-factor threshold is 0.75.

**28.9** *(Compare MyHashSet and MyArrayList)* MyArrayList is defined in Listing 26.3. Write a program that generates 1000000 random integers between 0 and 999999, shuffles them, and stores them in a MyArrayList and in a MyHashSet. Generate a list of 1000000 random integers between 0 and 1999999. For each number in the list, test if it is in the array list and in the hash set. Run your program to display the total test time for the array list and for the hash set.
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AVL Trees

Objectives

- To know what an AVL tree is (§29.1).
- To understand how to rebalance a tree using the LL rotation, LR rotation, RR rotation, and RL rotation (§29.2).
- To design the `AVLTree` class by extending the `BST` class (§29.3).
- To insert elements into an AVL tree (§29.4).
- To implement tree rebalancing (§29.5).
- To delete elements from an AVL tree (§29.6).
- To implement the `AVLTree` class (§29.7).
- To test the `AVLTree` class (§29.8).
- To analyze the complexity of search, insertion, and deletion operations in AVL trees (§29.9).
Chapter 29 AVL Trees

29.1 Introduction

**AVL Tree is a balanced binary search tree.**

Chapter 27 introduced binary search trees. The search, insertion, and deletion times for a binary tree depend on the height of the tree. In the worst case, the height is \( O(n) \). If a tree is *perfectly balanced*—i.e., a complete binary tree—its height is \( \log n \). Can we maintain a perfectly balanced tree? Yes, but doing so will be costly. The compromise is to maintain a *well-balanced tree*—that is, the heights of every node’s two subtrees are about the same. This chapter introduces AVL trees. Web Chapters 47 and 48 introduce 2-4 trees and red-black trees.

**AVL trees** are well balanced. AVL trees were invented in 1962 by two Russian computer scientists, G. M. Adelson-Velsky and E. M. Landis (hence the name AVL). In an AVL tree, the difference between the heights of every node’s two subtrees is 0 or 1. It can be shown that the maximum height of an AVL tree is \( O(\log n) \).

The process for inserting or deleting an element in an AVL tree is the same as in a regular binary search tree, except that you may have to rebalance the tree after an insertion or deletion operation. The *balance factor* of a node is the height of its right subtree minus the height of its left subtree. A node is said to be *balanced* if its balance factor is -1, 0, or 1. A node is considered *left-heavy* if its balance factor is -1, and *right-heavy* if its balance factor is +1.

**Pedagogical Note**

For an interactive GUI demo to see how an AVL tree works, go to [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/AVLTreeAnimation.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/AVLTreeAnimation.html), as shown in Figure 29.1.

![AVL Tree Animation](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/AVLTreeAnimation.html)

**Figure 29.1** The animation tool enables you to insert, delete, and search elements.

29.2 Rebalancing Trees

**After inserting or deleting an element from an AVL tree, if the tree becomes unbalanced, perform a rotation operation to rebalance the tree.**

If a node is not balanced after an insertion or deletion operation, you need to rebalance it. The process of rebalancing a node is called *rotation*. There are four possible rotations: LL, RR, LR, and RL.

**LL rotation:** An **LL imbalance** occurs at a node \( A \), such that \( A \) has a balance factor of -2 and a left child \( B \) with a balance factor of -1 or 0, as shown in Figure 29.2a. This type of imbalance can be fixed by performing a single right rotation at \( A \), as shown in Figure 29.2b.

**RR rotation:** An **RR imbalance** occurs at a node \( A \), such that \( A \) has a balance factor of +2 and a right child \( B \) with a balance factor of +1 or 0, as shown in Figure 29.3a. This
29.2 Rebalancing Trees

A node T2's height is $h$ or $h + 1$.

**FIGURE 29.2** An LL rotation fixes an LL imbalance.

**FIGURE 29.3** An RR rotation fixes an RR imbalance.

Type of imbalance can be fixed by performing a single left rotation at A, as shown in Figure 29.3b.

**LR rotation**: An LR imbalance occurs at a node A, such that A has a balance factor of $-2$ and a left child B with a balance factor of $+1$, as shown in Figure 29.4a. Assume B’s right child is C. This type of imbalance can be fixed by performing a double rotation at A (first a single left rotation at B and then a single right rotation at A), as shown in Figure 29.4b.

**RL rotation**: An RL imbalance occurs at a node A, such that A has a balance factor of $+2$ and a right child B with a balance factor of $-1$, as shown in Figure 29.5a. Assume B’s left child is C. This type of imbalance can be fixed by performing a double rotation at A (first a single right rotation at B and then a single left rotation at A), as shown in Figure 29.5b.

29.1 What is an AVL tree? Describe the following terms: balance factor, left-heavy, and right-heavy.

29.2 Show the balance factor of each node in the trees shown in Figure 29.6.

29.3 Describe LL rotation, RR rotation, LR rotation, and RL rotation for an AVL tree.
T2 and T3 can be different heights, but at least one must have height of $h$. 

FIGURE 29.4 An LR rotation fixes an LR imbalance.

T2 and T3 can be different heights, but at least one must have height of $h$. 

FIGURE 29.5 An RL rotation fixes an RL imbalance.

A balance factor determines whether a node is balanced.

FIGURE 29.6 A balance factor determines whether a node is balanced.
### 29.3 Designing Classes for AVL Trees

*Since an AVL tree is a binary search tree, AVLTree is designed as a subclass of BST.*

An AVL tree is a binary tree, so you can define the `AVLTree` class to extend the `BST` class, as shown in Figure 29.7. The `BST` and `TreeNode` classes are defined in Section 27.2.5.

![Figure 29.7](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AVLTreeNode&lt;E&gt;</th>
<th>BST&lt;E&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#height: int</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **AVLTreeNode**
  - `+AVLTree()`: Creates an empty AVL tree.
  - `+AVLTree(objects: E[])`: Creates an AVL tree from an array of objects.
  - `#createNewNode()`: AVLTreeNode.
  - `+insert(e: E): boolean`: Overrides this method to create an AVLTreeNode.
  - `+delete(e: E): boolean`: Returns true if the element is added successfully.
  - `updateHeight(node: AVLTreeNode<E>): void`: Returns true if the element is removed from the tree successfully.
  - `balancePath(e: E): void`: Resets the height of the specified node.
  - `balanceFactor(node: AVLTreeNode<E>): int`: Balances the nodes in the path from the node for the element to the root if needed.
  - `+search(): boolean`: Performs RL balance.

In order to balance the tree, you need to know each node’s height. For convenience, store the height of each node in `AVLTreeNode` and define `AVLTreeNode` to be a subclass of `BST.TreeNode`. Note that `TreeNode` is defined as a static inner class in `BST`. `AVLTreeNode` will be defined as a static inner class in `AVLTree`. `TreeNode` contains the data fields `element`, `left`, and `right`, which are inherited by `AVLTreeNode`. Thus, `AVLTreeNode` contains four data fields, as shown in Figure 29.8.

In the `BST` class, the `createNewNode()` method creates a `TreeNode` object. This method is overridden in the `AVLTree` class to create an `AVLTreeNode`. Note that the return type of the `createNewNode()` method in the `BST` class is `TreeNode`, but the return type of the `createNewNode()` method in the `AVLTree` class is `AVLTreeNode`. This is fine, since `AVLTreeNode` is a subclass of `TreeNode`.

Searching for an element in an `AVLTree` is the same as searching in a regular binary tree, so the `search` method defined in the `BST` class also works for `AVLTree`.

The `insert` and `delete` methods are overridden to insert and delete an element and perform rebalancing operations if necessary to ensure that the tree is balanced.
What are the data fields in the `AVLTreeNode` class?

True or false: `AVLTreeNode` is a subclass of `TreeNode`?

True or false: `AVLTree` is a subclass of `BST`.

### 29.4 Overriding the `insert` Method

Inserting an element into an AVL tree is the same as inserting it to a BST, except that the tree may need to be rebalanced.

A new element is always inserted as a leaf node. As a result of adding a new node, the heights of the new leaf node's ancestors may increase. After inserting a new node, check the nodes along the path from the new leaf node up to the root. If an unbalanced node is found, perform an appropriate rotation using the algorithm in Listing 29.1.

#### Listing 29.1 Balancing Nodes on a Path

```java
    balancePath(E e) {
        Get the path from the node that contains element e to the root, as illustrated in Figure 29.9;
        for each node A in the path leading to the root {
            Update the height of A;
            Let parentOfA denote the parent of A, which is the next node in the path, or null if A is the root;
            is balanced? switch (balanceFactor(A)) {
                case -2: if balanceFactor(A.left) == -1 or 0
                    Perform LL rotation; // See Figure 29.2
                else break;
                case +2: if balanceFactor(A.right) == +1 or 0
                    Perform RR rotation; // See Figure 29.3
                else Perform RL rotation; // See Figure 29.5
                } // End of switch
            } // End of for
        } // End of method
    }
```

The algorithm considers each node in the path from the new leaf node to the root. Update the height of the node on the path. If a node is balanced, no action is needed. If a node is not balanced, perform an appropriate rotation.
29.5 Implementing Rotations

An unbalanced tree becomes balanced by performing an appropriate rotation operation.

Section 29.2, Rebalancing Trees, illustrated how to perform rotations at a node. Listing 29.2 gives the algorithm for the LL rotation, as illustrated in Figure 29.2.

**Listing 29.2 LL Rotation Algorithm**

```
1  balanceLL(TreeNode A, TreeNode parentOfA) {
2      Let B be the left child of A.
3
4      if (A is the root)
5          Let B be the new root
6      else {
7          if (A is a left child of parentOfA)
8              Let B be a left child of parentOfA;
9          else
10              Let B be a right child of parentOfA;
11      }
12
13      Make T2 the left subtree of A by assigning B.right to A.left;
14      Make A the right child of B by assigning A to B.right;
15      Update the height of node A and node B;
16  } // End of method
```

**Figure 29.9** The nodes along the path from the new leaf node may become unbalanced.

29.7 For the AVL tree in Figure 29.6a, show the new AVL tree after adding element 40. What rotation do you perform in order to rebalance the tree? Which node was unbalanced?

29.8 For the AVL tree in Figure 29.6a, show the new AVL tree after adding element 50. What rotation do you perform in order to rebalance the tree? Which node was unbalanced?

29.9 For the AVL tree in Figure 29.6a, show the new AVL tree after adding element 80. What rotation do you perform in order to rebalance the tree? Which node was unbalanced?

29.10 For the AVL tree in Figure 29.6a, show the new AVL tree after adding element 89. What rotation do you perform in order to rebalance the tree? Which node was unbalanced?
Note that the height of nodes A and B can be changed, but the heights of other nodes in the tree are not changed. You can implement the RR, LR, and RL rotations in a similar manner.

### 29.6 Implementing the delete Method

Deleting an element from an AVL tree is the same as deleting it from a BST, except that the tree may need to be rebalanced.

As discussed in Section 27.3, Deleting Elements from a BST, to delete an element from a binary tree, the algorithm first locates the node that contains the element. Let current point to the node that contains the element in the binary tree and parent point to the parent of the current node. The current node may be a left child or a right child of the parent node. Two cases arise when deleting an element.

**Case 1:** The current node does not have a left child, as shown in Figure 27.10a. To delete the current node, simply connect the parent node with the right child of the current node, as shown in Figure 27.10b.

The height of the nodes along the path from the parent node up to the root may have decreased. To ensure that the tree is balanced, invoke

```java
balancePath(parent.element); // Defined in Listing 29.1
```

**Case 2:** The current node has a left child. Let rightMost point to the node that contains the largest element in the left subtree of the current node and parentOfRightMost point to the parent node of the rightMost node, as shown in Figure 27.12a. The rightMost node cannot have a right child but it may have a left child. Replace the element value in the current node with the one in the rightMost node, connect the parentOfRightMost node with the left child of the rightMost node, and delete the rightMost node, as shown in Figure 27.12b.

The height of the nodes along the path from parentOfRightMost up to the root may have decreased. To ensure that the tree is balanced, invoke

```java
balancePath(parentOfRightMost); // Defined in Listing 29.1
```

### 29.7 The AVLTree Class

The AVLTree class extends the BST class to override the insert and delete methods to rebalance the tree if necessary.

Listing 29.3 gives the complete source code for the AVLTree class.
LISTING 29.3  AVLTree.java

```java
public class AVLTree<E extends Comparable<E>> extends BST<E> {

    /** Create an empty AVL tree */
    public AVLTree() {
    }

    /** Create an AVL tree from an array of objects */
    public AVLTree(E[] objects) {
        super(objects);
    }

    @Override /** Override createNewNode to create an AVLTreeNode */
    public AVLTreeNode<E> createNewNode(E e) {
        return new AVLTreeNode<E>(e);
    }

    @Override /** Insert an element and rebalance if necessary */
    public boolean insert(E e) {
        boolean successful = super.insert(e);
        if (!successful)
            return false; // e is already in the tree
        else {
            balancePath(e); // Balance from e to the root if necessary
        }
        return true; // e is inserted
    }

    /** Update the height of a specified node */
    private void updateHeight(AVLTreeNode<E> node) {
        if (node.left == null && node.right == null) // node is a leaf
            node.height = 0;
        else if (node.left == null) // node has no left subtree
            node.height = 1 + ((AVLTreeNode<E>)(node.right)).height;
        else if (node.right == null) // node has no right subtree
            node.height = 1 + ((AVLTreeNode<E>)(node.left)).height;
        else
            node.height = 1 + Math.max(((AVLTreeNode<E>)(node.right)).height,
                                      ((AVLTreeNode<E>)(node.left)).height);
    }

    /** Balance the nodes in the path from the specified
     * node to the root if necessary */
    private void balancePath(E e) {
        java.util.ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path = path(e);
        for (int i = path.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
            AVLTreeNode<E> A = (AVLTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i));
            updateHeight(A);
            AVLTreeNode<E> parentOfA = (A == root) ? null :
                (AVLTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 1));
            switch (balanceFactor(A)) {
                case -2:
                    if (balanceFactor((AVLTreeNode<E>)(A.left)) <= 0) {
                        balanceLL(A, parentOfA); // Perform LL rotation
                    }
                case 2:
                    if (balanceFactor((AVLTreeNode<E>)(A.right)) >= 0) {
                        balanceRR(A, parentOfA); // Perform RR rotation
                    }
            }
        }
    }
}
```

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- no-arg constructor
- constructor
- create AVL tree node
- override insert
- balance tree
- update node height
- update height
- get path
- consider a node
- get height
- balance nodes
- left-heavy
- LL rotation
**LR rotation**

59             balanceLR(A, parentOfA); // Perform LR rotation
60          }
61          break;
62  case +2:  
63          if (balanceFactor((AVLTreeNode<E>)A.right) >= 0) {
64              balanceRR(A, parentOfA); // Perform RR rotation
65          }
66          else {
67              balanceRL(A, parentOfA); // Perform RL rotation
68          }
69       }
70    }
71  }
72
/** Return the balance factor of the node */
73  private int balanceFactor(AVLTreeNode<E> node) {
74      if (node.right == null) // node has no right subtree
75          return -node.height;
76      else if (node.left == null) // node has no left subtree
77          return +node.height;
78      else
79          return ((AVLTreeNode<E>)node.right).height -
80             ((AVLTreeNode<E>)node.left).height;
81  }
82
/** Balance LL (see Figure 29.2) */
83  private void balanceLL(TreeNode<E> A, TreeNode<E> parentOfA) {
84      TreeNode<E> B = A.left; // A is left-heavy and B is left-heavy
85      if (A == root) {
86          root = B;
87      }
88      else {
89          if (parentOfA.left == A) {
90              parentOfA.left = B;
91          }
92          else {
93              parentOfA.right = B;
94          }
95      }
96
97      A.left = B.right; // Make T2 the left subtree of A
98      B.right = A; // Make A the left child of B
99  }
100  updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)A);
101  updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)B);
102  }
103
/** Balance LR (see Figure 29.4) */
104  private void balanceLR(TreeNode<E> A, TreeNode<E> parentOfA) {
105      TreeNode<E> B = A.left; // A is left-heavy
106      TreeNode<E> C = B.right; // B is right-heavy
107      if (A == root) {
108          root = C;
109      }
110      else {
111          if (parentOfA.left == A) {
112              parentOfA.left = C;
113          }
114          else {
115              parentOfA.right = C;
116          }
117      }
118  }
29.7 The AVLTree Class

parentOfA.right = C;

A.left = C.right; // Make T3 the left subtree of A
B.right = C.left; // Make T2 the right subtree of B
C.left = B;
C.right = A;

// Adjust heights
updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)A);
updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)B);
updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)C);

/** Balance RR (see Figure 29.3) */
private void balanceRR(TreeNode<E> A, TreeNode<E> parentOfA) {
    TreeNode<E> B = A.right; // A is right-heavy and B is right-heavy
    if (A == root) {
        root = B;
    } else {
        if (parentOfA.left == A) {
            parentOfA.left = B;
        } else {
            parentOfA.right = B;
        }
    }
    A.right = B.left; // Make T2 the right subtree of A
    B.left = A;
    updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)A);
    updateHeight((AVLTreeNode<E>)B);
}

/** Balance RL (see Figure 29.5) */
private void balanceRL(TreeNode<E> A, TreeNode<E> parentOfA) {
    TreeNode<E> B = A.right; // A is right-heavy
    TreeNode<E> C = B.left; // B is left-heavy
    if (A == root) {
        root = C;
    } else {
        if (parentOfA.left == A) {
            parentOfA.left = C;
        } else {
            parentOfA.right = C;
        }
    }
    A.right = C.left; // Make T2 the right subtree of A
    B.left = C.right; // Make T3 the left subtree of B
    C.left = A;
    C.right = B;
    // Adjust heights
public boolean delete(E element) {
    if (root == null)
        return false; // Element is not in the tree

    // Locate the node to be deleted and also locate its parent node
    TreeNode<E> parent = null;
    TreeNode<E> current = root;
    while (current != null) {
        if (element.compareTo(current element) < 0) {
            parent = current;
            current = current.left;
        } else if (element.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
            parent = current;
            current = current.right;
        } else
            break; // Element is in the tree pointed by current
    }

    if (current == null)
        return false; // Element is not in the tree

    // Case 1: current has no left children (See Figure 27.10)
    if (current.left == null) {
        // Connect the parent with the right child of the current node
        if (parent == null) {
            root = current.right;
        } else {
            if (element.compareTo(parent.element) < 0)
                parent.left = current.right;
            else
                parent.right = current.right;
        }
        // Balance the tree if necessary
        balancePath(parent.element);
    } else {
        // Case 2: The current node has a left child
        // Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of
        // the current node and also its parent
        TreeNode<E> parentOfRightMost = current;
        TreeNode<E> rightMost = current.left;
        while (rightMost.right != null) {
            parentOfRightMost = rightMost;
            rightMost = rightMost.right; // Keep going to the right
        }
        // Replace the element in current by the element in rightMost
        // Connect the parent with the right child of the current node
        if (parent == null) {
            root = rightMost;
        } else {
            if (element.compareTo(parent.element) < 0)
                parent.left = rightMost;
            else
                parent.right = rightMost;
        }
        // Balance the tree if necessary
        balancePath(parent.element);
    }
}
29.7 The AVLTree Class

The AVLTree class extends BST. Like the BST class, the AVLTree class has a no-arg constructor that constructs an empty AVLTree (lines 3–4) and a constructor that creates an initial AVLTree from an array of elements (lines 7–9).

The createNewNode() method defined in the BST class creates a TreeNode. This method is overridden to return an AVLTreeNode (lines 12–14).

The insert method in AVLTree is overridden in lines 17–26. The method first invokes the insert method in BST, then invokes balancePath(e) (line 22) to ensure that the tree is balanced.

The balancePath method first gets the nodes on the path from the node that contains element e to the root (line 46). For each node in the path, update its height (line 49), check its balance factor (line 53), and perform appropriate rotations if necessary (lines 53–69).

Four methods for performing rotations are defined in lines 85–182. Each method is invoked with two TreeNode arguments—A and parentOfA—to perform an appropriate rotation at node A. How each rotation is performed is illustrated in Figures 29.2–29.5. After the rotation, the heights of nodes A, B, and C are updated for the LL and RR rotations (lines 102, 129, 152, 179).

The delete method in AVLTree is overridden in lines 187–264. The method is the same as the one implemented in the BST class, except that you have to rebalance the nodes after deletion in two cases (lines 33–34).

29.15 Why is the createNewNode method defined protected?

29.16 When is the updateHeight method invoked? When is the balanceFactor method invoked? When is the balancePath method invoked?

29.17 What are data fields in the AVLTree class?

29.18 In the insert and delete methods, once you have performed a rotation to balance a node in the tree, is it possible that there are still unbalanced nodes?
29.8 Testing the AVLTree Class

This section gives an example of using the AVLTree class.

Listing 29.4 gives a test program. The program creates an AVLTree initialized with an array of the integers 25, 20, and 5 (lines 4–5), inserts elements in lines 9–14, and deletes elements in lines 22–28. Since AVLTree is a subclass of BST and the elements in a BST are iterable, the program uses a for-each loop to traverse all the elements in lines 33–34.

**Listing 29.4 TestAVLTree.java**

```java
public class TestAVLTree {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        AVLTree<Integer> tree = new AVLTree<Integer>(new Integer[]{25, 20, 5});
        System.out.print("After inserting 25, 20, 5:");
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(34);
        System.out.print("After inserting 34, 50:");
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(30);
        System.out.print("After inserting 30");
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(10);
        System.out.print("After inserting 10");
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(34);
        tree.delete(30);
        tree.delete(50);
        System.out.print("After removing 34, 30, 50:");
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(5);
        System.out.print("After removing 5:");
        printTree(tree);

        System.out.print("Traverse the elements in the tree: ");
        for (int e : tree) {
            System.out.print(e + " ");
        }
    }

    public static void printTree(BST tree) {
        // Traverse tree
        System.out.print("Inorder (sorted): ");
        tree.inorder();
        System.out.print("Postorder: ");
        tree.postorder();
        System.out.print("Preorder: ");
        tree.preorder();
        System.out.print("The number of nodes is "+ tree.getSize());
    }
}
```
After inserting 25, 20, 5:
Inorder (sorted): 5 20 25
Postorder: 5 25 20
Preorder: 20 5 25
The number of nodes is 3

After inserting 34, 50:
Inorder (sorted): 5 20 25 34 50
Postorder: 5 25 50 34 20
Preorder: 20 5 34 25 50
The number of nodes is 5

After inserting 30
Inorder (sorted): 5 20 25 30 34 50
Postorder: 5 20 30 50 34 25
Preorder: 25 20 5 34 30 50
The number of nodes is 6

After inserting 10
Inorder (sorted): 5 10 20 25 30 34 50
Postorder: 5 20 10 30 50 34 25
Preorder: 25 10 5 20 34 30 50
The number of nodes is 7

After removing 34, 30, 50:
Inorder (sorted): 5 10 20 25
Postorder: 5 20 25 10
Preorder: 10 5 25 20
The number of nodes is 4

After removing 5:
Inorder (sorted): 10 20 25
Postorder: 10 25 20
Preorder: 20 10 25
The number of nodes is 3

Traverse the elements in the tree: 10 20 25

Figure 29.10 shows how the tree evolves as elements are added to the tree. After 25 and 20 are added, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.10a. 5 is inserted as a left child of 20, as shown in Figure 29.10b. The tree is not balanced. It is left-heavy at node 25. Perform an LL rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.10c.

After inserting 34, the tree is shown in Figure 29.10d. After inserting 50, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.10e. The tree is not balanced. It is right-heavy at node 25. Perform an RR rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.10f.

After inserting 30, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.10g. The tree is not balanced. Perform an RL rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.10h.

After inserting 10, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.10i. The tree is not balanced. Perform an LR rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.10j.
Chapter 29  AVL Trees

Figure 29.11 shows how the tree evolves as elements are deleted. After deleting 34, 30, and 50, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.11b. The tree is not balanced. Perform an LL rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.11c.

After deleting 5, the tree is as shown in Figure 29.11d. The tree is not balanced. Perform an RL rotation to result in an AVL tree, as shown in Figure 29.11e.

29.19 Show the change of an AVL tree when inserting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 into the tree, in this order.

29.20 For the tree built in the preceding question, show its change after 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 are deleted from the tree in this order.

29.21 Can you traverse the elements in an AVL tree using a for-each loop?
29.9 AVL Tree Time Complexity Analysis

Since the height of an AVL tree is $O(\log n)$, the time complexity of the search, insert, and delete methods in AVLTree is $O(\log n)$. The time complexity of the search, insert, and delete methods in AVLTree depends on the height of the tree. We can prove that the height of the tree is $O(\log n)$.

Let $G(h)$ denote the minimum number of the nodes in an AVL tree with height $h$. Obviously, $G(1) = 1$ and $G(2) = 2$. The minimum number of nodes in an AVL tree with height $h \geq 3$ must have two minimum subtrees: one with height $h - 1$ and the other with height $h - 2$. Thus,

$$G(h) = G(h - 1) + G(h - 2) + 1$$

Recall that a Fibonacci number at index $i$ can be described using the recurrence relation $F(i) = F(i - 1) + F(i - 2)$. Therefore, the function $G(h)$ is essentially the same as $F(i)$. It can be proven that

$$h < 1.4405 \log(n + 2) - 1.3277$$

where $n$ is the number of nodes in the tree. Hence, the height of an AVL tree is $O(\log n)$.

The search, insert, and delete methods involve only the nodes along a path in the tree. The updateHeight and balanceFactor methods are executed in a constant time for each node in the path. The balancePath method is executed in a constant time for a node in the path. Thus, the time complexity for the search, insert, and delete methods is $O(\log n)$.

29.22 What is the maximum/minimum height for an AVL tree of 3 nodes, 5 nodes, and 7 nodes?

29.23 If an AVL tree has a height of 3, what maximum number of nodes can the tree have? What minimum number of nodes can the tree have?

29.24 If an AVL tree has a height of 4, what maximum number of nodes can the tree have? What minimum number of nodes can the tree have?
**Key Terms**

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**Chapter Summary**

1. An **AVL tree** is a *well-balanced* binary tree. In an AVL tree, the difference between the heights of two subtrees for every node is 0 or 1.

2. The process for inserting or deleting an element in an AVL tree is the same as in a regular binary search tree. The difference is that you may have to rebalance the tree after an insertion or deletion operation.

3. Imbalances in the tree caused by insertions and deletions are rebalanced through subtree rotations at the node of the imbalance.

4. The process of rebalancing a node is called a *rotation*. There are four possible rotations: **LL rotation**, **LR rotation**, **RR rotation**, and **RL rotation**.

5. The height of an AVL tree is $O(\log n)$. Therefore, the time complexities for the search, insert, and delete methods are $O(\log n)$.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

*29.1* *(Display AVL tree graphically)* Write an applet that displays an AVL tree along with its balance factor for each node.

29.2 *(Compare performance)* Write a test program that randomly generates 500,000 numbers and inserts them into a **BST**, reshuffles the 500,000 numbers and performs a search, and reshuffles the numbers again before deleting them from the tree. Write another test program that does the same thing for an **AVLTree**. Compare the execution times of these two programs.

***29.3* *(AVL tree animation)* Write a Java applet that animates the AVL tree insert, delete, and search methods, as shown in Figure 29.1.

**29.4* *(Parent reference for BST)* Suppose that the **TreeNode** class defined in **BST** contains a reference to the node’s parent, as shown in Programming Exercise 27.15. Implement the **AVLTree** class to support this change. Write a test program that adds numbers 1, 2, . . . , 100 to the tree and displays the paths for all leaf nodes.

**29.5* *(The kth smallest element)* You can find the $k$th smallest element in a BST in $O(n)$ time from an inorder iterator. For an AVL tree, you can find it in $O(\log n)$.
time. To achieve this, add a new data field named \texttt{size} in \texttt{AVLTreeNode} to store the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at this node. Note that the size of a node \( v \) is one more than the sum of the sizes of its two children. Figure 29.12 shows an AVL tree and the \texttt{size} value for each node in the tree.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{avl_tree_with_sizes.png}
\caption{The \texttt{size} data field in \texttt{AVLTreeNode} stores the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at the node.}
\end{figure}

In the \texttt{AVLTree} class, add the following method to return the \( k \)th smallest element in the tree.

\begin{verbatim}
public E find(int k)
\end{verbatim}

The method returns \texttt{null} if \( k < 1 \) or \( k > \text{the size of the tree} \). This method can be implemented using the recursive method \texttt{find(k, root)}, which returns the \( k \)th smallest element in the tree with the specified root. Let \( A \) and \( B \) be the left and right children of the root, respectively. Assuming that the tree is not empty and \( k \leq \text{root.size} \), \texttt{find(k, root)} can be recursively defined as follows:

\[
\text{find}(k, \text{root}) =
\begin{cases}
\text{root.element, if } A \text{ is null and } k = 1; \\
B.\text{element, if } A \text{ is null and } k = 2; \\
\text{find}(k, A), \text{if } k \leq A.\text{size}; \\
\text{root.element, if } k = A.\text{size} + 1; \\
\text{find}(k - A.\text{size} - 1, B), \text{if } k > A.\text{size} + 1;
\end{cases}
\]

Modify the \texttt{insert} and \texttt{delete} methods in \texttt{AVLTree} to set the correct value for the \texttt{size} property in each node. The \texttt{insert} and \texttt{delete} methods will still be in \( O(\log n) \) time. The \texttt{find(k)} method can be implemented in \( O(\log n) \) time. Therefore, you can find the \( k \)th smallest element in an AVL tree in \( O(\log n) \) time.
Objectives

- To model real-world problems using graphs and explain the Seven Bridges of Königsberg problem (§30.1).
- To describe the graph terminologies: vertices, edges, simple graphs, weighted/unweighted graphs, and directed/undirected graphs (§30.2).
- To represent vertices and edges using lists, edge arrays, edge objects, adjacency matrices, and adjacency lists (§30.3).
- To model graphs using the `Graph` interface, the `AbstractGraph` class, and the `UnweightedGraph` class (§30.4).
- To display graphs visually (§30.5).
- To represent the traversal of a graph using the `AbstractGraph.Tree` class (§30.6).
- To design and implement depth-first search (§30.7).
- To solve the connected-circle problem using depth-first search (§30.8).
- To design and implement breadth-first search (§30.9).
- To solve the nine-tail problem using breadth-first search (§30.10).
30.1 Introduction

Many real-world problems can be solved using graph algorithms.

Graphs are useful in modeling and solving real-world problems. For example, the problem to find the least number of flights between two cities can be modeled using a graph, where the vertices represent cities and the edges represent the flights between two adjacent cities, as shown in Figure 30.1. The problem of finding the minimal number of connecting flights between two cities is reduced to finding the shortest path between two vertices in a graph.

**Figure 30.1** A graph can be used to model the flights between the cities.

The study of graph problems is known as graph theory. Graph theory was founded by Leonhard Euler in 1736, when he introduced graph terminology to solve the famous Seven Bridges of Königsberg problem. The city of Königsberg, Prussia (now Kaliningrad, Russia), was divided by the Pregel River. There were two islands on the river. The city and islands were connected by seven bridges, as shown in Figure 30.2a. The question is, can one take a walk, cross each bridge exactly once, and return to the starting point? Euler proved that it is not possible.

**Figure 30.2** Seven bridges connected islands and land.

To establish a proof, Euler first abstracted the Königsberg city map by eliminating all streets, producing the sketch shown in Figure 30.2a. Next, he replaced each land mass with a
30.2 Basic Graph Terminologies

A graph consists of vertices, and edges that connect the vertices.

This chapter does not assume that you have any prior knowledge of graph theory or discrete mathematics. We use plain and simple terms to define graphs.

What is a graph? A graph is a mathematical structure that represents relationships among entities in the real world. For example, the graph in Figure 30.1 represents the flights among cities, and the graph in Figure 30.2b represents the bridges among land masses.

A graph consists of a nonempty set of vertices (also known as nodes or points), and a set of edges that connect the vertices. For convenience, we define a graph as $G = (V, E)$, where $V$ represents a set of vertices and $E$ represents a set of edges. For example, $V$ and $E$ for the graph in Figure 30.1 are as follows:

$$V = \{"Seattle", \"San Francisco\", \"Los Angeles\", \"Denver\", \"Kansas City\", \"Chicago\", \"Boston\", \"New York\", \"Atlanta\", \"Miami\", \"Dallas\", \"Houston\"\};$$

$$E = \{\{\"Seattle\", \"San Francisco\"\},\{\"Seattle\", \"Chicago\"\},\{\"Seattle\", \"Denver\"\},\{\"San Francisco\", \"Denver\"\},\ldots\};$$

A graph may be directed or undirected. In a directed graph, each edge has a direction, which indicates that you can move from one vertex to the other through the edge. You can model parent/child relationships using a directed graph, where an edge from vertex A to B indicates that A is a parent of B. Figure 30.3a shows a directed graph.

In an undirected graph, you can move in both directions between vertices. The graph in Figure 30.1 is undirected.

Edges may be weighted or unweighted. For example, you can assign a weight for each edge in the graph in Figure 30.1 to indicate the flight time between the two cities.
Two vertices in a graph are said to be adjacent if they are connected by the same edge. Similarly, two edges are said to be adjacent if they are connected to the same vertex. An edge in a graph that joins two vertices is said to be incident to both vertices. The degree of a vertex is the number of edges incident to it.

Two vertices are called neighbors if they are adjacent. Similarly, two edges are called neighbors if they are adjacent.

A loop is an edge that links a vertex to itself. If two vertices are connected by two or more edges, these edges are called parallel edges. A simple graph is one that doesn’t have any loops or parallel edges. In a complete graph, every two pairs of vertices are connected, as shown in Figure 30.3b.

A graph is connected if there exists a path between any two vertices in the graph. A subgraph of a graph \( G \) is a graph whose vertex set is a subset of that of \( G \) and whose edge set is a subset of that of \( G \). For example, the graph in Figure 30.3c is a subgraph of the graph in Figure 30.3b.

Assume that the graph is connected and undirected. A connected graph is a tree if it does not have cycles. A cycle is a closed path that starts from a vertex and ends at the same vertex. A spanning tree of a graph \( G \) is a connected subgraph of \( G \) and the subgraph is a tree that contains all vertices in \( G \).

### Pedagogical Note

Before we introduce graph algorithms and applications, it is helpful to get acquainted with graphs using the interactive tool at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/GraphLearningTool.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/GraphLearningTool.html), as shown in Figure 30.4. The tool allows you to add/remove/move vertices and draw edges using mouse gestures. You can also find depth-first search (DFS) trees and breadth-first search (BFS) trees, and the shortest path between two vertices.

![Graph Learning Tool](https://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/GraphLearningTool.html)

**Figure 30.4** You can use the tool to create a graph with mouse gestures and show DFS/BFS trees and shortest paths.
30.1 What is the famous Seven Bridges of Königsberg problem?

30.2 What is a graph? Explain the following terms: undirected graph, directed graph, weighted graph, degree of a vertex, parallel edge, simple graph, complete graph, connected graph, cycle, subgraph, tree, and spanning tree.

30.3 How many edges are in a complete graph with 5 vertices? How many edges are in a tree of 5 vertices?

30.4 How many edges are in a complete graph with $n$ vertices? How many edges are in a tree of $n$ vertices?

30.3 Representing Graphs

Representing a graph is to store its vertices and edges in a program. The data structure for storing a graph is arrays or lists.

To write a program that processes and manipulates graphs, you have to store or represent data for the graphs in the computer.

30.3.1 Representing Vertices

The vertices can be stored in an array or a list. For example, you can store all the city names in the graph in Figure 30.1 using the following array:

```java
```

**Note**

The vertices can be objects of any type. For example, you can consider cities as objects that contain the information such as its name, population, and mayor. Thus, you may define vertices as follows:

```java
City city0 = new City("Seattle", 608660, "Mike McGinn");
...;
City city11 = new City("Houston", 2099451, "Annise Parker");
City[] vertices = {city0, city1, ..., city11};
```

```java
public class City {
    private String cityName;
    private int population;
    private String mayor;

    public City(String cityName, int population, String mayor) {
        this.cityName = cityName;
        this.population = population;
        this.mayor = mayor;
    }

    public String getCityName() {
        return cityName;
    }

    public int getPopulation() {
        return population;
    }
```
public String getMayor() {
    return mayor;
}

public void setMayor(String mayor) {
    this.mayor = mayor;
}

public void setPopulation(int population) {
    this.population = population;
}
}

The vertices can be conveniently labeled using natural numbers 0, 1, 2, ..., \( n - 1 \), for a graph for \( n \) vertices. Thus, \texttt{vertices[0]} represents "Seattle", \texttt{vertices[1]} represents "San Francisco", and so on, as shown in Figure 30.5.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
vertices[0] & Seattle \\
vertices[1] & San Francisco \\
vertices[2] & Los Angeles \\
vertices[3] & Denver \\
vertices[4] & Kansas City \\
vertices[5] & Chicago \\
vertices[6] & Boston \\
vertices[8] & Atlanta \\
vertices[9] & Miami \\
vertices[10] & Dallas \\
vertices[11] & Houston \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{An array stores the vertex names.}
\end{figure}

\textbf{Note}
You can reference a vertex by its name or its index, whichever is more convenient. Obviously, it is easy to access a vertex via its index in a program.

30.3.2 Representing Edges: Edge Array
The edges can be represented using a two-dimensional array. For example, you can store all the edges in the graph in Figure 30.1 using the following array:

\begin{verbatim}
int[][] edges = {
    {0, 1}, {0, 3}, {0, 5},
    {1, 0}, {1, 2}, {1, 3},
};
\end{verbatim}
This representation is known as the edge array. The vertices and edges in Figure 30.3a can be represented as follows:

```java
String[] names = {"Peter", "Jane", "Mark", "Cindy", "Wendy"};
int[][] edges = {
    {0, 2}, {1, 2}, {2, 4}, {3, 4}, {3, 5},
    {4, 2}, {4, 3}, {4, 5}, {4, 7}, {4, 8}, {4, 10},
    {5, 0}, {5, 3}, {5, 4}, {5, 6}, {5, 7},
    {6, 5}, {6, 7},
    {7, 4}, {7, 5}, {7, 6}, {7, 8},
    {8, 4}, {8, 7}, {8, 9}, {8, 10}, {8, 11},
    {9, 8}, {9, 11},
    {10, 2}, {10, 4}, {10, 8}, {10, 11},
    {11, 8}, {11, 9}, {11, 10}
};
```

30.3.3 Representing Edges: Edge Objects

Another way to represent the edges is to define edges as objects and store the edges in a `java.util.ArrayList`. The `Edge` class can be defined as follows:

```java
public class Edge {
    int u;
    int v;

    public Edge(int u, int v) {
        this.u = u;
        this.v = v;
    }
}
```

For example, you can store all the edges in the graph in Figure 30.1 using the following list:

```java
java.util.ArrayList<Edge> list = new java.util.ArrayList<Edge>();
list.add(new Edge(0, 1));
list.add(new Edge(0, 3));
list.add(new Edge(0, 5));
...
```

Storing `Edge` objects in an `ArrayList` is useful if you don’t know the edges in advance.

While representing edges using an edge array or `Edge` objects in Section 30.3.2 and earlier in this section may be intuitive for input, it’s not efficient for internal processing. The next two sections introduce the representation of graphs using adjacency matrices and adjacency lists. These two data structures are efficient for processing graphs.

30.3.4 Representing Edges: Adjacency Matrices

Assume that the graph has \( n \) vertices. You can use a two-dimensional \( n \times n \) matrix, say `adjacencyMatrix`, to represent the edges. Each element in the array is 0 or 1. `adjacencyMatrix[i][j]` is 1 if there is an edge from vertex \( i \) to vertex \( j \); otherwise, `adjacencyMatrix[i][j]` is 0. If the graph is undirected, the matrix is symmetric, because `adjacencyMatrix[i][j]` is the same as `adjacencyMatrix[j][i]`. For
example, the edges in the graph in Figure 30.1 can be represented using an adjacency matrix as follows:

```java
int[][] adjacencyMatrix = {
    {0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // Seattle
    {1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // San Francisco
    {0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // Los Angeles
    {1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // Denver
    {0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1}, // Kansas City
    {1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // Chicago
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // Boston
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0}, // New York
    {0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1}, // Atlanta
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1}, // Miami
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0} // Houston
};
```

Note
Since the matrix is symmetric for an undirected graph, to save storage you can use a ragged array.

The adjacency matrix for the directed graph in Figure 30.3a can be represented as follows:

```java
int[][] a = {
    {0, 0, 1, 0, 0}, // Peter
    {0, 0, 1, 0, 0}, // Jane
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 1}, // Mark
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 1}, // Cindy
    {0, 0, 0, 0, 0} // Wendy
};
```

30.3.5 Representing Edges: Adjacency Lists
To represent edges using adjacency lists, define an array of lists. The array has $n$ entries, and each entry is a linked list. The linked list for vertex $i$ contains all the vertices $j$ such that there is an edge from vertex $i$ to vertex $j$. For example, to represent the edges in the graph in Figure 30.1, you can create an array of linked lists as follows:

```java
java.util.LinkedList[] neighbors = new java.util.LinkedList[12];
neighbors[0] contains all vertices adjacent to vertex 0 (i.e., Seattle), neighbors[1] contains all vertices adjacent to vertex 1 (i.e., San Francisco), and so on, as shown in Figure 30.6.

To represent the edges in the graph in Figure 30.3a, you can create an array of linked lists as follows:

```java
java.util.LinkedList[] neighbors = new java.util.LinkedList[5];
neighbors[0] contains all vertices pointed from vertex 0 via directed edges, neighbors[1] contains all vertices pointed from vertex 1 via directed edges, and so on, as shown in Figure 30.7. Wendy does not point to any vertex, so neighbors[4] is null.
```

Note
You can represent a graph using an adjacency matrix or adjacency lists. Which one is better? If the graph is dense (i.e., there are a lot of edges), using an adjacency matrix is preferred. If the graph is very sparse (i.e., very few edges), using adjacency lists is better, because using an adjacency matrix would waste a lot of space.
Both adjacency matrices and adjacency lists can be used in a program to make algorithms more efficient. For example, it takes $O(1)$ constant time to check whether two vertices are connected using an adjacency matrix, and it takes linear time $O(m)$ to print all edges in a graph using adjacency lists, where $m$ is the number of edges.

Note

Adjacency matrices and adjacency lists are two common representations for graphs, but they are not the only ways to represent graphs. For example, you can define a vertex as an object with a method `getNeighbors()` that returns all its neighbors. For simplicity, the text will use adjacency lists to represent graphs. Other representations will be explored in the exercises.

For flexibility and simplicity, we will use array lists to represent arrays. Also, we will use array lists instead of linked lists, because our algorithms only require searching for adjacent vertices in the list. Using array lists is more efficient for our algorithms. Using array lists, the adjacency list in Figure 30.6 can be built as follows:

```java
List<LinkedList<Integer>> neighbors = new ArrayList<>(new ArrayList<Integer>(0));
neighbors.add(new ArrayList<Integer>(0));
```

![Figure 30.6](image)

*Figures 30.6* Edges in the graph in Figure 30.1 are represented using linked lists.

![Figure 30.7](image)

*Figures 30.7* Edges in the graph in Figure 30.3a are represented using linked lists.
neighbors.get(0).add(1); neighbors.get(0).add(3);
neighbors.get(0).add(5);
neighbors.add(new ArrayList<Integer>());
neighbors.get(1).add(0); neighbors.get(1).add(2);
neighbors.get(1).add(3);

30.5 How do you represent vertices in a graph? How do you represent edges using an edge array? How do you represent an edge using an edge object? How do you represent edges using an adjacency matrix? How do you represent edges using adjacency lists?

30.6 Represent the following graph using an edge array, a list of edge objects, an adjacency matrix, and an adjacency list, respectively.

![Graph Diagram]

**30.4 Modeling Graphs**

*The Graph interface defines the common operations for a graph.*

The Java Collections Framework serves as a good example for designing complex data structures. The common features of data structures are defined in the interfaces (e.g., `Collection`, `Set`, `List`, `Queue`), as shown in Figure 22.1. Abstract classes (e.g., `AbstractCollection`, `AbstractSet`, `AbstractList`) partially implement the interfaces. Concrete classes (e.g., `HashSet`, `LinkedHashSet`, `TreeSet`, `ArrayList`, `LinkedList`, `PriorityQueue`) provide concrete implementations. This design pattern is useful for modeling graphs. We will define an interface named `Graph` that contains all the common operations of graphs and an abstract class named `AbstractGraph` that partially implements the `Graph` interface. Many concrete graphs can be added to the design. For example, we will define such graphs named `UnweightedGraph` and `WeightedGraph`. The relationships of these interfaces and classes are illustrated in Figure 30.8.

**Figure 30.8** Graphs can be modeled using interfaces, abstract classes, and concrete classes.

What are the common operations for a graph? In general, you need to get the number of vertices in a graph, get all vertices in a graph, get the vertex object with a specified index, get the index of the vertex with a specified name, get the neighbors for a vertex, get the degree for a vertex, clear the graph, add a new vertex, add a new edge, perform a depth-first search, and
perform a breadth-first search. Depth-first search and breadth-first search will be introduced in the next section. Figure 30.9 illustrates these methods in the UML diagram.

**AbstractGraph** does not introduce any new methods. A list of vertices and a list of adjacency lists for the vertices are defined in the **AbstractGraph** class. With these data fields, it is sufficient to implement all the methods defined in the **Graph** interface.

**Figure 30.9** The **Graph** interface defines the common operations for all types of graphs.
AbstractGraph simply extends AbstractGraph with five constructors for creating the concrete Graph instances. UnweightedGraph inherits all the methods from AbstractGraph, and it does not introduce any new methods.

**Note**

You can create a graph with any type of vertices. Each vertex is associated with an index, which is the same as the index of the vertex in the vertices list. If you create a graph without specifying the vertices, the vertices are the same as their indices.

**Note**

The AbstractGraph class implements all the methods in the Graph interface. So why is it defined as abstract? In the future, you may need to add new methods to the Graph interface that cannot be implemented in AbstractGraph. To make the classes easy to maintain, it is desirable to define the AbstractGraph class as abstract.

Assume all these interfaces and classes are available. Listing 30.1 gives a test program that creates the graph in Figure 30.1 and another graph for the one in Figure 30.3a.

**Listing 30.1 TestGraph.java**

```java
public class TestGraph {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Edge array for graph in Figure 30.1
        int[][] edges = {
            {0, 1}, {0, 3}, {0, 5},
            {1, 0}, {1, 2}, {1, 3},
            {2, 1}, {2, 3}, {2, 4}, {2, 10},
            {3, 0}, {3, 1}, {3, 2}, {3, 4}, {3, 5},
            {4, 2}, {4, 3}, {4, 5}, {4, 7}, {4, 8}, {4, 10},
            {5, 0}, {5, 3}, {5, 4}, {5, 6}, {5, 7},
            {6, 5}, {6, 7},
            {7, 4}, {7, 5}, {7, 6}, {7, 8},
            {8, 4}, {8, 7}, {8, 9}, {8, 10}, {8, 11},
            {9, 8}, {9, 11},
            {10, 2}, {10, 4}, {10, 8}, {10, 11},
            {11, 8}, {11, 9}, {11, 10}};

        Graph<String> graph1 =
            new UnweightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);
        System.out.println("The number of vertices in graph1: " + graph1.getSize());
        System.out.println("The vertex with index 1 is " + graph1.getVertex(1));
        System.out.println("The index for Miami is " + graph1.getIndex("Miami"));
        System.out.println("The edges for graph1: ");
        graph1.printEdges();

        // List of Edge objects for graph in Figure 30.3a
        String[] names = {"Peter", "Jane", "Mark", "Cindy", "Wendy"};
        java.util.ArrayList<AbstractGraph.Edge> edgeList = new java.util.ArrayList<AbstractGraph.Edge>();
        edgeList.add(new AbstractGraph.Edge(0, 2));
    }
}
```
The program creates \texttt{graph1} for the graph in Figure 30.1 in lines 3–24. The vertices for \texttt{graph1} are defined in lines 3–5. The edges for \texttt{graph1} are defined in 8–21. The edges are represented using a two-dimensional array. For each row \texttt{i} in the array, \texttt{edges[i][0]} and \texttt{edges[i][1]} indicate that there is an edge from vertex \texttt{edges[i][0]} to vertex \texttt{edges[i][1]}. For example, the first row, \{0, 1\}, represents the edge from vertex 0 (\texttt{edges[0][0]}) to vertex 1 (\texttt{edges[0][1]}). The row \{0, 5\} represents the edge from vertex 0 (\texttt{edges[2][0]}) to vertex 5 (\texttt{edges[2][1]}). The graph is created in line 24. Line 32 invokes the \texttt{printEdges()} method on \texttt{graph1} to display all edges in \texttt{graph1}.

The program creates \texttt{graph2} for the graph in Figure 30.3a in lines 35–44. The edges for \texttt{graph2} are defined in lines 38–41. \texttt{graph2} is created using a list of \texttt{Edge} objects in line 44. Line 48 invokes the \texttt{printEdges()} method on \texttt{graph2} to display all edges in \texttt{graph2}.

Note that both \texttt{graph1} and \texttt{graph2} contain the vertices of strings. The vertices are associated with indices 0, 1, \ldots, \texttt{n}-1. The index is the location of the vertex in \texttt{vertices}. For example, the index of vertex Miami is 9.

Now we turn our attention to implementing the interface and classes. Listings 30.2, 30.3, and 30.4 give the \texttt{Graph} interface, the \texttt{AbstractGraph} class, and the \texttt{UnweightedGraph} class, respectively.
Listing 30.2  Graph.java

```java
public interface Graph<V> {
    /** Return the number of vertices in the graph */
    public int getSize();
    /** Return the vertices in the graph */
    public java.util.List<V> getVertices();
    /** Return the object for the specified vertex index */
    public V getVertex(int index);
    /** Return the index for the specified vertex object */
    public int getIndex(V v);
    /** Return the neighbors of vertex with the specified index */
    public java.util.List<Integer> getNeighbors(int index);
    /** Return the degree for a specified vertex */
    public int getDegree(int v);
    /** Print the edges */
    public void printEdges();
    /** Clear graph */
    public void clear();
    /** Add a vertex to the graph */
    public void addVertex(V vertex);
    /** Add an edge to the graph */
    public void addEdge(int u, int v);
    /** Obtain a depth-first search tree starting from v */
    public AbstractGraph<V>.Tree dfs(int v);
    /** Obtain a breadth-first search tree starting from v */
    public AbstractGraph<V>.Tree bfs(int v);
}
```

Listing 30.3  AbstractGraph.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public abstract class AbstractGraph<V> implements Graph<V> {
    protected List<V> vertices = new ArrayList<V>(); // Store vertices
    protected List<List<Integer>> neighbors = new ArrayList<List<Integer>>(); // Adjacency lists
    /** Construct an empty graph */
    protected AbstractGraph() {
    }
    /** Construct a graph from edges and vertices stored in arrays */
    protected AbstractGraph(int[][] edges, V[] vertices) {
        for (int i = 0; i < vertices.length; i++)
            this.vertices.add(vertices[i]);
        createAdjacencyLists(edges, vertices.length);
    }
```
/** Construct a graph from edges and vertices stored in List */
protected AbstractGraph(List<Edge> edges, List<V> vertices) {
    for (int i = 0; i < vertices.size(); i++)
        this.vertices.add(vertices.get(i));
    createAdjacencyLists(edges, vertices.size());
}

/** Construct a graph for integer vertices 0, 1, 2 and edge list */
protected AbstractGraph(List<Edge> edges, int numberOfVertices) {
    for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++)
        vertices.add((V)(new Integer(i))); // vertices is {0, 1, ...}
    createAdjacencyLists(edges, numberOfVertices);
}

/** Construct a graph from integer vertices 0, 1, and edge array */
protected AbstractGraph(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) {
    for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++)
        vertices.add((V)(new Integer(i))); // vertices is {0, 1, ...}
    createAdjacencyLists(edges, numberOfVertices);
}

/** Create adjacency lists for each vertex */
private void createAdjacencyLists(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) {
    // Create a linked list
    for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++) {
        neighbors.add(new ArrayList<Integer>());
    }

    for (int i = 0; i < edges.length; i++) {
        int u = edges[i][0];
        int v = edges[i][1];
        neighbors.get(u).add(v);
    }
}

/** Create adjacency lists for each vertex */
private void createAdjacencyLists(List<Edge> edges, int numberOfVertices) {
    // Create a linked list for each vertex
    for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++) {
        neighbors.add(new ArrayList<Integer>());
    }

    for (Edge edge: edges) {
        neighbors.get(edge.u).add(edge.v);
    }
}

@Override /** Return the number of vertices in the graph */
public int getSize() {
    return vertices.size();
}

@Override /** Return the vertices in the graph */
public List<V> getVertices() {
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```
79     return vertices;
80 }

getVertex
82 @Override /** Return the object for the specified vertex */
83 public V getVertex(int index) {
84     return vertices.get(index);
85 }

getIndex
87 @Override /** Return the index for the specified vertex object */
88 public int getIndex(V v) {
89     return vertices.indexOf(v);
90 }

getNeighbors
92 @Override /** Return the neighbors of the specified vertex */
93 public List<Integer> getNeighbors(int index) {
94     return neighbors.get(index);
95 }

getDegree
97 @Override /** Return the degree for a specified vertex */
98 public int getDegree(int v) {
99     return neighbors.get(v).size();
100 }

printEdges
102 @Override /** Print the edges */
103 public void printEdges() {
104     for (int u = 0; u < neighbors.size(); u++) {
105         System.out.print(getVertex(u) + " (" + u + "): ");
106         for (int j = 0; j < neighbors.get(u).size(); j++) {
107             System.out.print("(" + u + ", " +
108                 neighbors.get(u).get(j) + ") " +
109             neighbors.get(u).get(j) + ");
110         }
111         System.out.println();
112     }
113 }

clear
114 @Override /** Clear graph */
115 public void clear() {
116     vertices.clear();
117     neighbors.clear();
118 }

addVertex
120 @Override /** Add a vertex to the graph */
121 public void addVertex(V vertex) {
122     vertices.add(vertex);
123     neighbors.add(new ArrayList<Integer>());
124 }

addEdge
126 @Override /** Add an edge to the graph */
127 public void addEdge(int u, int v) {
128     neighbors.get(u).add(v);
129     neighbors.get(v).add(u);
130 }

Edge inner class
132 public static class Edge {
134     public int u; // Starting vertex of the edge
135     public int v; // Ending vertex of the edge
136     /** Construct an edge for (u, v) */
138     public Edge(int u, int v) {
```
```java
this.u = u;
this.v = v;
}

@Override /** Obtain a DFS tree starting from vertex v */
/** To be discussed in Section 30.7 */
public Tree dfs(int v) {
    List<Integer> searchOrder = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    int[] parent = new int[vertices.size()];
    for (int i = 0; i < parent.length; i++)
        parent[i] = -1; // Initialize parent[i] to -1

    // Mark visited vertices
    boolean[] isVisited = new boolean[vertices.size()];
    // Recursively search
dfs(v, parent, searchOrder, isVisited);

    // Return a search tree
    return new Tree(v, parent, searchOrder);
}

/** Recursive method for DFS search */
private void dfs(int v, int[] parent, List<Integer> searchOrder, boolean[] isVisited) {
    // Store the visited vertex
    searchOrder.add(v);
    isVisited[v] = true; // Vertex v visited

    for (int i : neighbors.get(v)) {
        if (!isVisited[i]) {
            parent[i] = v; // The parent of vertex i is v
            dfs(i, parent, searchOrder, isVisited); // Recursive search
        }
    }
}

@Override /** Starting BFS search from vertex v */
/** To be discussed in Section 30.9 */
public Tree bfs(int v) {
    List<Integer> searchOrder = new ArrayList<Integer>();
    int[] parent = new int[vertices.size()];
    for (int i = 0; i < parent.length; i++)
        parent[i] = -1; // Initialize parent[i] to -1

    java.util.LinkedList<Integer> queue =
        new java.util.LinkedList<Integer>(); // list used as a queue
    boolean[] isVisited = new boolean[vertices.size()];
    queue.offer(v); // Enqueue v
    isVisited[v] = true; // Mark it visited

    while (!queue.isEmpty()) {
        int u = queue.poll(); // Dequeue to u
        searchOrder.add(u); // u searched
        for (int w : neighbors.get(u)) {
            if (!isVisited[w]) {
                queue.offer(w); // Enqueue w
                parent[w] = u; // The parent of w is u
                isVisited[w] = true; // Mark it visited
            }
        }
    }
```

树内类

```java
/** Tree inner class inside the AbstractGraph class */
/** To be discussed in Section 30.5 */
public class Tree {
    private int root; // The root of the tree
    private int[] parent; // Store the parent of each vertex
    private List<Integer> searchOrder; // Store the search order

    /** Construct a tree with root, parent, and searchOrder */
    public Tree(int root, int[] parent, List<Integer> searchOrder) {
        this.root = root;
        this.parent = parent;
        this.searchOrder = searchOrder;
    }

    /** Return the root of the tree */
    public int getRoot() {
        return root;
    }

    /** Return the parent of vertex v */
    public int getParent(int v) {
        return parent[v];
    }

    /** Return an array representing search order */
    public List<Integer> getSearchOrder() {
        return searchOrder;
    }

    /** Return number of vertices found */
    public int getNumberOfVerticesFound() {
        return searchOrder.size();
    }

    /** Return the path of vertices from a vertex to the root */
    public List<V> getPath(int index) {
        ArrayList<V> path = new ArrayList<V>();
        do {
            path.add(vertices.get(index));
            index = parent[index];
        } while (index != -1);
        return path;
    }

    /** Print a path from the root to vertex v */
    public void printPath(int index) {
        List<V> path = getPath(index);
        System.out.print("A path from " + vertices.get(root) + " to " +
            vertices.get(index) + ": ");
        for (int i = path.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--)
```
259     System.out.print(path.get(i) + " ");
260 }
261
262  /** Print the whole tree */
263  public void printTree() {
264     System.out.println("Root is: " + vertices.get(root));
265     System.out.print("Edges: ");
266     for (int i = 0; i < parent.length; i++) {
267         if (parent[i] != -1) {
268             // Display an edge
269             System.out.print("(" + vertices.get(parent[i]) + ", " +
270                 vertices.get(i) + ") ");
271         }
272     }
273     System.out.println();
274  }
275  }
276 }

LISTING 30.4 UnweightedGraph.java

1 import java.util.*;
2
3 public class UnweightedGraph<V> extends AbstractGraph<V> {
4     /** Construct an empty graph */
5     public UnweightedGraph() {
6     }
7
8     /** Construct a graph from edges and vertices stored in arrays */
9     public UnweightedGraph(int[][] edges, V[] vertices) {
10         super(edges, vertices);
11     }
12
13     /** Construct a graph from edges and vertices stored in List */
14     public UnweightedGraph(List<Edge> edges, List<V> vertices) {
15         super(edges, vertices);
16     }
17
18     /** Construct a graph for integer vertices 0, 1, 2 and edge list */
19     public UnweightedGraph(List<Edge> edges, int numberOfVertices) {
20         super(edges, numberOfVertices);
21     }
22
23     /** Construct a graph from integer vertices 0, 1, and edge array */
24     public UnweightedGraph(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) {
25         super(edges, numberOfVertices);
26     }
27 }

The code in the Graph interface in Listing 30.2 and the UnweightedGraph class in Listing 30.4 are straightforward. Let us digest the code in the AbstractGraph class in Listing 30.3.

The AbstractGraph class defines the data field vertices (line 4) to store vertices and neighbors (line 5) to store edges in adjacency lists. neighbors.get(i) stores all vertices adjacent to vertex i. Four overloaded constructors are defined in lines 9–42 to create a default graph, or a graph from arrays or lists of edges and vertices. The createAdjacencyLists(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) method creates adjacency lists from edges in an array (lines 45–57). The createAdjacencyLists(List<Edge> edges, int numberOfVertices) method creates adjacency lists from edges in a list (lines 60–70).
The `printEdges()` method (lines 103–112) displays all vertices and edges adjacent to each vertex.

The code in lines 146–275 gives the methods for finding a depth-first search tree and a breadth-first search tree, which will be introduced in Sections 30.7 and 30.9, respectively.

### 30.7 Describe the relationships among `Graph`, `AbstractGraph`, and `UnweightedGraph`.

### 30.8 For the code in Listing 30.1, TestGraph.java, what is `graph1.getIndex("Seattle")`? What is `graph1.getDegree(5)`? What is `graph1.getVertex(4)`?

### 30.5 Graph Visualization

*To display a graph visually, each vertex must be assigned a location.*

The preceding section introduced how to model a graph using the `Graph` interface, `AbstractGraph` class, and `UnweightedGraph` class. This section discusses how to display graphs graphically. In order to display a graph, you need to know where each vertex is displayed and the name of each vertex. To ensure a graph can be displayed, we define an interface named `Displayable` that has the methods for obtaining the x- and y-coordinates and their names, and make vertices instances of `Displayable`, in Listing 30.5.

#### Listing 30.5 Displayable.java

```java
public interface Displayable {
    public int getX(); // Get x-coordinate of the vertex
    public int getY(); // Get y-coordinate of the vertex
    public String getName(); // Get display name of the vertex
}
```

A graph with `Displayable` vertices can now be displayed on a panel named `GraphView`, as shown in Listing 30.6.

#### Listing 30.6 GraphView.java

```java
public class GraphView extends javax.swing.JPanel {
    private Graph<? extends Displayable> graph;

    public GraphView(Graph<? extends Displayable> graph) {
        this.graph = graph;
    }

    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(java.awt.Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Draw vertices
        java.util.List<? extends Displayable> vertices = graph.getVertices();
        for (int i = 0; i < graph.getSize(); i++) {
            int x = vertices.get(i).getX();
            int y = vertices.get(i).getY();
            String name = vertices.get(i).getName();
            g.fillOval(x - 8, y - 8, 16, 16); // Display a vertex
            g.drawString(name, x - 12, y - 12); // Display the name
        }

        // Draw edges for pair of vertices
        for (int i = 0; i < graph.getSize(); i++) {
```
```java
java.util.List<Integer> neighbors = graph.getNeighbors(i);
int x1 = graph.getVertex(i).getX();
int y1 = graph.getVertex(i).getY();
for (int v: neighbors) {
    int x2 = graph.getVertex(v).getX();
    int y2 = graph.getVertex(v).getY();
    g.drawLine(x1, y1, x2, y2); // Draw an edge for (i, v)
}
}
}

to display a graph on a panel, simply create an instance of GraphView by passing the graph as an argument in the constructor (line 4). The class for the graph’s vertex must implement the Displayable interface in order to display the vertices (lines 13–22). For each vertex index i, invoking graph.getNeighbors(i) returns its adjacency list (line 26). From this list, you can find all vertices that are adjacent to i and draw a line to connect i with its adjacent vertex (lines 27–34).

Listing 30.7 gives an example of displaying the graph in Figure 30.1, as shown in Figure 30.10.

Listing 30.7 DisplayUSMap.java

```
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```java
36  City(String name, int x, int y) {
37      this.name = name;
38      this.x = x;
39      this.y = y;
40  }
41  
42  @Override
43  public int getX() {
44      return x;
45  }
46  
47  @Override
48  public int getY() {
49      return y;
50  }
51  
52  @Override
53  public String getName() {
54      return name;
55  }
56  
57  }
58  }
```

The class `City` is defined to model the vertices with their coordinates and names (lines 33–57). The program creates a graph with the vertices of the `City` type (line 27). Since `City` implements `Displayable`, a `GraphView` object created for the graph displays the graph in the panel (line 30).

As an exercise to get acquainted with the graph classes and interfaces, add a city (e.g., Savannah) with appropriate edges into the graph.

**30.9** For the `graph1` object created in Listing 30.1, `TestGraph.java`, can you create a `GraphView` object as follows?

```
GraphView view = new GraphView(graph1);
```
Graph Traversals

Depth-first and breadth-first are two common ways to traverse a graph.

Graph traversal is the process of visiting each vertex in the graph exactly once. There are two popular ways to traverse a graph: depth-first traversal (or depth-first search) and breadth-first traversal (or breadth-first search). Both traversals result in a spanning tree, which can be modeled using a class, as shown in Figure 30.11. Note that Tree is an inner class defined in the AbstractGraph class. AbstractGraph<V>.Tree is different from the Tree interface defined in Section 27.2.5. AbstractGraph.Tree is a specialized class designed for describing the parent-child relationship of the nodes, whereas the Tree interface defines common operations such as searching, inserting, and deleting in a tree. Since there is no need to perform these operations for a spanning tree, AbstractGraph<V>.Tree is not defined as a subtype of Tree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AbstractGraph&lt;V&gt;.Tree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-root: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-parent: int[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-searchOrder: List&lt;Integer&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Tree(root: int, parent: int[], searchOrder: List&lt;Integer&gt;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getRoot(): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getSearchOrder(): List&lt;Integer&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getParent(index: int): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getNumberOfVerticesFound(): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getPath(index: int): List&lt;V&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+printPath(index: int): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+printTree(): void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The root of the tree.
The parents of the vertices.
The orders for traversing the vertices.

Constructs a tree with the specified root, parent, and searchOrder.
Returns the root of the tree.
Returns the order of vertices searched.
Returns the parent for the specified vertex index.
Returns the number of vertices searched.
Returns a list of vertices from the specified vertex index to the root.
Displays a path from the root to the specified vertex.
Displays tree with the root and all edges.

Figure 30.11 The Tree class describes the nodes with parent-child relationships.

The Tree class is defined as an inner class in the AbstractGraph class in lines 208–275 in Listing 30.3. The constructor creates a tree with the root, edges, and a search order.

The Tree class defines seven methods. The getRoot() method returns the root of the tree. You can get the order of the vertices searched by invoking the getSearchOrder() method. You can invoke getParent(v) to find the parent of vertex v in the search. Invoking getNumberOfVerticesFound() returns the number of vertices searched. The method getPath(index) returns a list of vertices from the specified vertex index to the root. Invoking printPath(v) displays a path from the root to v. You can display all edges in the tree using the printTree() method.

Sections 30.7 and 30.9 will introduce depth-first search and breadth-first search, respectively. Both searches will result in an instance of the Tree class.

30.10 Does AbstractGraph<V>.Tree implement the Tree interface defined in Listing 27.3 Tree.java?
30.11 What method do you use to find the parent of a vertex in the tree?
30.7 Depth-First Search (DFS)

The depth-first search of a graph starts from a vertex in the graph and visits all vertices in the graph as far as possible before backtracking.

The depth-first search of a graph is like the depth-first search of a tree discussed in Section 27.2.4, Tree Traversal. In the case of a tree, the search starts from the root. In a graph, the search can start from any vertex.

A depth-first search of a tree first visits the root, then recursively visits the subtrees of the root. Similarly, the depth-first search of a graph first visits a vertex, then it recursively visits all the vertices adjacent to that vertex. The difference is that the graph may contain cycles, which could lead to an infinite recursion. To avoid this problem, you need to track the vertices that have already been visited.

The search is called depth-first because it searches “deeper” in the graph as much as possible. The search starts from some vertex \( v \). After visiting \( v \), it next visits an unvisited neighbor of \( v \). If \( v \) has no unvisited neighbor, the search backtracks to the vertex from which it reached \( v \). We assume that the graph is connected and the search starting from any vertex can reach all the vertices. If this is not the case, see Programming Exercise 30.4 for finding connected components in a graph.

30.7.1 Depth-First Search Algorithm

The algorithm for the depth-first search is described in Listing 30.8.

**Listing 30.8 Depth-First Search Algorithm**

```plaintext
1  dfs(vertex v) {
2    visit v;
3    for each neighbor w of v
4      if (w has not been visited) {
5        dfs(w);
6      }
7  }
```

You can use an array named `isVisited` to denote whether a vertex has been visited. Initially, `isVisited[i]` is `false` for each vertex \( i \). Once a vertex, say \( v \), is visited, `isVisited[v]` is set to `true`.

Consider the graph in Figure 30.12a. Suppose you start the depth-first search from vertex 0. First visit 0, then any of its neighbors, say 1. Now 1 is visited, as shown in Figure 30.12b. Vertex 1 has three neighbors—0, 2, and 4. Since 0 has already been visited, you will visit either 2 or 4. Let us pick 2. Now 2 is visited, as shown in Figure 30.12c. Vertex 2 has three neighbors: 0, 1, and 3. Since 0 and 1 have already been visited, pick 3. 3 is now visited, as shown in Figure 30.12d. At this point, the vertices have been visited in this order:

\[ 0, 1, 2, 3 \]

Since all the neighbors of 3 have been visited, backtrack to 2. Since all the vertices of 2 have been visited, backtrack to 1. 4 is adjacent to 1, but 4 has not been visited. Therefore, visit 4, as shown in Figure 30.12e. Since all the neighbors of 4 have been visited, backtrack to 1. Since all the neighbors of 1 have been visited, backtrack to 0. Since all the neighbors of 0 have been visited, the search ends.

Since each edge and each vertex is visited only once, the time complexity of the `dfs` method is \( O(|E| + |V|) \), where \( |E| \) denotes the number of edges and \( |V| \) the number of vertices.
30.7.2 Implementation of Depth-First Search

The algorithm for DFS in Listing 30.8 uses recursion. It is natural to use recursion to implement it. Alternatively, you can use a stack (see Programming Exercise 30.3).

The \texttt{dfs(int v)} method is implemented in lines 146–175 in Listing 30.3. It returns an instance of the \texttt{Tree} class with vertex \texttt{v} as the root. The method stores the vertices searched in the list \texttt{searchOrder} (line 147), the parent of each vertex in the array \texttt{parent} (line 148), and uses the \texttt{isVisited} array to indicate whether a vertex has been visited (line 153). It invokes the helper method \texttt{dfs(v, parent, searchOrder, isVisited)} to perform a depth-first search (line 156).

In the recursive helper method, the search starts from vertex \texttt{v}. \texttt{v} is added to \texttt{searchOrder} in line 166 and is marked as visited (line 167). For each unvisited neighbor of \texttt{v}, the method is recursively invoked to perform a depth-first search. When a vertex \texttt{i} is visited, the parent of \texttt{i} is stored in \texttt{parent[i]} (line 171). The method returns when all vertices are visited for a connected graph, or in a connected component.

Listing 30.9 gives a test program that displays a DFS for the graph in Figure 30.1 starting from Chicago. The graphical illustration of the DFS starting from Chicago is shown in Figure 30.13. For an interactive GUI demo of DFS, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/USMapSearch.html.

**LISTING 30.9 TestDFS.java**

```java
1  public class TestDFS {
2      public static void main(String[] args) {
4          int[] edges = {
5              {0, 1}, {0, 3}, {0, 5},
```
create a graph

Graph<String> graph =
    new UnweightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);

get DFS

AbstractGraph<String>.Tree dfs =
    graph.dfs(graph.getIndex("Chicago"));

get search order

java.util.List<Integer> searchOrder = dfs.getSearchOrder();
System.out.println(dfs.getNumberOfVerticesFound() +
    " vertices are searched in this DFS order: ");
for (int i = 0; i < searchOrder.size(); i++)
    System.out.print(graph.getVertex(searchOrder.get(i)) + " ");
System.out.println();

for (int i = 0; i < searchOrder.size(); i++)
    if (dfs.getParent(i) != -1)
        System.out.println("parent of " + graph.getVertex(i) + " is " + graph.getVertex(dfs.getParent(i)));
}

12 vertices are searched in this DFS order:
    Chicago Seattle San Francisco Los Angeles Denver
    Kansas City New York Boston Atlanta Miami Houston Dallas
parent of Seattle is Chicago
parent of San Francisco is Seattle
parent of Los Angeles is San Francisco
parent of Denver is Los Angeles
parent of Kansas City is Denver
parent of Boston is New York
parent of New York is Kansas City
parent of Atlanta is New York
parent of Miami is Atlanta
parent of Dallas is Houston
parent of Houston is Miami

30.7.3 Applications of the DFS

The depth-first search can be used to solve many problems, such as the following:

- Detecting whether a graph is connected. Search the graph starting from any vertex. If
  the number of vertices searched is the same as the number of vertices in the graph,
  the graph is connected. Otherwise, the graph is not connected. (See Programming
  Exercise 30.1.)
30.7 Depth-First Search (DFS)

- Detecting whether there is a path between two vertices (see Programming Exercise 30.5).
- Finding a path between two vertices (see Programming Exercise 30.5).
- Finding all connected components. A connected component is a maximal connected subgraph in which every pair of vertices are connected by a path. (See Programming Exercise 30.4.)
- Detecting whether there is a cycle in the graph (see Programming Exercise 30.6).
- Finding a cycle in the graph (see Programming Exercise 30.7).
- Finding a Hamiltonian path/cycle. A Hamiltonian path in a graph is a path that visits each vertex in the graph exactly once. A Hamiltonian cycle visits each vertex in the graph exactly once and returns to the starting vertex. (See Programming Exercise 30.17.)

The first six problems can be easily solved using the `dfs` method in Listing 30.3. To find a Hamiltonian path/cycle, you have to explore all possible DFSs to find the one that leads to the longest path. The Hamiltonian path/cycle has many applications, including for solving the well-known Knight’s Tour problem, which is presented in Supplement VI.C on the Companion Website.
30.12 What is depth-first search?

30.13 Draw a DFS tree for the graph in Figure 30.3b starting from node A.

30.14 Draw a DFS tree for the graph in Figure 30.1 starting from vertex Atlanta.

30.15 What is the return type from invoking dfs(v)?

30.16 The depth-first search algorithm described in Listing 30.8 uses recursion. Alternatively, you can use a stack to implement it, as shown below. Point out the error in this algorithm and give a correct algorithm.

```java
// Wrong version
dfs(vertex v) {
    push v into the stack;
    mark v visited;

    while (the stack is not empty) {
        pop a vertex, say u, from the stack
        visit u;
        for each neighbor w of u
            if (w has not been visited)
                push w into the stack;
    }
}
```

30.8 Case Study: The Connected Circles Problem

The connected circles problem is to determine whether all circles in a two-dimensional plane are connected. This problem can be solved using a depth-first traversal.

The DFS algorithm has many applications. This section applies the DFS algorithm to solve the connected circles problem.

In the connected circles problem, you determine whether all the circles in a two-dimensional plane are connected. If all the circles are connected, they are painted as filled circles, as shown in Figure 30.14a. Otherwise, they are not filled, as shown in Figure 30.14b.

We will write a program that lets the user create a circle by clicking a mouse in a blank area that is not currently covered by a circle. As the circles are added, the circles are repainted filled if they are connected or unfilled otherwise.
We will create a graph to model the problem. Each circle is a vertex in the graph. Two circles are connected if they overlap. We apply the DFS in the graph, and if all vertices are found in the depth-first search, the graph is connected.

The program is given in Listing 30.10.

**LISTING 30.10  ConnectedCircles.java**

```java
import java.util.List;
import java.util.ArrayList;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class ConnectedCircles extends JApplet {

    // Circles are stored in a list
    private List<Circle> circles = new ArrayList<Circle>();

    public ConnectedCircles() {
        add(new CirclePanel()); // Add to circle panel to applet
    }

    // Panel for displaying circles
    public class CirclePanel extends JPanel {
        public CirclePanel() {
            addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
                @Override
                public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
                    if (!isInsideACircle(e.getPoint())) { // Add a new circle
                        circles.add(new Circle(e.getX(), e.getY()));
                        repaint();
                    }
                }
            });
        }
    }

    // Returns true if the point is inside an existing circle
    private boolean isInsideACircle(Point p) {
        for (Circle circle : circles) {
            if (circle.contains(p))
                return true;
        }
        return false;
    }

    @Override
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        if (circles.size() == 0)
            return; // Nothing to paint

        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Build the edges
        List<AbstractGraph.Edge> edges = new ArrayList<AbstractGraph.Edge>();
        for (int i = 0; i < circles.size(); i++)
            for (int j = i + 1; j < circles.size(); j++)
                if (circles.get(i).overlaps(circles.get(j))) {
                    edges.add(new AbstractGraph.Edge(i, j));
                    edges.add(new AbstractGraph.Edge(j, i));
                }
    }
}
```

```java
```
// Create a graph with circles as vertices
Graph<Circle> graph = new UnweightedGraph<Circle>(edges, circles);

AbstractGraph<Circle>.Tree tree = graph.dfs(0); // a DFS tree

boolean isAllCirclesConnected = circles.size() == tree
    .getNumberOfVerticesFound();

for (Circle circle : circles) {
    int radius = circle.radius;
    if (isAllCirclesConnected) { // All circles are connected
        g.setColor(Color.RED);
        g.fillOval(circle.x - radius, circle.y - radius,
                2 * radius, 2 * radius);
    } else { // circles are not all connected
        g.drawOval(circle.x - radius, circle.y - radius,
                2 * radius, 2 * radius);
    }
}

The Circle class is defined in lines 76–98. It contains the data fields x, y, and radius, which specify the circle’s center location and radius. It also defines the contains and overlaps methods (lines 85–93) for checking whether a point is inside the circle and whether two circles overlap.

When the user clicks the mouse outside of any existing circle, a new circle is created centered at the mouse point and the circle is added to the list circles (line 22).

To detect whether the circles are connected, the program constructs a graph (lines 56–57). The circles are the vertices of the graph. The edges are constructed in lines 46–53. Two circle vertices are connected if they overlap (line 50). The DFS of the graph results in a tree (line 58). The tree’s getNumberOfVerticesFound() returns the number of vertices searched. If it is equal to the number of circles, all circles are connected (lines 59–60).
30.9 Breadth-First Search (BFS)

The breadth-first search of a graph visits the vertices level by level. The first level consists of the starting vertex. Each next level consists of the vertices adjacent to the vertices in the preceding level.

The breadth-first traversal of a graph is like the breadth-first traversal of a tree discussed in Section 27.2.4, Tree Traversal. With breadth-first traversal of a tree, the nodes are visited level by level. First the root is visited, then all the children of the root, then the grandchildren of the root, and so on. Similarly, the breadth-first search of a graph first visits a vertex, then all its adjacent vertices, then all the vertices adjacent to those vertices, and so on. To ensure that each vertex is visited only once, it skips a vertex if it has already been visited.

30.9.1 Breadth-First Search Algorithm

The algorithm for the breadth-first search starting from vertex \( v \) in a graph is described in Listing 30.11.

### Listing 30.11 Breadth-First Search Algorithm

```java
bfs(vertex v) {
    create an empty queue for storing vertices to be visited;
    enqueue v
    mark v visited;
    while (the queue is not empty) {
        dequeue a vertex, say u, from the queue;
        add u into a list of traversed vertices;
        for each neighbor w of u
            if w has not been visited {
                enqueue w
                w visited;
            }
    }
}
```

Consider the graph in Figure 30.15a. Suppose you start the breadth-first search from vertex 0. First visit 0, then visit all its neighbors, 1, 2, and 3, as shown in Figure 30.15b. Vertex 1 has three neighbors: 0, 2, and 4. Since 0 and 2 have already been visited, you will now visit just 4, as shown in Figure 30.15c. Vertex 2 has three neighbors, 0, 1, and 3, which have all been visited. Vertex 3 has three neighbors, 0, 2, and 4, which have all been visited. Vertex 4 has two neighbors, 1 and 3, which have all been visited. Hence, the search ends.

Since each edge and each vertex is visited only once, the time complexity of the \( \text{bfs} \) method is \( O(|E| + |V|) \), where \( |E| \) denotes the number of edges and \( |V| \) the number of vertices.

30.9.2 Implementation of Breadth-First Search

The \( \text{bfs} \) method is defined in the Graph interface and implemented in the AbstractGraph class in Listing 30.3 (lines 179–204). It returns an instance of the Tree class with vertex \( v \) as the root. The method stores the vertices searched in the list searchOrder (line 180), the parent of each vertex in the array parent (line 181), uses a linked list for a
queue (lines 185–186), and uses the `isVisited` array to indicate whether a vertex has been visited (line 187). The search starts from vertex \( v \). \( v \) is added to the queue in line 188 and is marked as visited (line 189). The method now examines each vertex \( u \) in the queue (line 192) and adds each unvisited neighbor \( w \) of \( u \) to the queue (line 196), sets its parent to \( u \) (line 197), and marks it as visited (line 198).

Listing 30.12 gives a test program that displays a BFS for the graph in Figure 30.1 starting from Chicago. The graphical illustration of the BFS starting from Chicago is shown in Figure 30.16. For an interactive GUI demo of BFS, go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/USMapSearch.html.

**LISTING 30.12 TestBFS.java**

```java
public class TestBFS {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String[] vertices = {
            "Seattle", "San Francisco", "Los Angeles",
            "Atlanta", "Miami", "Dallas", "Houston"};

        int[][] edges = {
            {0, 1}, {0, 3}, {0, 5},
            {1, 0}, {1, 2}, {1, 3},
            {2, 1}, {2, 3}, {2, 4}, {2, 10},
            {3, 0}, {3, 1}, {3, 2}, {3, 4}, {3, 5},
            {4, 2}, {4, 3}, {4, 5}, {4, 7}, {4, 8}, {4, 10},
            {5, 0}, {5, 3}, {5, 4}, {5, 6}, {5, 7},
            {6, 5}, {6, 7},
            {7, 4}, {7, 5}, {7, 6}, {7, 8},
            {8, 4}, {8, 7}, {8, 9}, {8, 10}, {8, 11},
            {9, 8}, {9, 11},
            {10, 2}, {10, 4}, {10, 8}, {10, 11},
            {11, 8}, {11, 9}, {11, 10}};

        Graph<String> graph =
            new UnweightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);

        AbstractGraph<String>.Tree bfs =
            graph.bfs(graph.getIndex("Chicago"));

        java.util.List<Integer> searchOrder = bfs.getSearchOrder();
        System.out.println(bfs.getNumberOfVerticesFound() +
            " vertices are searched in this order:");
        for (int i = 0; i < searchOrder.size(); i++)
            System.out.println(graph.getVertex(searchOrder.get(i)));
    }
}
```

**Figure 30.15** Breadth-first search visits a node, then its neighbors, then its neighbors’s neighbors, and so on.
for (int i = 0; i < searchOrder.size(); i++)
    if (bfs.getParent(i) != -1)
        System.out.println("parent of " + graph.getVertex(i) + " is " + graph.getVertex(bfs.getParent(i)));
}

12 vertices are searched in this order:
  Chicago Seattle Denver Kansas City Boston New York
  San Francisco Los Angeles Atlanta Dallas Miami Houston
parent of Seattle is Chicago
parent of San Francisco is Seattle
parent of Los Angeles is Denver
parent of Denver is Chicago
parent of Kansas City is Chicago
parent of Boston is Chicago
parent of New York is Chicago
parent of Atlanta is Kansas City
parent of Miami is Atlanta
parent of Dallas is Kansas City
parent of Houston is Atlanta

**Figure 30.16** BFS search starts from Chicago.
30.9.3 Applications of the BFS

Many of the problems solved by the DFS can also be solved using the BFS. Specifically, the BFS can be used to solve the following problems:

- Detecting whether a graph is connected. A graph is connected if there is a path between any two vertices in the graph.
- Detecting whether there is a path between two vertices.
- Finding the shortest path between two vertices. You can prove that the path between the root and any node in the BFS tree is the shortest path between the root and the node. (See Check Point Question 30.24.)
- Finding all connected components. A connected component is a maximal connected subgraph in which every pair of vertices are connected by a path.
- Detecting whether there is a cycle in the graph (see Programming Exercise 30.6).
- Finding a cycle in the graph (see Programming Exercise 30.7).
- Testing whether a graph is bipartite. (A graph is bipartite if the vertices of the graph can be divided into two disjoint sets such that no edges exist between vertices in the same set.) (See Programming Exercise 30.8.)

30.20 What is the return type from invoking \texttt{bfs(v)}?

30.21 What is breadth-first search?

30.22 Draw a BFS tree for the graph in Figure 30.3b starting from node A.

30.23 Draw a BFS tree for the graph in Figure 30.1 starting from vertex Atlanta.

30.24 Prove that the path between the root and any node in the BFS tree is the shortest path between the root and the node.

30.10 Case Study: The Nine Tails Problem

The nine tails problem can be reduced to the shortest path problem.

The nine tails problem is as follows. Nine coins are placed in a three-by-three matrix with some face up and some face down. A legal move is to take any coin that is face up and reverse it, together with the coins adjacent to it (this does not include coins that are diagonally adjacent). Your task is to find the minimum number of moves that lead to all coins being face down. For example, start with the nine coins as shown in Figure 30.17a. After you flip the second coin in the last row, the nine coins are now as shown in Figure 30.17b. After you flip the second coin in the first row, the nine coins are all face down, as shown in Figure 30.17c.

![Figure 30.17](image)

The problem is solved when all coins are face down.

We will write a program that prompts the user to enter an initial state of the nine coins and displays the solution, as shown in the following sample run.
Enter the initial nine coins Hs and Ts: HHH TTT HHH HHH THT TTT TTT TTT TTT

The steps to flip the coins are
HHH
TTT
HHH
HHH
TTT
TTT
TTT
TTT
HHHTTTHHH

FIGURE 30.18 There are total of 512 nodes labeled in this order: 0, 1, 2, . . . , 511.

Each state of the nine coins represents a node in the graph. For example, the three states in Figure 30.17 correspond to three nodes in the graph. For convenience, we use a 3 × 3 matrix to represent all nodes and use 0 for heads and 1 for tails. Since there are nine cells and each cell is either 0 or 1, there are a total of $2^9$ (512) nodes, labeled 0, 1, . . . , and 511, as shown in Figure 30.18.

We assign an edge from node v to u if there is a legal move from u to v. Figure 30.19 shows a partial graph. Note there is an edge from 511 to 47, since you can flip a cell in node 47 to become node 511.

The last node in Figure 30.18 represents the state of nine face-down coins. For convenience, we call this last node the target node. Thus, the target node is labeled 511. Suppose the initial state of the nine tails problem corresponds to the node s. The problem is reduced to finding the shortest path from node s to the target node, which is equivalent to finding the path from node s to the target node in a BFS tree rooted at the target node.

Now the task is to build a graph that consists of 512 nodes labeled 0, 1, 2, . . . , 511, and edges among the nodes. Once the graph is created, obtain a BFS tree rooted at node 511. From the BFS tree, you can find the shortest path from the root to any vertex. We will create a class named NineTailModel, which contains the method to get the shortest path from the target node to any other node. The class UML diagram is shown in Figure 30.20.

Visually, a node is represented in a matrix with the letters H and T. In our program, we use a single-dimensional array of nine characters to represent a node. For example, the node for vertex 1 in Figure 30.18 is represented as {'H', 'H', 'H', 'H', 'H', 'H', 'H', 'H', 'T'} in the array.

The getEdges() method returns a list of Edge objects.

The getNode(index) method returns the node for the specified index. For example, getNode(0) returns the node that contains nine Hs. getNode(511) returns the node that contains nine Ts. The getIndex(node) method returns the index of the node.
Chapter 30  Graphs and Applications

**Figure 30.19** If node \( u \) becomes node \( v \) after cells are flipped, assign an edge from \( v \) to \( u \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NineTailModel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#tree: AbstractGraph&lt;Integer&gt;.Tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+NineTailModel()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getShortestPath(nodeIndex: int): List&lt;Integer&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-getEdges(): List&lt;AbstractGraph.Edge&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getNode(index: int): char[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getIndex(node: char[]): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getFlippedNode(node: char[], position: int): int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+flipACell(node: char[], row: int, column: int): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+printNode(node: char[]): void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A tree rooted at node 511.

Constructs a model for the nine tails problem and obtains the tree. Returns a path from the specified node to the root. The path returned consists of the node labels in a list.

Returns a list of Edge objects for the graph.

Returns a node consisting of nine characters of Hs and Ts.

Returns the index of the specified node.

Flips the node at the specified position and returns the index of the flipped node.

Flips the node at the specified row and column.

Displays the node on the console.

**Figure 30.20** The NineTailModel class models the nine tails problem using a graph.

Note that the data field tree is defined as protected so that it can be accessed from the WeightedNineTail subclass in the next chapter.

The getFlippedNode(char[] node, int position) method flips the node at the specified position and its adjacent positions. This method returns the index of the new node. For example, for node 56 in Figure 30.19, flip it at position 0, and you will get node 51. If you flip node 56 at position 1, you will get node 47.

The flipACell(char[] node, int row, int column) method flips a node at the specified row and column. For example, if you flip node 56 at row 0 and column 0, the new node is 408. If you flip node 56 at row 2 and column 0, the new node is 30.

Listing 30.13 shows the source code for NineTailModel.java.
30.10 Case Study: The Nine Tails Problem

Listing 30.13 NineTailModel.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class NineTailModel {
    public final static int NUMBER_OF_NODES = 512;
    protected AbstractGraph<Integer>.Tree tree; // Define a tree

    /** Construct a model */
    public NineTailModel() {
        // Create edges
        List<AbstractGraph.Edge> edges = getEdges();

        // Create a graph
        UnweightedGraph<Integer> graph = new UnweightedGraph<Integer>(
            edges, NUMBER_OF_NODES);

        // Obtain a BFS tree rooted at the target node
        tree = graph.bfs(511);
    }

    /** Create all edges for the graph */
    private List<AbstractGraph.Edge> getEdges() {
        List<AbstractGraph.Edge> edges =
            new ArrayList<AbstractGraph.Edge>();// Store edges

        for (int u = 0; u < NUMBER_OF_NODES; u++) {
            for (int k = 0; k < 9; k++) {
                char[] node = getNode(u); // Get the node for vertex u
                if (node[k] == 'H') {
                    int v = getFlippedNode(node, k);
                    // Add edge (v, u) for a legal move from node u to node v
                    edges.add(new AbstractGraph.Edge(v, u));
                }
            }
        }

        return edges;
    }

    public static int getFlippedNode(char[] node, int position) {
        int row = position / 3;
        int column = position % 3;

        flipACell(node, row, column);
        flipACell(node, row - 1, column);
        flipACell(node, row + 1, column);
        flipACell(node, row, column - 1);
        flipACell(node, row, column + 1);

        return getIndex(node);
    }

    public static void flipACell(char[] node, int row, int column) {
        if (row >= 0 && row <= 2 && column >= 0 && column <= 2) {
            // Within the boundary
            if (node[row * 3 + column] == 'H')
                node[row * 3 + column] = 'T'; // Flip from H to T
            else
                node[row * 3 + column] = 'H'; // Flip from T to H
        }
    }
}
```

create tree
add an edge
get edges
store edges
declare a tree
create edges
create graph
create tree
get edges
store edges
for a legal move from node u to node v
add an edge
flip cells
flip a cell
flip a cell
The constructor (lines 8–18) creates a graph with 512 nodes, and each edge corresponds to the move from one node to the other (line 10). From the graph, a BFS tree rooted at the target node is obtained (line 17).

To create edges, the `getEdges` method (lines 21–37) checks each node `u` to see if it can be flipped to another node `v`. If so, add `(v, u)` to the `Edge` list (line 31). The `getFlippedNode(node, position)` method finds a flipped node by flipping an `H` cell and its neighbors in a node (lines 43–47). The `flipACell(node, row, column)` method actually flips an `H` cell and its neighbors in a node (lines 52–60).

The `getIndex(node)` method is implemented in the same way as converting a binary number to a decimal number (lines 62–72). The `getNode(index)` method returns a node consisting of the letters `H` and `T` (lines 74–87).
The `getShortestPath(nodeIndex)` method invokes the `getPath(nodeIndex)` method to get the vertices in the shortest path from the specified node to the target node (lines 89–91). The `printNode(node)` method displays a node on the console (lines 93–101).

Listing 30.14 gives a program that prompts the user to enter an initial node and displays the steps to reach the target node.

```
import java.util.Scanner;

public class NineTail {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Prompt the user to enter the initial nine coins' Hs and Ts
        System.out.print("Enter the initial nine coins Hs and Ts: ");
        Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
        String s = input.nextLine();
        char[] initialNode = s.toCharArray();

        NineTailModel model = new NineTailModel();
        java.util.List<Integer> path = model.getShortestPath(NineTailModel.getIndex(initialNode));

        System.out.println("The steps to flip the coins are ");
        for (int i = 0; i < path.size(); i++)
            NineTailModel.printNode(NineTailModel.getNode(path.get(i).intValue()));
    }
}
```

The program prompts the user to enter an initial node with nine letters with a combination of Hs and Ts as a string in line 8, obtains an array of characters from the string (line 9), creates a graph model to get a BFS tree (line 11), obtains the shortest path from the initial node to the target node (lines 12–13), and displays the nodes in the path (lines 16–18).

30.25 How are the nodes created for the graph in `NineTailModel`?
30.26 How are the edges created for the graph in `NineTailModel`?
30.27 What is returned after invoking `getIndex("HTHTTTTHHH".toCharArray())` in Listing 30.13? What is returned after invoking `getNode(46)` in Listing 30.13?
30.28 If lines 26 and 27 are swapped in Listing 30.13, NineTailModel.java, will the program work? Why not?

**Key Terms**

- adjacency list 1054
- adjacency matrix 1054
- adjacent vertices 1050
- breadth-first search 1069
- complete graph 1050
- cycle 1050
- degree 1050
- depth-first search 1069
- directed graph 1049
- graph 1049
- incident edges 1050
- parallel edge 1050
- Seven Bridges of Königsberg 1048
- simple graph 1050
- spanning tree 1050
- tree 1050
- undirected graph 1049
- unweighted graph 1049
- weighted graph 1049
**CHAPTER SUMMARY**

1. A graph is a useful mathematical structure that represents relationships among entities in the real world. You learned how to model graphs using classes and interfaces, how to represent vertices and edges using arrays and linked lists, and how to implement operations for graphs.

2. Graph traversal is the process of visiting each vertex in the graph exactly once. You learned two popular ways for traversing a graph: the depth-first search (DFS) and breadth-first search (BFS).

3. DFS and BFS can be used to solve many problems such as detecting whether a graph is connected, detecting whether there is a cycle in the graph, and finding the shortest path between two vertices.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Sections 30.6–30.10

*30.1 (Test whether a graph is connected) Write a program that reads a graph from a file and determines whether the graph is connected. The first line in the file contains a number that indicates the number of vertices (n). The vertices are labeled as 0, 1, ..., n-1. Each subsequent line, with the format u v1 v2 ..., describes edges (u, v1), (u, v2), and so on. Figure 30.21 gives the examples of two files for their corresponding graphs.

![Figure 30.21](image)

**Figure 30.21** The vertices and edges of a graph can be stored in a file.

Your program should prompt the user to enter the name of the file, then it should read data from the file, create an instance g of `UnweightedGraph`, invoke `g.printEdges()` to display all edges, and invoke `dfs()` to obtain an instance `tree` of `AbstractGraph.Tree`. If `tree.getNumberOfVerticesFound()` is the same as the number of vertices in the graph, the graph is connected. Here is a sample run of the program:
Enter a file name: c:\exercise\GraphSample1.txt
The number of vertices is 6
Vertex 0: (0, 1) (0, 2)
Vertex 1: (1, 0) (1, 3)
Vertex 2: (2, 0) (2, 3) (2, 4)
Vertex 3: (3, 1) (3, 2) (3, 4) (3, 5)
Vertex 4: (4, 2) (4, 3) (4, 5)
Vertex 5: (5, 3) (5, 4)
The graph is connected

(Hint: Use `new UnweightedGraph(list, numberOfVertices)` to create a graph, where `list` contains a list of `AbstractGraph.Edge` objects. Use `new AbstractGraph.Edge(u, v)` to create an edge. Read the first line to get the number of vertices. Read each subsequent line into a string `s` and use `s.split("[\s+]")` to extract the vertices from the string and create edges from the vertices.)

*30.2 (Create a file for a graph) Modify Listing 30.1, TestGraph.java, to create a file representing `graph1`. The file format is described in Programming Exercise 30.1. Create the file from the array defined in lines 8–21 in Listing 30.1. The number of vertices for the graph is 12, which will be stored in the first line of the file. The contents of the file should be as follows:

```
12
0 1 3 5
1 0 2 3
2 1 3 4 10
3 0 1 2 4 5
4 2 3 5 7 8 10
5 0 3 4 6 7
6 5 7
7 4 5 8
8 4 7 9 10 11
9 8 11
10 2 4 8 11
11 8 9 10
```

*30.3 (Implement DFS using a stack) The depth-first search algorithm described in Listing 30.8 uses recursion. Implement it without using recursion.

*30.4 (Find connected components) Create a new class named `MyGraph` as a subclass of `UnweightedGraph` that contains a method for finding all connected components in a graph with the following header:

```
public List<List<Integer>> getConnectedComponents();
```

The method returns a `List<List<Integer>>`. Each element in the list is another list that contains all the vertices in a connected component. For example, for the graph in Figure 30.21b, `getConnectedComponents()` returns `[[0, 1, 2, 3], [4, 5]]`. 
**30.5** *(Find paths)* Add a new method in `AbstractGraph` to find a path between two vertices with the following header:

```java
public List<Integer> getPath(int u, int v);
```

The method returns a `List<Integer>` that contains all the vertices in a path from `u` to `v` in this order. Using the BFS approach, you can obtain the shortest path from `u` to `v`. If there isn’t a path from `u` to `v`, the method returns `null`.

**30.6** *(Detect cycles)* Add a new method in `AbstractGraph` to determine whether there is a cycle in the graph with the following header:

```java
public boolean isCyclic();
```

**30.7** *(Find a cycle)* Add a new method in `AbstractGraph` to find a cycle in the graph with the following header:

```java
public List<Integer> getACycle(int u);
```

The method returns a `List` that contains all the vertices in a cycle starting from `u`. If the graph doesn’t have any cycles, the method returns `null`.

**30.8** *(Test bipartite)* Recall that a graph is bipartite if its vertices can be divided into two disjoint sets such that no edges exist between vertices in the same set. Add a new method in `AbstractGraph` with the following header to detect whether the graph is bipartite:

```java
public boolean isBipartite();
```

**30.9** *(Get bipartite sets)* Add a new method in `AbstractGraph` with the following header to return two bipartite sets if the graph is bipartite:

```java
public List<List<Integer>> getBipartite();
```

The method returns a `List` that contains two sublists, each of which contains a set of vertices. If the graph is not bipartite, the method returns `null`.

**30.10** *(Find the shortest path)* Write a program that reads a connected graph from a file. The graph is stored in a file using the same format specified in Exercise 30.1. Your program should prompt the user to enter the name of the file, then two vertices, and should display the shortest path between the two vertices. For example, for the graph in Figure 30.21a, the shortest path between 0 and 5 may be displayed as 0 1 3 5.

Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a file name: c:\exercise\GraphSample1.txt
Enter two vertices (integer indexes): 0 5
The number of vertices is 6
Vertex 0: (0, 1) (0, 2)  
Vertex 1: (1, 0) (1, 3)  
Vertex 2: (2, 0) (2, 3) (2, 4)  
Vertex 3: (3, 1) (3, 2) (3, 4) (3, 5)  
Vertex 4: (4, 2) (4, 3) (4, 5)  
Vertex 5: (5, 3) (5, 4)  
The path is 0 1 3 5
```
**30.11** *(Revise Listing 30.14, NineTail.java)* The program in Listing 30.14 lets the user enter an input for the nine tails problem from the console and displays the result on the console. Write an applet that lets the user set an initial state of the nine coins (see Figure 30.22a) and click the Solve button to display the solution, as shown in Figure 30.22b. Initially, the user can click the mouse button to flip a coin. Set a red color on the flipped cells.

![Figure 30.22](image)

(a) ![Figure 30.22](image) (b)

**Figure 30.22** The applet solves the nine tails problem.

**30.12** *(Variation of the nine tails problem)* In the nine tails problem, when you flip a coin, the horizontal and vertical neighboring cells are also flipped. Rewrite the program, assuming that all neighboring cells including the diagonal neighbors are also flipped.

**30.13** *(4 × 4 16 tails model)* The nine tails problem in the text uses a 3 × 3 matrix. Assume that you have 16 coins placed in a 4 × 4 matrix. Create a new model class named TailModel16. Create an instance of the model and save the object into a file named TailModel16.dat.

**30.14** *(4 × 4 16 tails view)* Listing 30.14, NineTail.java, presents a solution for the nine tails problem. Revise this program for the 4 × 4 16 tails problem. Your program should read the model object created from the preceding exercise.

**30.15** *(Dynamic graphs)* Write a program that lets the user create a graph dynamically. The user can create a vertex by entering its name and location, as shown in Figure 30.23. The user can also create an edge to connect two vertices. To simplify the program, assume that the vertex names are the same as the vertex indices. You have to add the vertex indices 0, 1, ..., n, in this order. The user can specify two vertices and let the program display their shortest path in red.

**30.16** *(Induced subgraph)* Given an undirected graph \( G = (V, E) \) and an integer \( k \), find an induced subgraph \( H \) of \( G \) of maximum size such that all vertices of \( H \) have a degree \( \geq k \), or conclude that no such induced subgraph exists. Implement the method with the following header:

```java
public static Graph maxInducedSubgraph(Graph edge, int k)
```

The method returns `null` if such a subgraph does not exist.

*(Hint: An intuitive approach is to remove vertices whose degree is less than \( k \). As vertices are removed with their adjacent edges, the degrees of other vertices may be reduced. Continue the process until no vertices can be removed, or all the vertices are removed.)*
30.17 (Hamiltonian cycle) The Hamiltonian path algorithm is implemented in Supplement VI.C. Add the following `getHamiltonianCycle` method in the `Graph` interface and implement it in the `AbstractGraph` class:

```java
/** Return a Hamiltonian cycle
 * Return null if the graph doesn't contain a Hamiltonian cycle */
public List<Integer> getHamiltonianCycle()
```

30.18 (Knight’s Tour cycle) Rewrite `KnightTourApp.java` in the case study in Supplement VI.C to find a knight’s tour that visits each square in a chessboard and returns to the starting square. Reduce the Knight’s Tour cycle problem to the problem of finding a Hamiltonian cycle.

30.19 (Display a DFS/BFS tree in a graph) Modify `GraphView` in Listing 30.6 to add a new data field `tree` with a set method. The edges in the tree are displayed in red. Write a program that displays the graph in Figure 30.1 and the DFS/BFS tree starting from a specified city, as shown in Figures 30.13 and 30.16. If a city not in the map is entered, the program displays a dialog box to alert the user.

30.20 (Display a graph) Write a program that reads a graph from a file and displays it. The first line in the file contains a number that indicates the number of vertices (n). The vertices are labeled 0, 1, ..., n-1. Each subsequent line, with the format `u x y v1 v2 ...`, describes the position of `u` at (x, y) and edges `(u, v1), (u, v2),` and so on. Figure 30.24a gives an example of the file for their corresponding graph. Your program prompts the user to enter the name of the file, reads data from the file, and displays the graph on a panel using `GraphView`, as shown in Figure 30.24b.

30.21 (Display sets of connected circles) Modify Listing 30.10, `ConnectedCircles.java`, to display sets of connected circles in different colors. That is, if two circles are connected, they are displayed using the same color; otherwise, they are not in same color, as shown in Figure 30.25. (Hint: See Programming Exercise 30.4.)
Figure 30.24 The program reads the information about the graph and displays it visually.

Figure 30.25 (a) Connected circles are displayed in the same color. (b) Rectangles are not filled with a color if they are not connected. (c) Rectangles are filled with a color if they are connected.

*30.22 (Move a circle) Modify Listing 30.10, ConnectedCircles.java, to enable the user to drag and move a circle.

**30.23 (Connected rectangles) Listing 30.10, ConnectedCircles.java, allows the user to create circles and determine whether they are connected. Rewrite the program for rectangles. The program lets the user create a rectangle by clicking a mouse in a blank area that is not currently covered by a rectangle. As the rectangles are added, the rectangles are repainted as filled if they are connected or are unfilled otherwise, as shown in Figure 30.25b–c.

*30.24 (Remove a circle) Modify Listing 30.10, ConnectedCircles.java, to enable the user to remove a circle when the mouse is clicked inside the circle.

***30.25 (Graph visualization tool) Develop an applet as shown in Figure 30.4, with the following requirements: (1) The radius of each vertex is 20 pixels. (2) The user clicks the left-mouse button to place a vertex centered at the mouse point, provided that the mouse point is not inside or too close to an existing vertex. (3) The user clicks the right-mouse button inside an existing vertex to remove the vertex. (4) The user presses a mouse button inside a vertex, drags to another vertex, and then releases the button to create an edge. (5) The user drags a vertex while pressing the CTRL key to move a vertex. (6) The vertices are numbers starting from 0. When a vertex is removed, the vertices are renumbered. (7) You can click the DFS or BFS button to display a DFS or BFS tree from a starting vertex. (8) You can click the Shortest Path button to display the shortest path between the two specified vertices.
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Objectives
- To represent weighted edges using adjacency matrices and priority queues (§31.2).
- To model weighted graphs using the **WeightedGraph** class that extends the **AbstractGraph** class (§31.3).
- To design and implement the algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree (§31.4).
- To define the **MST** class that extends the **Tree** class (§31.4).
- To design and implement the algorithm for finding single-source shortest paths (§31.5).
- To define the **ShortestPathTree** class that extends the **Tree** class (§31.5).
- To solve the weighted nine tails problem using the shortest-path algorithm (§31.6).
31.1 Introduction

A graph is a weighted graph if each edge is assigned a weight. Weighted graphs have many practical applications.

Figure 30.1 assumes that the graph represents the number of flights among cities. You can apply the BFS to find the fewest number of flights between two cities. Assume that the edges represent the driving distances among the cities as shown in Figure 31.1. How do you find the minimal total distances for connecting all cities? How do you find the shortest path between two cities? This chapter will address these questions. The former is known as the minimum spanning tree (MST) problem and the latter as the shortest path problem.

The preceding chapter introduced the concept of graphs. You learned how to represent edges using edge arrays, edge lists, adjacency matrices, and adjacency lists, and how to model a graph using the Graph interface, the AbstractGraph class, and the UnweightedGraph class. The preceding chapter also introduced two important techniques for traversing graphs: depth-first search and breadth-first search, and applied traversal to solve practical problems. This chapter will introduce weighted graphs. You will learn the algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree in Section 31.4 and the algorithm for finding shortest paths in Section 31.5.

Pedagogical Note

Before we introduce the algorithms and applications for weighted graphs, it is helpful to get acquainted with weighted graphs using the GUI interactive tool at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/navigation/WeightedGraphLearningTool.html, as shown in Figure 31.2. The tool allows you to enter vertices, specify edges and their weights, view the graph, and find an MST and all shortest paths from a single source, as shown in Figure 31.2.
31.2 Representing Weighted Graphs

Often it is desirable to use a priority queue to store weighted edges.

There are two types of weighted graphs: vertex weighted and edge weighted. In a vertex-weighted graph, each vertex is assigned a weight. In an edge-weighted graph, each edge is assigned a weight. Of the two types, edge-weighted graphs have more applications. This chapter considers edge-weighted graphs.

Weighted graphs can be represented in the same way as unweighted graphs, except that you have to represent the weights on the edges. As with unweighted graphs, the vertices in weighted graphs can be stored in an array. This section introduces three representations for the edges in weighted graphs.

31.2.1 Representing Weighted Edges: Edge Array

Weighted edges can be represented using a two-dimensional array. For example, you can store all the edges in the graph in Figure 31.3a using the array in Figure 31.3b.

```
Object[][] edges = {
    {new Integer(0), new Integer(1), new SomeTypeForWeight(2)},
    {new Integer(0), new Integer(3), new SomeTypeForWeight(8)},
    ...
};
```

Note
Weights can be of any type: Integer, Double, BigDecimal, and so on. You can use a two-dimensional array of the Object type to represent weighted edges as follows:
31.2.2 Weighted Adjacency Matrices

Assume that the graph has \( n \) vertices. You can use a two-dimensional \( n \times n \) matrix, say \( \text{weights} \), to represent the weights on edges. \( \text{weights}[i][j] \) represents the weight on edge \((i, j)\). If vertices \( i \) and \( j \) are not connected, \( \text{weights}[i][j] \) is \text{null}. For example, the weights in the graph in Figure 31.3a can be represented using an adjacency matrix as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Integer}[][] \text{adjacencyMatrix} &= \{
    \{\text{null}, 2, \text{null}, 8, \text{null}\}, \\
    \{2, \text{null}, 7, 3, \text{null}\}, \\
    \{\text{null}, 7, \text{null}, 4, 5\}, \\
    \{8, 3, 4, \text{null}, 6\}, \\
    \{\text{null}, \text{null}, 5, 6, \text{null}\}
\}\;.
\end{align*}
\]

![Graph](image)

**Figure 31.3** Each edge is assigned a weight in an edge-weighted graph.

31.2.3 Priority Adjacency Lists

Another way to represent the edges is to define edges as objects. The \texttt{AbstractGraph.Edge} class was defined to represent an unweighted edge in Listing 30.3. For weighted edges, we define the \texttt{WeightedEdge} class as shown in Listing 31.1.

**Listing 31.1** \texttt{WeightedEdge.java}

```java
1  public class WeightedEdge extends AbstractGraph.Edge 
2      implements Comparable<WeightedEdge> {
3      public double weight; // The weight on edge (u, v)
4  }
5  /** Create a weighted edge on (u, v) */
6  public WeightedEdge(int u, int v, double weight) {
7      super(u, v);
8      this.weight = weight;
9  }
10  @Override /** Compare two edges on weights */
11  public int compareTo(WeightedEdge edge) {
12      if (weight > edge.weight) 
13          return 1;
14      else if (weight == edge.weight)
15          return 0;
16      else
17          return -1;
18  }
```

**int[][] edges = {{0, 1, 2}, {0, 3, 8}, {1, 0, 2}, {1, 2, 7}, {1, 3, 3}, {2, 1, 7}, {2, 3, 4}, {2, 4, 5}, {3, 0, 8}, {3, 1, 3}, {3, 2, 4}, {3, 4, 6}, {4, 2, 5}, {4, 3, 6}};**
AbstractGraph.Edge is an inner class defined in the AbstractGraph class. It represents an edge from vertex \( u \) to \( v \). WeightedEdge extends AbstractGraph.Edge with a new property weight.

To create a WeightedEdge object, use `new WeightedEdge(i, j, w)`, where \( w \) is the weight on edge \((i, j)\). It is often useful to store a vertex’s adjacent edges in a priority queue so that you can remove the edges in increasing order of their weights. For this reason, the WeightedEdge class implements the Comparable interface.

For unweighted graphs, we use adjacency lists to represent edges. For weighted graphs, we still use adjacency lists, but the lists are priority queues. For example, the adjacency lists for the vertices in the graph in Figure 31.3a can be represented as follows:

```java
java.util.PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>[] queues =
    new java.util.PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>[5];
```

`queues[i]` stores all edges adjacent to vertex \( i \).

For flexibility, we will use an array list rather than a fixed-sized array to represent `queues`.

### 31.1
For the code `WeightedEdge edge = new WeightedEdge(1, 2, 3.5)`, what is `edge.u`, `edge.v`, and `edge.weight`?

### 31.2
What is the printout of the following code?

```java
List<WeightedEdge> list = new ArrayList<WeightedEdge>();
list.add(new WeightedEdge(1, 2, 3.5));
list.add(new WeightedEdge(2, 3, 4.5));
WeightedEdge e = java.util.Collections.max(list);
System.out.println(e.u);
System.out.println(e.v);
System.out.println(e.weight);
```

### 31.3 The WeightedGraph Class

The WeightedGraph class extends AbstractGraph.

The preceding chapter designed the Graph interface, the AbstractGraph class, and the UnweightedGraph class for modeling graphs. Following this pattern, we design WeightedGraph as a subclass of AbstractGraph, as shown in Figure 31.4.

WeightedGraph simply extends AbstractGraph with five constructors for creating concrete WeightedGraph instances. WeightedGraph inherits all methods from AbstractGraph, overrides the clear and addVertex methods, implements a new addEdge method for adding a weighted edge, and also introduces new methods for obtaining minimum spanning trees and for finding all single-source shortest paths. Minimum spanning trees and shortest paths will be introduced in Sections 31.4 and 31.5, respectively.

Listing 31.2 implements WeightedGraph. Priority adjacency lists (line 5) are used internally to store adjacent edges for a vertex. When a WeightedGraph is constructed, its priority adjacency lists are created (lines 15, 21, 27, and 34). The methods getMinimumSpanningTree() (lines 102–159) and getShortestPath() (lines 193–246) will be introduced in upcoming sections.
**Listing 31.2** WeightedGraph.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class WeightedGraph<V> extends AbstractGraph<V> {

    private List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues =
            new ArrayList<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>>();

    /** Construct a WeightedGraph from edges and vertices in arrays */
    public WeightedGraph(int[][] edges, V[] vertices) {
        super(edges, vertices);
        createQueues(edges, vertices.length);
    }

    /** Construct a WeightedGraph from edges and vertices in list */
    public WeightedGraph(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) {
        super(edges, numberOfVertices);
        createQueues(edges, numberOfVertices);
    }

    /** Construct a WeightedGraph for vertices 0, 1, 2 and edge list */
    public WeightedGraph(List<WeightedEdge> edges, List<V> vertices) {
        super((List)edges, vertices);
    }

    // Priority adjacency lists
    private List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues =
            new ArrayList<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>>();

    public WeightedGraph() {

    }

    public WeightedGraph(int[][] edges, V[] vertices) {
        super(edges, vertices);
        createQueues(edges, vertices.length);
    }

    public WeightedGraph(int[][] edges, numberOfVertices: int) {
        super(edges, numberOfVertices);
        createQueues(edges, numberOfVertices);
    }

    public WeightedGraph(edges: List<WeightedEdge>, numberOfVertices: int) {
        super(edges, numberOfVertices);
        createQueues(edges, numberOfVertices);
    }

    public WeightedGraph(edges: List<WeightedEdge>, vertices: List<V>) {
        super((List)edges, vertices);
    }

    public WeightedGraph() {

    }

    public WeightedGraph(edges: int[][], vertices: V[]) {
        super(edges, vertices);
        createQueues(edges, vertices.length);
    }

    /** Create priority queues 
     *   @param edges array of edges 
     *   @param vertices array of vertices 
     */
    private void createQueues(int[][] edges, int length) {
        for (int i = 0; i < length; i++) {
            PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge> pq =
                    new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>(
                            new Comparator<WeightedEdge>() {
                                public int compare(WeightedEdge o1, WeightedEdge o2) {
                                    return o1.getWeight().compareTo(o2.getWeight());
                                }
                            });
            queues.add(pq);
            queues.get(i).add(new WeightedEdge(i, i, 0.0));
            for (int j = 0; j < edges[i].length; j++) {
                if (edges[i][j] != 0.0) {
                    pq.add(new WeightedEdge(i, j, edges[i][j]));
                }
            }
        }
    }

    /** Print weighted edges */
    public void printWeightedEdges() {
        for (PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge> pq : queues) {
            System.out.println(pq.toString());
        }
    }

    /** Get weighted edges */
    public List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> getWeightedEdges() {
        return queues;
    }

    /** Add edges */
    public void addEdges (u: int, v: int, weight: double) {
        WeightedEdge e = new WeightedEdge(u, v, weight);
        queues.get(u).add(e);
        queues.get(v).add(e);
    }

    /** Return minimum spanning tree starting from vertex 0 */
    public MST getMinimumSpanningTree() {
        return DijkstraMST(0);
    }

    /** Return minimum spanning tree starting from vertex v */
    public MST getMinimumSpanningTree(index: int) {
        return DijkstraMST(index);
    }

    /** Return all single-source shortest paths */
    public ShortestPathTree getShortestPath(index: int) {
        return dijkstra(source);
    }
}
```

**Figure 31.4** WeightedGraph extends AbstractGraph.
31.3 The WeightedGraph Class

```java
    createQueues(edges, vertices.size());

    /** Construct a WeightedGraph from vertices 0, 1, and edge array */
    public WeightedGraph(List<WeightedEdge> edges,
      int numberOfVertices) {
      super((List)edges, numberOfVertices);
      createQueues(edges, numberOfVertices);
    }

    /** Create priority adjacency lists from edge arrays */
    private void createQueues(int[][] edges, int numberOfVertices) {
      for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++) {
        queues.add(new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>()); // Create a queue
      }
      for (int i = 0; i < edges.length; i++) {
        int u = edges[i][0];
        int v = edges[i][1];
        int weight = edges[i][2];
        // Insert an edge into the queue
        queues.get(u).offer(new WeightedEdge(u, v, weight));
      }
    }

    /** Create priority adjacency lists from edge lists */
    private void createQueues(List<WeightedEdge> edges, int numberOfVertices) {
      for (int i = 0; i < numberOfVertices; i++) {
        queues.add(new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>()); // Create a queue
      }
      for (WeightedEdge edge: edges) {
        queues.get(edge.u).offer(edge); // Insert an edge into the queue
      }
    }

    /** Display edges with weights */
    public void printWeightedEdges() {
      for (int i = 0; i < queues.size(); i++) {
        System.out.print(getVertex(i) + " (" + i + ": ");
        for (WeightedEdge edge : queues.get(i)) {
          System.out.print("(" + edge.u + ", " + edge.v + ", " + edge.weight + ") ");
        }
        System.out.println();
      }
    }

    /** Get the edges from the weighted graph */
    public List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> getWeightedEdges() {
      return queues;
    }

    @Override /** Clear the weighted graph */
    public void clear() {
      vertices.clear();
      neighbors.clear();
      queues.clear();
    }
```
add vertex
1100
1101 @Override /** Add vertices to the weighted graph */
1102 public void addVertex(V vertex) {
1103     super.addVertex(vertex);
1104     queues.add(new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>());
1105 }

add edge
1106 /** Add edges to the weighted graph */
1107 public void addEdge(int u, int v, double weight) {
1108     super.addEdge(u, v);
1109     queues.get(u).add(new WeightedEdge(u, v, weight));
1110     queues.get(v).add(new WeightedEdge(v, u, weight));
1111 }

minimum spanning tree
1112 /** Get a minimum spanning tree rooted at vertex 0 */
1113 public MST getMinimumSpanningTree() {
1114     return getMinimumSpanningTree(0);
1115 }

minimum spanning tree
1116 /** Get a minimum spanning tree rooted at a specified vertex */
1117 public MST getMinimumSpanningTree(int startingVertex) {
1118     List<Integer> T = new ArrayList<Integer>(); // T initially contains the startingVertex;
1119     T.add(startingVertex);
1120     int numberOfVertices = vertices.size(); // Number of vertices
1121     int[] parent = new int[numberOfVertices]; // Parent of a vertex
1122     // Initially set the parent of all vertices to -1
1123     for (int i = 0; i < parent.length; i++)
1124         parent[i] = -1;
1125     double totalWeight = 0; // Total weight of the tree thus far
1126     // Clone the priority queue, so to keep the original queue intact
1127     List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues = deepClone(this.queues);
1128     // All vertices are found?
1129     while (T.size() < numberOfVertices) {
1130         // Search for the vertex with the smallest edge adjacent to
1131         // a vertex in T
1132         int v = -1;
1133         double smallestWeight = Double.MAX_VALUE;
1134         for (int u : T) {
1135             while (!queues.get(u).isEmpty() &&
1136                 T.contains(queues.get(u).peek().v)) {
1137                 // Remove the edge from queues[u] if the adjacent
1138                 // vertex of u is already in T
1139                 queues.get(u).remove();
1140             }
1141             queues.get(u).is empty
1142             if (queues.get(u).isEmpty()) {
1143                 continue; // Consider the next vertex in T
1144             }
1145             // Current smallest weight on an edge adjacent to u
1146             WeightedEdge edge = queues.get(u).peek();
1147             if (edge.weight < smallestWeight) {
1148                 v = edge.v;
1149             }
1150             smallestWeight = edge.weight;
1151             // If v is added to the tree, u will be its parent
1152             parent[v] = u;
31.3 The WeightedGraph Class

```java
147 }
148 } // End of for loop
149
150 if (v != -1)
151 T.add(v); // Add a new vertex to the tree
152 else
153 break; // The tree is not connected, a partial MST is found
154
155 totalWeight += smallestWeight;
156 } // End of while loop
157
158 return new MST(startingVertex, parent, T, totalWeight);
159 }
160
161 /** Clone an array of queues */
162 private List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> deepClone(
163 List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues) {
164 List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> copiedQueues =
165 new ArrayList<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>>()
166 for (int i = 0; i < queues.size(); i++) {
167 copiedQueues.add(new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>());
168 for (WeightedEdge e : queues.get(i)) {
169 copiedQueues.get(i).add(e);
170 }
171 }
172
173 return copiedQueues;
174 }
175
176 /** MST is an inner class in WeightedGraph */
177 public class MST extends Tree {
178 private double totalWeight; // Total weight of the tree's edges
179
180 public MST(int root, int[] parent, List<Integer> searchOrder,
181 double totalWeight) {
182 super(root, parent, searchOrder);
183 this.totalWeight = totalWeight;
184 }
185
186 public double getTotalWeight() {
187 return totalWeight;
188 }
189 }
190
191 /** Find single-source shortest paths */
192 public ShortestPathTree getShortestPath(int sourceVertex) {
193 // T stores the vertices of paths found so far
194 List<Integer> T = new ArrayList<Integer>();
195 // T initially contains the sourceVertex;
196 T.add(sourceVertex);
197
198 // vertices is defined in AbstractGraph
199 int numberOfVertices = vertices.size();
200 int[] parent = new int[numberOfVertices];
201 parent[sourceVertex] = -1; // The parent of source is set to -1
202 // parent[v] stores the previous vertex of v in the path
203 int countOfVertices = vertices.size();
204 parent[sourceVertex] = -1; // The parent of source is set to -1
205 // cost[v] stores the cost of the path from v to the source
```
```java
cost array  
  double[] cost = new double[numberOfVertices];
  for (int i = 0; i < cost.length; i++) {
    cost[i] = Double.MAX_VALUE; // Initial cost set to infinity
  }
source cost  
  cost[sourceVertex] = 0; // Cost of source is 0
a copy of queues  
  List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues = deepClone(this.queues);
more vertices left?  
  while (T.size() < numberOfVertices) {
    int v = -1; // Vertex to be determined
    double smallestCost = Double.MAX_VALUE; // Set to infinity
    for (int u : T) {
      while (!queues.get(u).isEmpty() &&
        T.contains(queues.get(u).peek().v)) {
        queues.get(u).remove(); // Remove the vertex in queue for u
      }
      if (queues.get(u).isEmpty()) {
        // All vertices adjacent to u are in T
        continue;
      }
      WeightedEdge e = queues.get(u).peek();
      if (cost[u] + e.weight < smallestCost) {
        v = e.v;
        smallestCost = cost[u] + e.weight;
        // If v is added to the tree, u will be its parent
        parent[v] = u;
      }
    }
    T.add(v); // Add a new vertex to T
    cost[v] = smallestCost;
  } // End of while loop
create a path  
  return new ShortestPathTree(sourceVertex, parent, T, cost);
/** ShortestPathTree is an inner class in WeightedGraph */
public class ShortestPathTree extends Tree {
  private double[] cost; // cost[v] is the cost from v to source
  public ShortestPathTree(int source, int[] parent,
    List<Integer> searchOrder, double[] cost) {
    super(source, parent, searchOrder);
    this.cost = cost;
  }
  public double getCost(int v) {
    return cost[v];
  }
  public void printAllPaths() {
    System.out.println("All shortest paths from "+
```
When you construct a `WeightedGraph` using the no-arg constructor, the superclass’s no-arg constructor is invoked. When you construct a `WeightedGraph` using the other four constructors, the superclass’s constructor is invoked (lines 14, 20, 26, 33) to initialize the properties `vertices` and `neighbors` in `AbstractGraph`. Additionally, priority queues are created for instances of `WeightedGraph`. The `clear` and `addVertex` methods in `AbstractGraph` are overridden in lines 82–92 to handle the weighted edges. The `addEdge(u, v, weight)` method adds a new edge `(u, v)` with the specified weight to the graph (lines 95–99).

Listing 31.3 gives a test program that creates a graph for the one in Figure 31.1 and another graph for the one in Figure 31.3a.

**LISTING 31.3 TestWeightedGraph.java**

```java
public class TestWeightedGraph {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        String[] vertices = {
            "Seattle", "San Francisco", "Los Angeles",
            "Atlanta", "Miami", "Dallas", "Houston"};

        int[][] edges = {
            {0, 1, 807}, {0, 3, 1331}, {0, 5, 2097},
            {1, 0, 807}, {1, 2, 381}, {1, 3, 1267},
            {2, 1, 381}, {2, 3, 1015}, {2, 4, 1663}, {2, 10, 1435},
            {3, 0, 1331}, {3, 1, 1267}, {3, 2, 1015}, {3, 4, 599},
            {3, 5, 1003},
            {4, 2, 1663}, {4, 3, 599}, {4, 5, 533}, {4, 7, 1260},
            {4, 8, 864}, {4, 10, 496},
            {5, 0, 2097}, {5, 3, 1003}, {5, 4, 533},
            {5, 6, 983}, {5, 7, 787},
            {6, 5, 983}, {6, 7, 214},
            {7, 4, 1260}, {7, 5, 787}, {7, 6, 214}, {7, 8, 888},
            {8, 4, 864}, {8, 7, 888}, {8, 9, 661},
            {8, 10, 781}, {8, 11, 810},
            {9, 8, 661}, {9, 11, 1187},
            {10, 2, 1435}, {10, 4, 496}, {10, 8, 781}, {10, 11, 239},
            {11, 8, 810}, {11, 9, 1187}, {11, 10, 239}
        };

        WeightedGraph<String> graph1 =
            new WeightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);

        System.out.println("The number of vertices in graph1: "+ graph1.getSize());
        System.out.println("The vertex with index 1 is "+ graph1.getVertex(1));
        System.out.println("The index for Miami is "+ graph1.getIndex("Miami"));
        System.out.println("The edges for graph1:");
        graph1.printWeightedEdges();

        edges = new int[][]{
            {0, 1, 2}, {0, 3, 8},
        }
    }
}
```

31.3 The `WeightedGraph` Class
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The number of vertices in graph1: 12
The vertex with index 1 is San Francisco
The index for Miami is 9
The edges for graph1:
Vertex 0: (0, 1, 807) (0, 3, 1331) (0, 5, 2097)
Vertex 1: (1, 2, 381) (1, 0, 807) (1, 3, 1267)
Vertex 2: (2, 1, 381) (2, 3, 1015) (2, 4, 1663) (2, 10, 1435)
Vertex 3: (3, 4, 599) (3, 5, 1003) (3, 1, 1267)
Vertex 4: (4, 10, 496) (4, 8, 864) (4, 5, 533) (4, 2, 1663)
Vertex 5: (5, 4, 533) (5, 7, 787) (5, 3, 1003)
Vertex 6: (6, 7, 214) (6, 5, 983)
Vertex 7: (7, 6, 214) (7, 8, 888) (7, 5, 787) (7, 4, 1260)
Vertex 8: (8, 9, 661) (8, 10, 781) (8, 4, 864)
Vertex 9: (9, 8, 661) (9, 11, 1187)
Vertex 10: (10, 11, 239) (10, 4, 496) (10, 8, 781) (10, 2, 1435)
Vertex 11: (11, 10, 239) (11, 9, 1187) (11, 8, 810)

The edges for graph2:
Vertex 0: (0, 1, 2) (0, 3, 8)
Vertex 1: (1, 0, 2) (1, 2, 7) (1, 3, 3)
Vertex 2: (2, 3, 4) (2, 1, 7) (2, 4, 5)
Vertex 3: (3, 1, 3) (3, 4, 6) (3, 2, 4) (3, 0, 8)
Vertex 4: (4, 2, 5) (4, 3, 6)

The program creates graph1 for the graph in Figure 31.1 in lines 3–27. The vertices for graph1 are defined in lines 3–5. The edges for graph1 are defined in lines 7–24. The edges are represented using a two-dimensional array. For each row i in the array, edges[i][0] and edges[i][1] indicate that there is an edge from vertex edges[i][0] to vertex edges[i][1] and the weight for the edge is edges[i][2]. For example, {0, 1, 807} (line 8) represents the edge from vertex 0 (edges[0][0]) to vertex 1 (edges[0][1]) with weight 807 (edges[0][2]). {0, 5, 2097} (line 8) represents the edge from vertex 0 (edges[2][0]) to vertex 5 (edges[2][1]) with weight 2097 (edges[2][2]). Line 35 invokes the printWeightedEdges() method on graph1 to display all edges in graph1.

The program creates the edges for graph2 for the graph in Figure 31.3a in lines 37–45. Line 47 invokes the printWeightedEdges() method on graph2 to display all edges in graph2.

Note
The adjacent edges for each vertex are stored in a priority queue. When you remove an edge from the queue, the one with the smallest weight is always removed. However, if you traverse the edges in the queue, the edges are not necessarily in increasing order of weights.
31.3 What is the printout of the following code?

```java
PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge> q =
    new PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>();
q.offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 2, 3.5));
q.offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 6, 6.5));
q.offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 7, 1.5));
System.out.println(q.poll().weight);
System.out.println(q.poll().weight);
System.out.println(q.poll().weight);
```

31.4 What is wrong in the following code? Fix it and show the printout.

```java
List<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>> queues =
    new ArrayList<PriorityQueue<WeightedEdge>>();
queues.get(0).offer(new WeightedEdge(0, 2, 3.5));
queues.get(0).offer(new WeightedEdge(0, 6, 6.5));
queues.get(0).offer(new WeightedEdge(0, 7, 1.5));
queues.get(1).offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 0, 3.5));
queues.get(1).offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 5, 8.5));
queues.get(1).offer(new WeightedEdge(1, 8, 19.5));
System.out.println(queues.get(0).peek().compareTo(queues.get(1).peek()));
```

31.4 Minimum Spanning Trees

A minimum spanning tree of a graph is a spanning tree with the minimum total weights.

A graph may have many spanning trees. Suppose that the edges are weighted. A minimum spanning tree has the minimum total weights. For example, the trees in Figures 31.5b, 31.5c, 31.5d are spanning trees for the graph in Figure 31.5a. The trees in Figures 31.3c and 31.3d are minimum spanning trees.

**Figure 31.5** The trees in (c) and (d) are minimum spanning trees of the graph in (a).
The problem of finding a minimum spanning tree has many applications. Consider a company with branches in many cities. The company wants to lease telephone lines to connect all the branches together. The phone company charges different amounts of money to connect different pairs of cities. There are many ways to connect all branches together. The cheapest way is to find a spanning tree with the minimum total rates.

### 31.4.1 Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithms

How do you find a minimum spanning tree? There are several well-known algorithms for doing so. This section introduces *Prim’s algorithm*. Prim’s algorithm starts with a spanning tree $T$ that contains an arbitrary vertex. The algorithm expands the tree by repeatedly adding a vertex with the *lowest-cost* edge incident to a vertex already in the tree. Prim’s algorithm is a greedy algorithm, and it is described in Listing 31.4.

#### Listing 31.4 Prim’s Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm

```plaintext
1 minimumSpanningTree() {
2    Let V denote the set of vertices in the graph;
3    Let T be a set for the vertices in the spanning tree;
4    Initially, add the starting vertex to T;
5
6    while (size of T < n) {
7      find u in T and v in V – T with the smallest weight
8        on the edge (u, v), as shown in Figure 31.6;
9      add v to T;
10    }
11 }
```

The algorithm starts by adding the starting vertex into $T$. It then continuously adds a vertex (say $v$) from $V - T$ into $T$. $v$ is the vertex that is adjacent to the vertex in $T$ with the smallest weight on the edge. For example, there are five edges connecting vertices in $T$ and $V - T$ as shown in Figure 31.6, and $(u, v)$ is the one with the smallest weight. Consider the graph in Figure 31.7. The algorithm adds the vertices to $T$ in this order:

1. Add vertex 0 to $T$.
2. Add vertex 5 to $T$, since $Edge(5, 0, 5)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7a.
3. Add vertex 1 to $T$, since $Edge(1, 0, 6)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7b.
4. Add vertex 6 to $T$, since $\text{Edge}(6, 1, 7)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7c.

5. Add vertex 2 to $T$, since $\text{Edge}(2, 6, 5)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7d.

6. Add vertex 4 to $T$, since $\text{Edge}(4, 6, 7)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7e.

7. Add vertex 3 to $T$, since $\text{Edge}(3, 2, 8)$ has the smallest weight among all edges incident to a vertex in $T$, as shown in Figure 31.7f.

**Figure 31.7** The adjacent vertices with the smallest weight are added successively to $T$. 
A minimum spanning tree is not unique. For example, both (c) and (d) in Figure 31.5 are minimum spanning trees for the graph in Figure 31.5a. However, if the weights are distinct, the graph has a unique minimum spanning tree.

Assume that the graph is connected and undirected. If a graph is not connected or directed, the algorithm will not work. You can modify the algorithm to find a spanning forest for any undirected graph. A spanning forest is a graph in which each connected component is a tree.

### 31.4.2 Implementation of the MST Algorithm

The `getMinimumSpanningTree(int v)` method is defined in the `WeightedGraph` class. It returns an instance of the `MST` class, as shown in Figure 31.4. The `MST` class is defined as an inner class in the `WeightedGraph` class, which extends the `Tree` class, as shown in Figure 31.8. The `Tree` class was shown in Figure 30.11. The `MST` class was implemented in lines 178–190 in Listing 31.2.

The `getMinimumSpanningTree` method was implemented in lines 107–159 in Listing 31.2. The `getMinimumSpanningTree(int startingVertex)` method first adds `startingVertex` to `T` (line 110). `T` is a list that stores the vertices added into the spanning tree (line 108). `vertices` is defined as a protected data field in the `AbstractGraph` class, and it is an array list that stores all vertices in the graph. `vertices.size()` returns the number of the vertices in the graph (line 112).

A vertex is added to `T` if it is adjacent to one of the vertices in `T` with the smallest weight (line 151). Such a vertex is found using the following procedure:

1. For each vertex `u` in `T`, find its neighbor with the smallest weight to `u`. All the neighbors of `u` are stored in `queues.get(u)`. `queues.get(u).peek()` (line 130) returns the adjacent edge with the smallest weight. If a neighbor is already in `T`, remove it (line 133). To keep the original queues intact, a copy is created in line 120. After lines 129–138, `queues.get(u).peek()` (line 141) returns the vertex with the smallest weight to `u`.
2. Compare all these neighbors and find the one with the smallest weight (lines 141–147).
After a new vertex is added to \( T \) (line 151), `totalWeight` is updated (line 155). Once all vertices are added to \( T \), an instance of `MST` is created (line 158). Note that the method will not work if the graph is not connected. However, you can modify it to obtain a partial MST.

The `MST` class extends the `Tree` class (line 178). To create an instance of `MST`, pass `root`, `parent`, `T`, and `totalWeight` (lines 181). The data fields `root`, `parent`, and `searchOrder` are defined in the `Tree` class, which is an inner class defined in `AbstractGraph`.

For each vertex, the program constructs a priority queue for its adjacent edges. It takes \( O(\log |V|) \) time to insert an edge into a priority queue and the same time to remove an edge from the priority queue. Thus, the overall time complexity for the program is \( O(|E| \log |V|) \), where \( |E| \) denotes the number of edges and \( |V| \) the number of vertices.

Listing 31.5 gives a test program that displays minimum spanning trees for the graph in Figure 31.1 and the graph in Figure 31.3a, respectively.

**Listing 31.5 TestMinimumSpanningTree.java**

```java
public class TestMinimumSpanningTree {
    public static void main(String[] args) {

        int[][] edges = {
            {0, 1, 807}, {0, 3, 1331}, {0, 5, 2097},
            {1, 0, 807}, {1, 2, 381}, {1, 3, 1267},
            {2, 1, 381}, {2, 3, 1015}, {2, 4, 1663}, {2, 10, 1435},
            {3, 0, 1331}, {3, 1, 1267}, {3, 2, 1015}, {3, 4, 599},
            {3, 5, 1003},
            {4, 2, 1663}, {4, 3, 599}, {4, 5, 533}, {4, 7, 1260},
            {4, 8, 864}, {4, 10, 496},
            {5, 0, 2097}, {5, 3, 1003}, {5, 4, 533},
            {5, 6, 983}, {5, 7, 787},
            {6, 5, 983}, {6, 7, 214},
            {7, 4, 1260}, {7, 5, 787}, {7, 6, 214}, {7, 8, 888},
            {8, 4, 864}, {8, 7, 888}, {8, 9, 661},
            {8, 10, 781}, {8, 11, 810},
            {9, 8, 661}, {9, 11, 1187},
            {10, 2, 1435}, {10, 4, 496}, {10, 8, 781}, {10, 11, 239},
            {11, 8, 810}, {11, 9, 1187}, {11, 10, 239}
        };

        WeightedGraph<String> graph1 =
            new WeightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);
        WeightedGraph<String>.MST tree1 = graph1.getMinimumSpanningTree();
        System.out.println("Total weight is "+tree1.getTotalWeight());
        tree1.printTree();

        edges = new int[][]{
            {0, 1, 2}, {0, 3, 8},
            {1, 0, 2}, {1, 2, 7}, {1, 3, 3},
            {2, 1, 7}, {2, 3, 4}, {2, 4, 5},
            {3, 0, 8}, {3, 1, 3}, {3, 2, 4}, {3, 4, 6},
            {4, 2, 5}, {4, 3, 6}
        };

        WeightedGraph<Integer> graph2 =
            new WeightedGraph<Integer>(edges, 5);
        WeightedGraph<Integer>.MST tree2 =
```
The program creates a weighted graph for Figure 31.1 in line 27. It then invokes `getMinimumSpanningTree()` (line 28) to return an MST that represents a minimum spanning tree for the graph. Invoking `printTree()` (line 30) on the MST object displays the edges in the tree. Note that MST is a subclass of Tree. The `printTree()` method is defined in the Tree class.

The graphical illustration of the minimum spanning tree is shown in Figure 31.9. The vertices are added to the tree in this order: Seattle, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Denver, Kansas City, Dallas, Houston, Chicago, New York, Boston, Atlanta, and Miami.
31.5 Finding Shortest Paths

The shortest path between two vertices is the path with the minimum total weights.

Given a graph with nonnegative weights on the edges, a well-known algorithm for finding a shortest path between two vertices was discovered by Edsger Dijkstra, a Dutch computer scientist. In order to find a shortest path from vertex u to vertex v, Dijkstra's algorithm finds the shortest path from u to all vertices. So Dijkstra's algorithm is known as a single-source shortest path algorithm. The algorithm uses cost[v] to store the cost of the shortest path from vertex v to the source vertex s. cost[s] is 0. Initially assign infinity to cost[v] to indicate that no path is found from v to s. Let V denote all vertices in the graph and T denote the set of the vertices whose costs are known. Initially, the source vertex s is in T. The algorithm repeatedly finds a vertex u in T and a vertex v in V - T such that cost[u] + w(u, v) is the smallest, and moves v to T. Here, w(u, v) denotes the weight on edge (u, v).

The algorithm is described in Listing 31.6.

**LISTING 31.6 Dijkstra's Single-Source Shortest-Path Algorithm**

1  shortestPath(s) {
2    Let V denote the set of vertices in the graph;
3    Let T be a set that contains the vertices whose
4      paths to s are known;
5    Initially T contains source vertex s with cost[s] = 0;
6  }
7  while (size of T < n) {
8    find v in V - T with the smallest cost[u] + w(u, v) value
9      among all u in T;
10    add v to T and set cost[v] = cost[u] + w(u, v);
11  }
12}
This algorithm is very similar to Prim’s for finding a minimum spanning tree. Both algorithms divide the vertices into two sets: \( T \) and \( V - T \). In the case of Prim’s algorithm, set \( T \) contains the vertices that are already added to the tree. In the case of Dijkstra’s, set \( T \) contains the vertices whose shortest paths to the source have been found. Both algorithms repeatedly find a vertex from \( V - T \) and add it to \( T \). In the case of Prim’s algorithm, the vertex is adjacent to some vertex in the set with the minimum weight on the edge. In Dijkstra’s algorithm, the vertex is adjacent to some vertex in the set with the minimum total cost to the source.

The algorithm starts by adding the source vertex \( s \) into \( T \) and sets \( \text{cost}[s] \) to 0 (line 5). It then continuously adds a vertex (say \( v \)) from \( V - T \) into \( T \). \( v \) is the vertex that is adjacent to a vertex \( u \) in \( T \) with the smallest \( \text{cost}[u] + w(u, v) \). For example, there are five edges connecting vertices in \( T \) and \( V - T \), as shown in Figure 31.10; \((u, v)\) is the one with the smallest \( \text{cost}[u] + w(u, v) \). After \( v \) is added to \( T \), set \( \text{cost}[v] \) to \( \text{cost}[u] + w(u, v) \) (line 10).

Let us illustrate Dijkstra’s algorithm using the graph in Figure 31.11a. Suppose the source vertex is 1. Therefore, \( \text{cost}[1] \) is 0 and the costs for all other vertices are initially \( \infty \), as shown in Figure 31.11b. We use the \( \text{parent}[i] \) to denote the parent of \( i \) in the path. For convenience, set the parent of the source node to -1.

Initially set \( T \) contains the source vertex. Vertices 2, 0, 6, and 3 are adjacent to the vertices in \( T \), and vertex 2 has the path of smallest cost to source vertex 1, so add 2 to \( T \). \( \text{cost}[2] \) now becomes 5, as shown in Figure 31.12.
Now $T$ contains $\{1, 2\}$. Vertices 0, 6, and 3 are adjacent to the vertices in $T$, and vertex 0 has a path of smallest cost to source vertex 1, so add 0 to $T$. $T$ now contains $\{1, 2, 0\}$.

Now $T$ contains $\{1, 2, 0\}$. Vertices 3, 6, and 5 are adjacent to the vertices in $T$, and vertex 6 has the path of smallest cost to source vertex 1, so add 6 to $T$. $T$ now contains $\{1, 2, 0, 6\}$.
Now \( T \) contains \{1, 2, 0, 6\}. Vertices 3 and 5 are adjacent to the vertices in \( T \), and both vertices have a path of the same smallest cost to source vertex 1. You can choose either 3 or 5. Let us add 3 to \( T \). \( \text{cost}[3] \) now becomes 10, as shown in Figure 31.15.

![Figure 31.15](image)

*Figure 31.15* Now vertices \{1, 2, 0, 6, 3\} are in set \( T \).

Now \( T \) contains \{1, 2, 0, 6, 3\}. Vertices 4 and 5 are adjacent to the vertices in \( T \), and vertex 5 has the path of smallest cost to source vertex 1, so add 5 to \( T \). \( \text{cost}[5] \) now becomes 10, as shown in Figure 31.16.

![Figure 31.16](image)

*Figure 31.16* Now vertices \{1, 2, 0, 6, 3, 5\} are in set \( T \).

Now \( T \) contains \{1, 2, 0, 6, 3, 5\}. The smallest cost for a path to connect 4 with 1 is 15, as shown in Figure 31.17. As you can see, the algorithm essentially finds all the shortest paths from a source vertex, which produces a tree rooted at the source vertex. We call this tree a *single-source all-shortest-path tree* (or simply a *shortest-path tree*). To model this tree, define a class named \texttt{ShortestPathTree} that extends the \texttt{Tree} class, as shown in Figure 31.18. \texttt{ShortestPathTree} is defined as an inner class in \texttt{WeightedGraph} in lines 249–273 in Listing 31.2. The \texttt{getShortestPath(int sourceVertex)} method was implemented in lines 193–246 in Listing 31.2. The method first adds \texttt{sourceVertex} to \( T \) (line 197). \( T \) is a list that...
stores the vertices whose paths have been found (line 195). vertices is defined as a protected data field in the AbstractGraph class, and it is an array that stores all vertices in the graph. vertices.size() returns the number of the vertices in the graph (line 200).

Each vertex is assigned a cost. The cost of the source vertex is 0 (line 211). The cost of all other vertices is initially assigned as infinity (line 209).

The method needs to remove the elements from the queues in order to find the one with the smallest total cost. To keep the original queues intact, queues are cloned in line 214.

A vertex is added to \( T \) if it is adjacent to one of the vertices in \( T \) with the smallest cost (line 240). Such a vertex is found using the following procedure:

1. For each vertex \( u \) in \( T \), find its incident edge \( e \) with the smallest weight to \( u \). All the incident edges to \( u \) are stored in queues.get(\( u \)). queues.get(\( u \)).peek() (line 231) returns the incident edge with the smallest weight. If \( e.v \) is already in \( T \), remove \( e \) from queues.get(\( u \)) (line 223). After lines 221–229, queues.get(\( u \)).peek() returns the edge \( e \), such that \( e \) has the smallest weight to \( u \) and \( e.v \) is not in \( T \) (line 231).

2. Compare all these edges and find the one with the smallest value on \( \text{cost}[u] + e.\text{getWeight}() \) (line 232).

After a new vertex is added to \( T \) (line 240), the cost of this vertex is updated (line 241). Once all vertices are added to \( T \), an instance of ShortestPathTree is created (line 245). Note that the method will not work if the graph is not connected. However, you can modify it to obtain the shortest paths to all connected vertices to the source vertex.
The ShortestPathTree class extends the Tree class (line 249). To create an instance of ShortestPathTree, pass sourceVertex, parent, T, and cost (lines 253). sourceVertex becomes the root in the tree. The data fields root, parent, and searchOrder are defined in the Tree class, which is an inner class defined in AbstractGraph.

Dijkstra’s algorithm is implemented essentially in the same way as Prim’s. Therefore, the time complexity for Dijkstra’s algorithm is $O(|E| \log |V|)$, where $|E|$ denotes the number of edges and $|V|$ the number of vertices.

Dijkstra’s algorithm is a combination of a greedy algorithm and dynamic programming. It is a greedy algorithm in the sense that it always adds a new vertex that has the shortest distance to the source. It stores the shortest distance of each known vertex to the source and uses it later to avoid redundant computing, so Dijkstra’s algorithm also uses dynamic programming.

**Pedagogical Note**

Go to www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/ShortestPathAnimation.html to use a GUI interactive program to find the shortest path between any two cities, as shown in Figure 31.19.

![Image](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/ShortestPathAnimation.html)

**Figure 31.19** The animation tool displays a shortest path between two cities.

Listing 31.7 gives a test program that displays the shortest paths from Chicago to all other cities in Figure 31.1 and the shortest paths from vertex 3 to all vertices for the graph in Figure 31.3a, respectively.

**Listing 31.7** TestShortestPath.java

1. public class TestShortestPath {
2.     public static void main(String[] args) {
3.         String[] vertices = {"Seattle", "San Francisco", "Los Angeles",
4.                                 ..., etc.};
5.         //...
23        
22        
21        
20        
19        
18        
17        
16          
15        
14          
13        
12          
11        
10        
9        
8        
7        
6        
5        
4        
3        
2        
1        

int[][] edges = { 
0, 1, 807}, {0, 3, 1331}, {0, 5, 2097},
1, 0, 807}, {1, 2, 381}, {1, 3, 1267},
2, 1, 381}, {2, 3, 1015}, {2, 4, 1663}, {2, 10, 1435},
3, 0, 1331}, {3, 1, 1267}, {3, 2, 1015}, {3, 4, 599},
3, 5, 1003},
4, 2, 1663}, {4, 3, 599}, {4, 5, 533}, {4, 7, 1260},
4, 8, 864}, {4, 10, 496},
5, 0, 2097}, {5, 3, 1003}, {5, 4, 533},
5, 6, 983}, {5, 7, 787},
6, 5, 983}, {6, 7, 214},
7, 4, 1260}, {7, 5, 787}, {7, 6, 214}, {7, 8, 888},
8, 4, 864}, {8, 7, 888}, {8, 9, 661},
8, 10, 781}, {8, 11, 810},
9, 8, 661}, {9, 11, 1187},
10, 2, 1435}, {10, 4, 496}, {10, 8, 781}, {10, 11, 239},
11, 8, 810}, {11, 9, 1187}, {11, 10, 239}
};

WeightedGraph<String> graph1 = 
    new WeightedGraph<String>(edges, vertices);
WeightedGraph<String>.ShortestPathTree tree1 = 
    graph1.getShortestPath(graph1.getIndex("Chicago"));
tree1.printAllPaths();

// Display shortest paths from Houston to Chicago
System.out.println("Shortest path from Houston to Chicago: ");
java.util.List<String> path = tree1.getPath(11);
for (String s : path) {
    System.out.print(s + " ");
}
edges = new int[][]{
0, 1, 2}, {0, 3, 8},
1, 0, 2}, {1, 2, 7}, {1, 3, 3},
2, 1, 7}, {2, 3, 4}, {2, 4, 5},
3, 0, 8}, {3, 1, 3}, {3, 2, 4}, {3, 4, 6},
4, 2, 5}, {4, 3, 6}
};
WeightedGraph<Integer> graph2 = 
    new WeightedGraph<Integer>(edges, 5);
WeightedGraph<Integer>.ShortestPathTree tree2 = 
    graph2.getShortestPath(3);
tree2.printAllPaths();
}

All shortest paths from Chicago are:
A path from Chicago to Seattle: Chicago Seattle (cost: 2097)
A path from Chicago to San Francisco:
    Chicago Denver San Francisco (cost: 2270)
A path from Chicago to Los Angeles:
    Chicago Denver Los Angeles (cost: 2018)
A path from Chicago to Denver: Chicago Denver (cost: 1003)
A path from Chicago to Kansas City: Chicago Kansas City (cost: 533)
A path from Chicago to Chicago: Chicago (cost: 0)
A path from Chicago to Boston: Chicago Boston (cost: 983)
A path from Chicago to New York: Chicago New York (cost: 787)
A path from Chicago to Atlanta:
  Chicago Kansas City Atlanta (cost: 1397)
A path from Chicago to Miami:
  Chicago Kansas City Atlanta Miami (cost: 2058)
A path from Chicago to Dallas:
  Chicago Kansas City Dallas (cost: 1029)
A path from Chicago to Houston:
  Chicago Kansas City Dallas Houston (cost: 1268)

Shortest path from Chicago to Houston:
  Chicago Kansas City Dallas Houston

All shortest paths from 3 are:
A path from 3 to 0: 3 1 0 (cost: 5)
A path from 3 to 1: 3 1 (cost: 3)
A path from 3 to 2: 3 2 (cost: 4)
A path from 3 to 3: 3 (cost: 0)
A path from 3 to 4: 3 4 (cost: 6)

The program creates a weighted graph for Figure 31.1 in line 27. It then invokes the `getShortestPath(graph1.getIndex("Chicago"))` method to return a `Path` object that contains all shortest paths from Chicago. Invoking `printAllPaths()` on the `ShortestPathTree` object displays all the paths (line 30).

The graphical illustration of all shortest paths from Chicago is shown in Figure 31.20. The shortest paths from Chicago to the cities are found in this order: Kansas City, New York,
31.9 Trace Dijkstra’s algorithm for finding shortest paths from Boston to all other cities in Figure 31.1.

31.10 Is the shortest path between two vertices unique if all edges have different weights?

31.11 If you use an adjacency matrix to represent weighted edges, what would be the time complexity for Dijkstra’s algorithm?

31.12 What happens to the getShortestPath() method in WeightedGraph if the graph is not connected? Verify your answer by writing a test program that creates an unconnected graph and invoke the getShortestPath() method.

31.6 Case Study: The Weighted Nine Tails Problem

The weighted nine tails problem can be reduced to the weighted shortest path problem.

Section 30.10 presented the nine tails problem and solved it using the BFS algorithm. This section presents a variation of the problem and solves it using the shortest-path algorithm.

The nine tails problem is to find the minimum number of the moves that lead to all coins facing down. Each move flips a head coin and its neighbors. The weighted nine tails problem assigns the number of flips as a weight on each move. For example, you can move from the coins in Figure 31.21a to those in Figure 31.21b by flipping the first coin in the first row and its two neighbors. Thus, the weight for this move is 3.

![Figure 31.21](image)

The weight for each move is the number of flips for the move.

The weighted nine tails problem can be reduced to finding the shortest path from a starting node to the target node in an edge-weighted graph. The graph has 512 nodes. Create an edge from node \( v \) to \( u \) if there is a move from node \( u \) to node \( v \). Assign the number of flips to be the weight of the edge.

Recall that in Section 30.10 we defined a class NineTailModel for modeling the nine tails problem. We now define a new class named WeightedNineTailModel that extends NineTailModel, as shown in Figure 31.22.

The NineTailModel class creates a Graph and obtains a Tree rooted at the target node 511. WeightedNineTailModel is the same as NineTailModel except that it creates a WeightedGraph and obtains a ShortestPathTree rooted at the target node 511. WeightedNineTailModel extends NineTailModel. The method getEdges() finds all edges in the graph. The getNumberOfFlips(int \( u \), int \( v \)) method returns the number of flips from node \( u \) to node \( v \). The getNumberOfFlips(int \( u \)) method returns the number of flips from node \( u \) to the target node.

Listing 31.8 implements WeightedNineTailModel.
Chapter 31  Weighted Graphs and Applications

LISTING 31.8  WeightedNineTailModel.java

```java
import java.util.*;

public class WeightedNineTailModel extends NineTailModel {
  public WeightedNineTailModel() {
    // Create edges
    List<WeightedEdge> edges = getEdges();

    // Create a graph
    WeightedGraph<Integer> graph = new WeightedGraph<Integer>(
      edges, NUMBER_OF_NODES);

    // Obtain a shortest path tree rooted at the target node
    tree = graph.getShortestPath(511);
  }

  private List<WeightedEdge> getEdges() {
    // Store edges
    List<WeightedEdge> edges = new ArrayList<WeightedEdge>();

    for (int u = 0; u < NUMBER_OF_NODES; u++) {
      // Create all edges for the graph */
    }
  }
}
```

FIGURE 31.22  The WeightedNineTailModel class extends NineTailModel.
for (int k = 0; k < 9; k++) {
    char[] node = getNode(u); // Get the node for vertex u
    if (node[k] == 'H') {
        int v = getFlippedNode(node, k);
        int numberOfFlips = getNumberOfFlips(u, v);
        // Add edge (v, u) for a legal move from node u to node v
        edges.add(new WeightedEdge(v, u, numberOfFlips));
    }
}
return edges;
}

private static int getNumberOfFlips(int u, int v) {
    char[] node1 = getNode(u);
    char[] node2 = getNode(v);
    int count = 0; // Count the number of different cells
    for (int i = 0; i < node1.length; i++)
        if (node1[i] != node2[i]) count++;
    return count;
}

public int getNumberOfFlips(int u) {
    return (int)((WeightedGraph<Integer>.ShortestPathTree)tree)
        .getCost(u);
}

WeightedNineTailModel extends NineTailModel to build a WeightedGraph to model the weighted nine tails problem (lines 10–11). For each node u, the getEdges() method finds a flipped node v and assigns the number of flips as the weight for edge (v, u) (line 30). The getNumberOfFlips(int u, int v) method returns the number of flips from node u to node v (lines 38–47). The number of flips is the number of the different cells between the two nodes (line 44).

The WeightedNineTailModel obtains a ShortestPathTree rooted at the target node 511 (line 14). Note that tree is a protected data field defined in NineTailModel and ShortestPathTree is a subclass of Tree. The methods defined in NineTailModel use the tree property.

The getNumberOfFlips(int u) method (lines 49–52) returns the number of flips from node u to the target node, which is the cost of the path from node u to the target node. This cost can be obtained by invoking the getCost(u) method defined in the ShortestPathTree class (line 51).

Listing 31.9 gives a program that prompts the user to enter an initial node and displays the minimum number of flips to reach the target node.

Listing 31.9  WeightedNineTail.java

import java.util.Scanner;

public class WeightedNineTail {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Prompt the user to enter the nine coins' Hs and Ts
Enter an initial nine coins' Hs and Ts: HHHHHHH  

The steps to flip the coins are

HHH
HHH
TTT
HHH
HHT
TTT
TTT
TTT

The number of flips is 8

The program prompts the user to enter an initial node with nine letters with a combination of Hs and Ts as a string in line 8, obtains an array of characters from the string (line 9), creates a model (line 11), obtains the shortest path from the initial node to the target node (lines 12–13), displays the nodes in the path (lines 16–18), and invokes `getNumberOfFlips` to get the number of flips needed to reach the target node (line 21).

31.13 Why is the `tree` data field in `NineTailModel` in Section 30.13 defined protected?

31.14 How are the nodes created for the graph in `WeightedNineTailModel`?

31.15 How are the edges created for the graph in `WeightedNineTailModel`?

Key Terms

- Dijkstra's algorithm
- shortest path
- edge-weighted graph
- single-source shortest path
- minimum spanning tree
- vertex-weighted graph
- Prim's algorithm
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. You can use adjacency matrices or priority queues to represent weighted edges in graphs.

2. A spanning tree of a graph is a subgraph that is a tree and connects all vertices in the graph. You learned how to implement Prim’s algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree.

3. You learned how to implement Dijkstra’s algorithm for finding shortest paths.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

*31.1 (Kruskal’s algorithm) The text introduced Prim’s algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree. Kruskal’s algorithm is another well-known algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree. The algorithm repeatedly finds a minimum-weight edge and adds it to the tree if it does not cause a cycle. The process ends when all vertices are in the tree. Design and implement an algorithm for finding an MST using Kruskal’s algorithm.

*31.2 (Implement Prim’s algorithm using an adjacency matrix) The text implements Prim’s algorithm using priority queues on adjacent edges. Implement the algorithm using an adjacency matrix for weighted graphs.

*31.3 (Implement Dijkstra’s algorithm using an adjacency matrix) The text implements Dijkstra’s algorithm using priority queues on adjacent edges. Implement the algorithm using an adjacency matrix for weighted graphs.

*31.4 (Modify weight in the nine tails problem) In the text, we assign the number of the flips as the weight for each move. Assuming that the weight is three times of the number of flips, revise the program.

*31.5 (Prove or disprove) The conjecture is that both NineTailModel and WeightedNineTailModel result in the same shortest path. Write a program to prove or disprove it. (Hint: Let tree1 and tree2 denote the trees rooted at node 511 obtained from NineTailModel and WeightedNineTailModel, respectively. If the depth of a node u is the same in tree1 and in tree2, the length of the path from u to the target is the same.)

**31.6 (Weighted 4 x 4 16 tails model) The weighted nine tails problem in the text uses a 3 x 3 matrix. Assume that you have 16 coins placed in a 4 x 4 matrix. Create a new model class named WeightedTailModel16. Create an instance of the model and save the object into a file named WeightedTailModel16.dat.

**31.7 (Weighted 4 x 4 16 tails view) Listing 31.9, WeightedNineTail.java, presents a view for the nine tails problem. Revise this program for the weighted 4 x 4 16 tails problem. Your program should read the model object created from the preceding exercise.

**31.8 (Traveling salesperson problem) The traveling salesperson problem (TSP) is to find the shortest round-trip route that visits each city exactly once and then returns to the starting city. The problem is equivalent to finding the shortest Hamiltonian
cycle in Programming Exercise 30.17. Add the following method in the
WeightedGraph class:

```java
public List<Integer> getShortestHamiltonianCycle()
```

*31.9 (Find a minimum spanning tree) Write a program that reads a connected graph
from a file and displays its minimum spanning tree. The first line in the file con-
tains a number that indicates the number of vertices (n). The vertices are labeled as
0, 1, ..., n-1. Each subsequent line describes the edges in the form of u1, v1, w1 | u2, v2, w2 | ...
Each triplet in this form describes an edge and its
weight. Figure 31.23 shows an example of the file for the corresponding graph.
Note that we assume the graph is undirected. If the graph has an edge (u, v), it also
has an edge (v, u). Only one edge is represented in the file. When you construct a
diagram, both edges need to be considered.

```plaintext
(c) (b)
```

**FIGURE 31.23** The vertices and edges of a weighted graph can be stored in a file.

Your program should prompt the user to enter the name of the file, read data from the
file, create an instance g of WeightedGraph, invoke g.printWeightedEdges() to display all edges, invoke getMinimumSpanningTree() to obtain an instance
tree of WeightedGraph.MST, invoke tree.getTotalWeight() to display the
weight of the minimum spanning tree, and invoke tree.printTree() to display
the tree. Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a file name: c:\exercise\WeightedGraphSample.txt
The number of vertices is 6
Vertex 0: (0, 2, 3) (0, 1, 100)
Vertex 1: (1, 3, 20) (1, 0, 100)
Vertex 2: (2, 4, 2) (2, 3, 40) (2, 0, 3)
Vertex 3: (3, 4, 5) (3, 5, 5) (3, 1, 20) (3, 2, 40)
Vertex 4: (4, 2, 2) (4, 3, 5) (4, 5, 9)
Vertex 5: (5, 3, 5) (5, 4, 9)
Total weight is 35
Root is: 0
Edges: (3, 1) (0, 2) (4, 3) (2, 4) (3, 5)
```

*(Hint: Use new WeightedGraph(list, numberOfVertices) to create
a graph, where list contains a list of WeightedEdge objects. Use new
WeightedEdge(u, v, w) to create an edge. Read the first line to get the number
of vertices. Read each subsequent line into a string s and use s.split("[\[\]]") to extract the triplets. For each triplet, use triplet.split("[,]") to extract vertices and weight.)

**31.10**  (Create a file for a graph) Modify Listing 31.3, TestWeightedGraph.java, to create a file for representing `graph1`. The file format is described in Programming Exercise 31.9. Create the file from the array defined in lines 7–24 in Listing 31.3. The number of vertices for the graph is 12, which will be stored in the first line of the file. An edge \((u, v)\) is stored if \(u < v\). The contents of the file should be as follows:

```
12
0, 1, 807 | 0, 3, 1331 | 0, 5, 2097
1, 2, 381 | 1, 3, 1267
2, 3, 1015 | 2, 4, 1663 | 2, 10, 1435
3, 4, 599 | 3, 5, 1003
4, 5, 533 | 4, 7, 1260 | 4, 8, 864 | 4, 10, 496
5, 6, 983 | 5, 7, 787
6, 7, 214
7, 8, 888
8, 9, 661 | 8, 10, 781 | 8, 11, 810
9, 11, 1187
10, 11, 239
```

**31.11**  (Find shortest paths) Write a program that reads a connected graph from a file. The graph is stored in a file using the same format specified in Programming Exercise 31.9. Your program should prompt the user to enter the name of the file then two vertices, and should display the shortest path between the two vertices. For example, for the graph in Figure 31.23, the shortest path between 0 and 1 can be displayed as 0 2 4 3 1.

Here is a sample run of the program:

```
Enter a file name: WeightedGraphSample2.txt
Enter two vertices (integer indexes): 0 1
The number of vertices is 6
Vertex 0: (0, 2, 3) (0, 1, 100)
Vertex 1: (1, 3, 20) (1, 0, 100)
Vertex 2: (2, 4, 2) (2, 3, 40) (2, 0, 3)
Vertex 3: (3, 4, 5) (3, 5, 5) (3, 1, 20) (3, 2, 40)
Vertex 4: (4, 2, 2) (4, 3, 5) (4, 5, 9)
Vertex 5: (5, 3, 5) (5, 4, 9)
A path from 0 to 1: 0 2 4 3 1
```

**31.12**  (Display weighted graphs) Revise `GraphView` in Listing 30.6 to display a weighted graph. Write a program that displays the graph in Figure 31.1 as shown in Figure 31.24a.

**31.13**  (Display shortest paths) Revise `GraphView` in Listing 30.6 to display a weighted graph and the shortest path between the two specified cities, as shown in Figure 31.19. You need to add a data field `path` in `GraphView`. If a `path` is not null, the edges in the path are displayed in red. If a city not in the map is entered, the program displays a dialog box to alert the user.
**31.14** *(Display a minimum spanning tree)* Revise GraphView in Listing 30.6 to display a weighted graph and a minimum spanning tree for the graph in Figure 31.1, as shown in Figure 31.24b. The edges in the MST are shown in red.

***31.15** *(Dynamic graphs)* Write a program that lets the users create a weighted graph dynamically. The user can create a vertex by entering its name and location, as shown in Figure 31.25. The user can also create an edge to connect two vertices. To simplify the program, assume that vertex names are the same as vertex indices. You have to add the vertex indices 0, 1, . . . , and n, in this order. The user can specify two vertices and let the program display their shortest path in red.

**Figure 31.24** (a) Exercise 31.12 displays a weighted graph. (b) Exercise 31.14 displays an MST.

**Figure 31.25** The program can add vertices and edges and display the shortest path between two specified vertices.
***31.16  (Display a dynamic MST) Write a program that lets the user create a weighted graph dynamically. The user can create a vertex by entering its name and location, as shown in Figure 31.26. The user can also create an edge to connect two vertices. To simplify the program, assume that vertex names are the same as those of vertex indices. You have to add the vertex indices 0, 1, . . ., and n, in this order. The edges in the MST are displayed in red. As new edges are added, the MST is redisplayed.

![Dynamic MST](image)

**Figure 31.26** The program can add vertices and edges and display MST dynamically.

***31.17  (Weighted graph visualization tool) Develop an applet as shown in Figure 31.2, with the following requirements: (1) The radius of each vertex is 20 pixels. (2) The user clicks the left mouse button to place a vertex centered at the mouse point, provided that the mouse point is not inside or too close to an existing vertex. (3) The user clicks the right mouse button inside an existing vertex to remove the vertex. (4) The user presses a mouse button inside a vertex and drags to another vertex and then releases the button to create an edge, and the distance between the two vertices is also displayed. (5) The user drags a vertex while pressing the CTRL key to move a vertex. (6) The vertices are numbers starting from 0. When a vertex is removed, the vertices are renumbered. (7) You can click the Show MST or Show All SP From the Source button to display an MST or SP tree from a starting vertex. (8) You can click the Show Shortest Path button to display the shortest path between the two specified vertices.
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Objectives

- To get an overview of multithreading (§32.2).
- To develop task classes by implementing the `Runnable` interface (§32.3).
- To create threads to run tasks using the `Thread` class (§32.3).
- To control threads using the methods in the `Thread` class (§32.4).
- To control animations using threads (§32.5, §32.7).
- To run code in the event dispatch thread (§32.6).
- To execute tasks in a thread pool (§32.8).
- To use synchronized methods or blocks to synchronize threads to avoid race conditions (§32.9).
- To synchronize threads using locks (§32.10).
- To facilitate thread communications using conditions on locks (§§32.11–32.12).
- To use blocking queues to synchronize access to an array queue, linked queue, and priority queue (§32.13).
- To restrict the number of accesses to a shared resource using semaphores (§32.14).
- To use the resource-ordering technique to avoid deadlocks (§32.15).
- To describe the life cycle of a thread (§32.16).
- To create synchronized collections using the static methods in the `Collections` class (§32.17).
- To develop parallel programs using the Fork/Join Framework (§32.18).
32.1 Introduction

Multithreading enables multiple tasks in a program to be executed concurrently.

One of the powerful features of Java is its built-in support for multithreading—the concurrent running of multiple tasks within a program. In many programming languages, you have to invoke system-dependent procedures and functions to implement multithreading. This chapter introduces the concepts of threads and how to develop multithreading programs in Java.

32.2 Thread Concepts

A program may consist of many tasks that can run concurrently. A thread is the flow of execution, from beginning to end, of a task.

A thread provides the mechanism for running a task. With Java, you can launch multiple threads from a program concurrently. These threads can be executed simultaneously in multiprocessor systems, as shown in Figure 32.1a.

![Figure 32.1](a) Here multiple threads are running on multiple CPUs. (b) Here multiple threads share a single CPU.

In single-processor systems, as shown in Figure 32.1b, the multiple threads share CPU time, known as time sharing, and the operating system is responsible for scheduling and allocating resources to them. This arrangement is practical, because most of the time the CPU is idle. It does nothing, for example, while waiting for the user to enter data.

Multithreading can make your program more responsive and interactive, as well as enhance performance. For example, a good word processor lets you print or save a file while you are typing. In some cases, multithreaded programs run faster than single-threaded programs even on single-processor systems. Java provides exceptionally good support for creating and running threads and for locking resources to prevent conflicts.

When your program executes as an application, the Java interpreter starts a thread for the main method. When your program executes as an applet, the Web browser starts a thread to run the applet. You can create additional threads to run concurrent tasks in the program. In Java, each task is an instance of the Runnable interface, also called a runnable object. A thread is essentially an object that facilitates the execution of a task.

32.3 Creating Tasks and Threads

A task class must implement the Runnable interface. A task must be run from a thread.

Tasks are objects. To create tasks, you have to first define a class for tasks, which implements the Runnable interface. The Runnable interface is rather simple. All it contains is...
the `run` method. You need to implement this method to tell the system how your thread is going to run. A template for developing a task class is shown in Figure 32.2a.

Once you have defined a `TaskClass`, you can create a task using its constructor. For example,

```java
Runnable printB = new PrintChar('b', 100);
Runnable print100 = new PrintNum(100);
Runnable printA = new PrintChar('a', 100);
```

A task must be executed in a thread. The `Thread` class contains the constructors for creating threads and many useful methods for controlling threads. To create a thread for a task, use

```java
Thread thread = new Thread(task);
```

You can then invoke the `start()` method to tell the JVM that the thread is ready to run, as follows:

```java
thread.start();
```

The JVM will execute the task by invoking the task’s `run()` method. Figure 32.2b outlines the major steps for creating a task, a thread, and starting the thread.

Listing 32.1 gives a program that creates three tasks and three threads to run them.

- The first task prints the letter `a` 100 times.
- The second task prints the letter `b` 100 times.
- The third task prints the integers 1 through 100.

When you run this program, the three threads will share the CPU and take turns printing letters and numbers on the console. Figure 32.3 shows a sample run of the program.

**LISTING 32.1  TaskThreadDemo.java**

```java
public class TaskThreadDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create tasks
        Runnable printA = new PrintChar('a', 100);
        Runnable printB = new PrintChar('b', 100);
        Runnable print100 = new PrintNum(100);
    }
}
```
Tasks `printA`, `printB`, and `print100` are executed simultaneously to display the letter `a` 100 times, the letter `b` 100 times, and the numbers from 1 to 100.

```java
// Create threads
Thread thread1 = new Thread(printA);
Thread thread2 = new Thread(printB);
Thread thread3 = new Thread(print100);

// Start threads
thread1.start();
thread2.start();
thread3.start();
```

---

**Figure 32.3** Tasks `printA`, `printB`, and `print100` are executed simultaneously to display the letter `a` 100 times, the letter `b` 100 times, and the numbers from 1 to 100.
32.3 Creating Tasks and Threads

The program creates three tasks (lines 4–6). To run them concurrently, three threads are created (lines 9–11). The `start()` method (lines 14–16) is invoked to start a thread that causes the `run()` method in the task to be executed. When the `run()` method completes, the thread terminates.

Because the first two tasks, `printA` and `printB`, have similar functionality, they can be defined in one task class `PrintChar` (lines 21–41). The `PrintChar` class implements `Runnable` and overrides the `run()` method (lines 36–40) with the print-character action. This class provides a framework for printing any single character a given number of times. The runnable objects `printA` and `printB` are instances of the `PrintChar` class.

The `PrintNum` class (lines 44–58) implements `Runnable` and overrides the `run()` method (lines 53–57) with the print-number action. This class provides a framework for printing numbers from `1` to `n`, for any integer `n`. The runnable object `print100` is an instance of the class `printNum` class.

**Note**
If you don’t see the effect of these three threads running concurrently, increase the number of characters to be printed. For example, change line 4 to:

```java
Runnable printA = new PrintChar('a', 10000);
```

**Important Note**
The `run()` method in a task specifies how to perform the task. This method is automatically invoked by the JVM. You should not invoke it. Invoking `run()` directly merely executes this method in the same thread; no new thread is started.

32.3 How do you define a task class? How do you create a thread for a task?
32.4 What would happen if you replaced the `start()` method with the `run()` method in lines 14–16 in Listing 32.1?

```java
print100.start();
printA.start();
printB.start();
```

Replaced by

```java
print100.run();
printA.run();
printB.run();
```

32.5 What is wrong in the following two programs? Correct the errors.

(a)
```java
public class Test implements Runnable {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new Test();
    }

    public Test() {
        Test task = new Test();
        new Thread(task).start();
    }

    public void run() {
        System.out.println("test");
    }
}
```

(b)
```java
public class Test implements Runnable {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new Test();
    }

    public Test() {
        Thread t = new Thread(this);
        t.start();
        t.start();
    }

    public void run() {
        System.out.println("test");
    }
}
```
32.4 The Thread Class

The Thread class contains the constructors for creating threads for tasks and the methods for controlling threads.

Figure 32.4 shows the class diagram for the Thread class.

![Class diagram for Thread class](image)

### Key Point

- `java.lang.Thread` is an interface that declares the methods for controlling threads.
- `java.lang.Runnable` is an interface that declares the method `run()`.

### Methods of the Thread class:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>Thread()</code></td>
<td>Creates an empty thread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>Thread(task: Runnable)</code></td>
<td>Creates a thread for a specified task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>start()</code></td>
<td>Starts the thread that causes the <code>run()</code> method to be invoked by the JVM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>isAlive()</code></td>
<td>Tests whether the thread is currently running.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>setPriority(p: int)</code></td>
<td>Sets priority <code>p</code> (ranging from 1 to 10) for this thread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>join()</code></td>
<td>Waits for this thread to finish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sleep(millis: long)</code></td>
<td>Puts a thread to sleep for a specified time in milliseconds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>yield()</code></td>
<td>Causes a thread to pause temporarily and allow other threads to execute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 32.4** The Thread class contains the methods for controlling threads.

### Note

Since the Thread class implements Runnable, you could define a class that extends Thread and implements the run method, as shown in Figure 32.5a, and then create an object from the class and invoke its `start` method in a client program to start the thread, as shown in Figure 32.5b.

**Figure 32.5** Define a thread class by extending the Thread class.
This approach is, however, not recommended, because it mixes the task and the mechanism of running the task. Separating the task from the thread is a preferred design.

**Note**

The `Thread` class also contains the `stop()`, `suspend()`, and `resume()` methods. As of Java 2, these methods were **deprecated** (or outdated) because they are known to be inherently unsafe. Instead of using the `stop()` method, you should assign `null` to a `Thread` variable to indicate that it is stopped.

You can use the `yield()` method to temporarily release time for other threads. For example, suppose you modify the code in the `run()` method in lines 53–57 for `PrintNum` in Listing 32.1 as follows:

```java
public void run() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= lastNum; i++) {
        System.out.print(" "+i);
        Thread.yield();
    }
}
```

Every time a number is printed, the thread of the `print100` task is yielded to other threads.

The `sleep(long millis)` method puts the thread to sleep for the specified time in milliseconds to allow other threads to execute. For example, suppose you modify the code in lines 53–57 in Listing 32.1 as follows:

```java
public void run() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= lastNum; i++) {
        System.out.print(" "+i);
        if (i >= 50) Thread.sleep(1);
    }
}
```

Every time a number (>= 50) is printed, the thread of the `print100` task is put to sleep for 1 millisecond.

The `sleep` method may throw an `InterruptedException`, which is a checked exception. Such an exception may occur when a sleeping thread’s `interrupt()` method is called. The `interrupt()` method is very rarely invoked on a thread, so an `InterruptedException` is unlikely to occur. But since Java forces you to catch checked exceptions, you have to put it in a `try-catch` block. If a `sleep` method is invoked in a loop, you should wrap the loop in a `try-catch` block, as shown in (a) below. If the loop is outside the `try-catch` block, as shown in (b), the thread may continue to execute even though it is being interrupted.

```java
public void run() {
    try {
        while (...) {
            Thread.sleep(1000);
        }
    } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}
```

(a) Correct

```java
public void run() {
    try {
        while (...) {
            Thread.sleep(sleepTime);
        }
    } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}
```

(b) Incorrect
You can use the `join()` method to force one thread to wait for another thread to finish. For example, suppose you modify the code in lines 53–57 in Listing 32.1 as follows:

```java
public void run() {
    Thread thread4 = new Thread(new PrintChar('c', 40));
    thread4.start();
    try {
        for (int i = 1; i <= lastNum; i++) {
            System.out.print(" "+i);
            if (i == 50) thread4.join();
        }
    } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
    }
}
```

A new `thread4` is created, and it prints character `c` 40 times. The numbers from 50 to 100 are printed after thread `thread4` is finished.

Java assigns every thread a priority. By default, a thread inherits the priority of the thread that spawned it. You can increase or decrease the priority of any thread by using the `setPriority()` method, and you can get the thread's priority by using the `getPriority()` method. Priorities are numbers ranging from 1 to 10. The `Thread` class has the `int` constants `MIN_PRIORITY`, `NORM_PRIORITY`, and `MAX_PRIORITY`, representing 1, 5, and 10, respectively. The priority of the main thread is `Thread.NORM_PRIORITY`.

The JVM always picks the currently runnable thread with the highest priority. A lower-priority thread can run only when no higher-priority threads are running. If all runnable threads have equal priorities, each is assigned an equal portion of the CPU time in a circular queue. This is called round-robin scheduling. For example, suppose you insert the following code in line 16 in Listing 32.1:

```
thread3.setPriority(Thread.MAX_PRIORITY);
```

The thread for the `print100` task will be finished first.

**Tip**
The priority numbers may be changed in a future version of Java. To minimize the impact of any changes, use the constants in the `Thread` class to specify thread priorities.

**Tip**
A thread may never get a chance to run if there is always a higher-priority thread running or a same-priority thread that never yields. This situation is known as contention or starvation. To avoid contention, the thread with higher priority must periodically invoke the `sleep` or `yield` method to give a thread with a lower or the same priority a chance to run.

32.6 Which of the following methods are instance methods in `java.lang.Thread`? Which method may throw an `InterruptedException`? Which of them are deprecated in Java?
- `run`, `start`, `stop`, `suspend`, `resume`, `sleep`, `interrupt`, `yield`, `join`

32.7 If a loop contains a method that throws an `InterruptedException`, why should the loop be placed inside a `try-catch` block?

32.8 How do you set a priority for a thread? What is the default priority?
32.5 Case Study: Flashing Text

You can use a thread to control an animation.

The use of a Timer object to control animations was introduced in Section 16.11, Animation Using the Timer Class. You can also use a thread to control animation. Listing 32.2 gives an example that displays flashing text on a label, as shown in Figure 32.6.

![Figure 32.6 The text “Welcome” blinks.](image)

**Listing 32.2** FlashingText.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class FlashingText extends JApplet implements Runnable {
    private JLabel jlblText = new JLabel("Welcome", JLabel.CENTER);

    public FlashingText() {
        add(jlblText);
        new Thread(this).start();
    }

    @Override
    public void run() {
        try {
            while (true) {
                if (jlblText.getText() == null) {
                    jlblText.setText("Welcome");
                } else {
                    jlblText.setText(null);
                }
                Thread.sleep(200);
            }
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        }
    }
}
```

FlashingText implements Runnable (line 3), so it is a task class. Line 8 wraps the task in a thread and starts the thread. The run method dictates how to run the thread. It sets a text in the label if the label does not have one (line 15), and sets its text as null (line 18) if the label has a text. The text is set and unset to simulate a flashing effect.

You can use a timer or a thread to control animation. Which one is better? A timer is a source component that fires an ActionEvent at a “fixed rate.” When an action event occurs, the timer invokes the listener’s actionPerformed method to handle the event. The timer and event handling run on the same thread. If it takes a long time to handle the event, the actual delay time between the two events will be longer than the requested delay time. In this case, you should run event handling on a separate thread. (The next section gives an example to illustrate the problem and how to fix it by running the event handling on a separate thread.) In general, threads are more reliable and responsive than timers. If you need a precise delay
time or a quick response, it is better to use a thread. Otherwise, using a timer is simpler and more efficient. Timers consume less system resources because they run on the GUI event dispatch thread, so you don’t need to spawn new threads for timers.

32.9 What causes the text to flash?
32.10 Is an instance of FlashingText a runnable object?

32.6 GUI Event Dispatch Thread

**GUI event handling code is executed on a special thread called the event dispatch thread.**

This special thread is also used to run most of Swing methods. Running GUI event handling code and the most of Swing methods in the same thread is necessary because most Swing methods are not thread-safe. Invoking them from multiple threads may cause conflicts.

In certain situations, you need to run the code in the event dispatch thread to avoid possible conflicts. You can use the static methods invokeLater and invokeAndWait in the javax.swing.SwingUtilities class to run the code in the event dispatch thread. You must put this code in the run method of a Runnable object and specify the Runnable object as the argument to invokeLater and invokeAndWait. The invokeLater method returns immediately, without waiting for the event dispatch thread to execute the code. The invokeAndWait method is just like invokeLater, except that invokeAndWait doesn’t return until the event dispatching thread has executed the specified code.

So far, you have launched your GUI application from the main method by creating a frame and making it visible. This works fine for most applications, but if it takes a long time to launch a GUI application, problems may occur. To avoid possible problems in this situation, you should launch the GUI creation from the event dispatch thread, as follows:

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    SwingUtilities.invokeLater(new Runnable() {
        public void run() {
            // The code for creating a frame and setting its properties
        }
    });
}
```

For example, Listing 32.3 gives a simple program that launches the frame from the event dispatch thread.

**LISTING 32.3 EventDispatcherThreadDemo.java**

```java
public class EventDispatcherThreadDemo extends JApplet {
    public EventDispatcherThreadDemo() {
        add(new JLabel("Hi, it runs from an event dispatch thread"));
    }

    // Center the frame
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setSize(200, 200);
    frame.add(new EventDispatcherThreadDemo());
}
```

For example, Listing 32.3 gives a simple program that launches the frame from the event dispatch thread.
32.7 Case Study: Clock with Audio

This case study shows the necessity of using threads for certain GUI animations. This case study creates an applet that displays a running clock that announces the time at one-minute intervals. For example, if the current time is 6:30:00, the applet announces, “six o’clock thirty minutes A.M.” If the current time is 20:20:00, the applet announces, “eight o’clock twenty minutes P.M.” The program also has a label that displays the digital time, as shown in Figure 32.7.

![Figure 32.7](image)

To announce the time, the applet plays three audio clips. The first clip announces the hour, the second announces the minute, and the third announces A.M. or P.M. All of the audio files are stored in the directory `audio`, a subdirectory of the applet’s class directory. The 12 audio files used to announce the hours are stored in the files `hour0.au`, `hour1.au`, and so on, to `hour11.au`. The 60 audio files used to announce the minutes are stored in the files `minute0.au`, `minute1.au`, and so on, to `minute59.au`. The two audio files used to announce A.M. or P.M. are stored in the file `am.au` and `pm.au`.

You need to play three audio clips on a separate thread to avoid animation delays. To illustrate the problem, let us first write a program without playing the audio on a separate thread.

In Section 13.9, the `StillClock` class was developed to draw a still clock to show the current time. Create an applet named `ClockWithAudio` (Listing 32.4) that contains an instance of `StillClock` to display an analog clock, and an instance of `JLabel` to display the digital time. Override the `init` method to load the audio files. Use a `Timer` object to set and display the current time continuously at every second. When the second is zero, announce the current time.

**Listing 32.4 ClockWithAudio.java**

```java
import java.applet.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class ClockWithAudio extends JApplet {
    protected AudioClip[] hourAudio = new AudioClip[12];
    frame.setVisible(true);
}
```
// Create audio clips for pronouncing am and pm
protected AudioClip amAudio = Applet.newAudioClip(this.getClass().getResource("audio/am.au"));
protected AudioClip pmAudio = Applet.newAudioClip(this.getClass().getResource("audio/pm.au"));

// Create a clock
private StillClock clock = new StillClock();

// Create a timer
private Timer timer = new Timer(1000, new TimerListener());

// Create a label to display time
private JLabel jlblDigitTime = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);

@Override /** Initialize the applet */
public void init() {
    // Create audio clips for pronouncing hours
    for (int i = 0; i < 12; i++)
        hourAudio[i] = Applet.newAudioClip(this.getClass().getResource("audio/hour" + i + ".au"));

    // Create audio clips for pronouncing minutes
    for (int i = 0; i < 60; i++)
        minuteAudio[i] = Applet.newAudioClip(this.getClass().getResource("audio/minute" + i + ".au"));

    // Add clock and time label to the content pane of the applet
    add(clock, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(jlblDigitTime, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
}

@Override /** Override the applet's start method */
public void start() {
    timer.start(); // Resume clock
}

@Override /** Override the applet's stop method */
public void stop() {
    timer.stop(); // Suspend clock
}

private class TimerListener implements ActionListener {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        clock.setCurrentTime();
        clock.repaint();
        jlblDigitTime.setText(clock.getHour() + ":" + clock.getMinute() + ":" + clock.getSecond());
        if (clock.getSecond() == 0)
            announceTime(clock.getHour(), clock.getMinute());
}

@Override /** Announce the current time at every minute */
public void announceTime(int hour, int minute) {
    // Announce hour
    hourAudio[hour % 12].play();
}
The `hourAudio` is an array of twelve audio clips that are used to announce the 12 hours of the day (line 7); the `minuteAudio` is an audio clip that is used to announce the minutes in an hour (line 8). The `amAudio` announces “A.M.” (line 11); the `pmAudio` announces “P.M.” (line 13).

The `init()` method creates hour audio clips (lines 29–30) and minute audio clips (lines 34–35), and places a clock and a label in the applet (lines 38–39).

An `ActionEvent` is fired by the timer every second. In the listener’s `actionPerformed` method (lines 54–61), the clock is repainted with the new current time, and the digital time is displayed in the label.

In the `announceTime` method (lines 65–87), the `sleep()` method (lines 71, 77) is purposely invoked to ensure that one clip finishes before the next clip starts, so that the clips do not interfere with each other.

The applet’s `start()` and `stop()` methods (lines 43–50) are overridden to ensure that the timer starts or stops when the applet is restarted or stopped.

When you run the preceding program, you will notice that the second hand does not display at the first, second, and third seconds of the minute. This is because `sleep(1500)` is invoked twice in the `announceTime()` method, which takes three seconds to announce the time at the beginning of each minute. Thus, the next action event is delayed for three seconds during the first three seconds of each minute. As a result of this delay, the time is not updated and the clock is not repainted for these three seconds. To fix this problem, you should announce the time on a separate thread. This can be accomplished by modifying the `announceTime` method. Listing 32.5 gives the new program.

**Listing 32.5  ClockWithAudioOnSeparateThread.java**

```java
public class ClockWithAudioOnSeparateThread extends JApplet {
    // Same as in lines 7-62 in Listing 32.4, so omitted
    /** Announce the current time at every minute */
    public void announceTime(int h, int m) {
        new Thread(new AnnounceTimeOnSeparateThread(h, m)).start();
    }
}
```

The `hourAudio` is an array of twelve audio clips that are used to announce the 12 hours of the day; the `minuteAudio` is an audio clip that is used to announce the minutes in an hour. The `amAudio` announces “A.M.”; the `pmAudio` announces “P.M.”.
/** Inner class for announcing time */
class AnnounceTimeOnSeparateThread implements Runnable {
    private int hour, minute;

    /** Get audio clips */
    public AnnounceTimeOnSeparateThread(int hour, int minute) {
        this.hour = hour;
        this.minute = minute;
    }

    @Override
    public void run() {
        // Announce hour
        hourAudio[hour % 12].play();
        try {
            // Time delay to allow hourAudio play to finish
            Thread.sleep(1500);
            // Announce minute
            minuteAudio[minute].play();
            // Time delay to allow minuteAudio play to finish
            Thread.sleep(1500);
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        }
        // Announce am or pm
        if (hour < 12)
            amAudio.play();
        else
            pmAudio.play();
    }
}

The new class ClockWithAudioOnSeparateThread is the same as ClockWithAudio except that the announceTime method is new. The new announceTime method creates a thread (line 8) for the task of announcing the time. The task class is defined as an inner class (lines 12–44). The run method (line 21) announces the time on a separate thread.

When running this program, you will discover that the audio does not interfere with the clock animation because an instance of AnnounceTimeOnSeparateThread starts on a separate thread to announce the current time. This thread is independent of the thread on which the actionPerformed method runs.

32.13 When should you use a timer or a thread to control animation? What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a thread and a timer?

32.8 Thread Pools

A thread pool can be used to execute tasks efficiently.

In Section 32.3, Creating Tasks and Threads, you learned how to define a task class by implementing java.lang.Runnable, and how to create a thread to run a task like this:

Runnable task = new TaskClass(task);
new Thread(task).start();
This approach is convenient for a single task execution, but it is not efficient for a large number of tasks, because you have to create a thread for each task. Starting a new thread for each task could limit throughput and cause poor performance. Using a thread pool is an ideal way to manage the number of tasks executing concurrently. Java provides the Executor interface for executing tasks in a thread pool and the ExecutorService interface for managing and controlling tasks. ExecutorService is a subinterface of Executor, as shown in Figure 32.8.

To create an Executor object, use the static methods in the Executors class, as shown in Figure 32.9. The newFixedThreadPool(int) method creates a fixed number of threads in a pool. If a thread completes executing a task, it can be reused to execute another task. If a thread terminates due to a failure prior to shutdown, a new thread will be created to replace it if all the threads in the pool are not idle and there are tasks waiting for execution. The newCachedThreadPool() method creates a new thread if all the threads in the pool are not idle and there are tasks waiting for execution. A thread in a cached pool will be terminated if it has not been used for 60 seconds. A cached pool is efficient for many short tasks.

Listing 32.6 shows how to rewrite Listing 32.1 using a thread pool.

**Listing 32.6  ExecutorDemo.java**

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;

public class ExecutorDemo {
```
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```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a fixed thread pool with maximum three threads
    ExecutorService executor = Executors.newFixedThreadPool(3);

    // Submit runnable tasks to the executor
    executor.execute(new PrintChar('a', 100));
    executor.execute(new PrintChar('b', 100));
    executor.execute(new PrintNum(100));

    // Shut down the executor
    executor.shutdown();
}
```

Line 6 creates a thread pool executor with a total of three threads maximum. Classes `PrintChar` and `PrintNum` were defined in Listing 32.1. Line 9 creates a task, `new PrintChar('a', 100)`, and adds it to the pool. Similarly, another two runnable tasks are created and added to the same pool in lines 10–11. The executor creates three threads to execute three tasks concurrently.

Suppose that you replace line 6 with

```java
ExecutorService executor = Executors.newFixedThreadPool(1);
```

What will happen? The three runnable tasks will be executed sequentially, because there is only one thread in the pool.

Suppose you replace line 6 with

```java
ExecutorService executor = Executors.newCachedThreadPool();
```

What will happen? New threads will be created for each waiting task, so all the tasks will be executed concurrently.

The `shutdown()` method in line 14 tells the executor to shut down. No new tasks can be accepted, but any existing tasks will continue to finish.

**Tip**

If you need to create a thread for just one task, use the `Thread` class. If you need to create threads for multiple tasks, it is better to use a thread pool.

32.14 What are the benefits of using a thread pool?

32.15 How do you create a thread pool with three fixed threads? How do you submit a task to a thread pool? How do you know that all the tasks are finished?

### 32.9 Thread Synchronization

*Thread synchronization is to coordinate the execution of the dependent threads.*

A shared resource may become corrupted if it is accessed simultaneously by multiple threads. The following example demonstrates the problem.

Suppose that you create and launch 100 threads, each of which adds a penny to an account. Define a class named `Account` to model the account, a class named `AddAPennyTask` to add a penny to the account, and a main class that creates and launches threads. The relationships of these classes are shown in Figure 32.10. The program is given in Listing 32.7.
LISTING 32.7  AccountWithoutSync.java

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;

public class AccountWithoutSync {
    private static Account account = new Account();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ExecutorService executor = Executors.newCachedThreadPool();
        // Create and launch 100 threads
        for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
            executor.execute(new AddAPennyTask());
        }
        executor.shutdown();

        // Wait until all tasks are finished
        while (!executor.isTerminated()) {
        }

        System.out.println("What is balance? "+ account.getBalance());
    }

    // A thread for adding a penny to the account
    private static class AddAPennyTask implements Runnable {
        public void run() {
            account.deposit(1);
        }
    }

    // An inner class for account
    private static class Account {
        private int balance = 0;

        public int getBalance() {
            return balance;
        }

        public void deposit(int amount) {
            int newBalance = balance + amount;
        }
    }
}
```

Figure 32.10  AccountWithoutSync contains an instance of Account and 100 threads of AddAPennyTask.
The classes `AddAPennyTask` and `Account` in lines 24–51 are inner classes. Line 4 creates an `Account` with initial balance 0. Line 11 creates a task to add a penny to the account and submit the task to the executor. Line 11 is repeated 100 times in lines 10–12. The program repeatedly checks whether all tasks are completed in lines 17–18. The account balance is displayed in line 20 after all tasks are completed.

The program creates 100 threads executed in a thread pool `executor` (lines 10–12). The `isTerminated()` method (line 17) is used to test whether the thread is terminated.

The balance of the account is initially 0 (line 32). When all the threads are finished, the balance should be 100, but the output is unpredictable. As can be seen in Figure 32.11, the answers are wrong in the sample run. This demonstrates the data-corruption problem that occurs when all the threads have access to the same data source simultaneously.

```
// This delay is deliberately added to magnify the
// data-corruption problem and make it easy to see.
try {
    Thread.sleep(5);
} catch (InterruptedException ex) {
}
```

Lines 39–49 could be replaced by one statement:

```
balance = balance + amount;
```

It is highly unlikely, although plausible, that the problem can be replicated using this single statement. The statements in lines 39–49 are deliberately designed to magnify the data-corruption problem and make it easy to see. If you run the program several times but still do not see the problem, increase the sleep time in line 44. This will increase the chances for showing the problem of data inconsistency.

What, then, caused the error in this program? A possible scenario is shown in Figure 32.12.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Balance</th>
<th>Task 1</th>
<th>Task 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td><code>newBalance = balance + 1;</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td><code>newBalance = balance + 1;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>balance = newBalance;</code></td>
<td><code>balance = newBalance;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

**Figure 32.11** The `AccountWithoutSync` program causes data inconsistency.

**Figure 32.12** Task 1 and Task 2 both add 1 to the same balance.
In Step 1, Task 1 gets the balance from the account. In Step 2, Task 2 gets the same balance from the account. In Step 3, Task 1 writes a new balance to the account. In Step 4, Task 2 writes a new balance to the account.

The effect of this scenario is that Task 1 does nothing, because in Step 4 Task 2 overrides Task 1’s result. Obviously, the problem is that Task 1 and Task 2 are accessing a common resource in a way that causes a conflict. This is a common problem, known as a race condition, in multithreaded programs. A class is said to be thread-safe if an object of the class does not cause a race condition in the presence of multiple threads. As demonstrated in the preceding example, the Account class is not thread-safe.

32.9.1 The synchronized Keyword

To avoid race conditions, it is necessary to prevent more than one thread from simultaneously entering a certain part of the program, known as the critical region. The critical region in Listing 32.7 is the entire deposit method. You can use the keyword synchronized to synchronize the method so that only one thread can access the method at a time. There are several ways to correct the problem in Listing 32.7. One approach is to make Account thread-safe by adding the keyword synchronized in the deposit method in line 38, as follows:

```java
public synchronized void deposit(double amount)
```

A synchronized method acquires a lock before it executes. A lock is a mechanism for exclusive use of a resource. In the case of an instance method, the lock is on the object for which the method was invoked. In the case of a static method, the lock is on the class. If one thread invokes a synchronized instance method (respectively, static method) on an object, the lock of that object (respectively, class) is acquired first, then the method is executed, and finally the lock is released. Another thread invoking the same method of that object (respectively, class) is blocked until the lock is released.

With the deposit method synchronized, the preceding scenario cannot happen. If Task 1 enters the method, Task 2 is blocked until Task 1 finishes the method, as shown in Figure 32.13.

![Figure 32.13](image)

32.9.2 Synchronizing Statements

Invoking a synchronized instance method of an object acquires a lock on the object, and invoking a synchronized static method of a class acquires a lock on the class. A synchronized statement can be used to acquire a lock on any object, not just this object, when executing a
synchronized block

A block of the code in a method. This block is referred to as a *synchronized block*. The general form of a synchronized statement is as follows:

```java
synchronized (expr) {
    statements;
}
```

The expression `expr` must evaluate to an object reference. If the object is already locked by another thread, the thread is blocked until the lock is released. When a lock is obtained on the object, the statements in the synchronized block are executed, and then the lock is released.

Synchronized statements enable you to synchronize part of the code in a method instead of the entire method. This increases concurrency. You can make Listing 32.7 thread-safe by placing the statement in line 26 inside a synchronized block:

```java
synchronized (account) {
    account.deposit(1);
}
```

**Note**

Any synchronized instance method can be converted into a synchronized statement. For example, the following synchronized instance method in (a) is equivalent to (b):

```
(a) public synchronized void xMethod() {
    // method body
}
(b) public void xMethod() {
    synchronized (this) {
        // method body
    }
}
```

**Check Point**

32.16 Give some examples of possible resource corruption when running multiple threads. How do you synchronize conflicting threads?

32.17 Suppose you place the statement in line 26 of Listing 32.7 inside a synchronized block to avoid race conditions, as follows:

```java
synchronized (this) {
    account.deposit(1);
}
```

Will it work?

32.10 Synchronization Using Locks

*Locks and conditions can be explicitly used to synchronize threads.*

Recall that in Listing 32.7, 100 tasks deposit a penny to the same account concurrently, which causes conflicts. To avoid it, you used the `synchronized` keyword in the `deposit` method, as follows:

```java
public synchronized void deposit(double amount)
```

A synchronized instance method implicitly acquires a lock on the instance before it executes the method.

Java enables you to acquire locks explicitly, which give you more control for coordinating threads. A *lock* is an instance of the `Lock` interface, which defines the methods for...
acquiring and releasing locks, as shown in Figure 32.14. A lock may also use the *newCondition()* method to create any number of *Condition* objects, which can be used for thread communications.

```java
public class AccountWithSyncUsingLock {
    private static Account account = new Account();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        ExecutorService executor = Executors.newCachedThreadPool();

        // Create and launch 100 threads
        for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
            executor.execute(new AddAPennyTask());
        }

        executor.shutdown();

        // Wait until all tasks are finished
        while (!executor.isTerminated()) {
        }

        System.out.println("What is balance? " + account.getBalance());

        // A thread for adding a penny to the account
    }
```
public static class AddAPennyTask implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        account.deposit(1);
    }
}

// An inner class for Account
public static class Account {
    private static Lock lock = new ReentrantLock(); // Create a lock
    private int balance = 0;

    public int getBalance() {
        return balance;
    }

    public void deposit(int amount) {
        lock.lock(); // Acquire the lock
        try {
            int newBalance = balance + amount;
            // This delay is deliberately added to magnify the
            // data-corruption problem and make it easy to see.
            Thread.sleep(5);
            balance = newBalance;
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        } finally {
            lock.unlock(); // Release the lock
        }
    }
}

Line 33 creates a lock, line 41 acquires the lock, and line 55 releases the lock.

Tip
It is a good practice to always immediately follow a call to lock() with a try-catch block and release the lock in the finally clause, as shown in lines 41–56, to ensure that the lock is always released.

Listing 32.8 can be implemented using a synchronize method for deposit rather than using a lock. In general, using synchronized methods or statements is simpler than using explicit locks for mutual exclusion. However, using explicit locks is more intuitive and flexible to synchronize threads with conditions, as you will see in the next section.

32.18 How do you create a lock object? How do you acquire a lock and release a lock?

32.11 Cooperation among Threads

Conditions on locks can be used to coordinate thread interactions.

Thread synchronization suffices to avoid race conditions by ensuring the mutual exclusion of multiple threads in the critical region, but sometimes you also need a way for threads to cooperate. Conditions can be used to facilitate communications among threads. A thread can specify what to do under a certain condition. Conditions are objects created by invoking the
newCondition() method on a Lock object. Once a condition is created, you can use its await(), signal(), and signalAll() methods for thread communications, as shown in Figure 32.15. The await() method causes the current thread to wait until the condition is signaled. The signal() method wakes up one waiting thread, and the signalAll() method wakes all waiting threads.

```
<interface>
java.util.concurrent.Condition
+await(): void
+signal(): void
+signalAll(): Condition

Causes the current thread to wait until the condition is signaled.
Wakes up one waiting thread.
Wakes up all waiting threads.
```

**Figure 32.15** The Condition interface defines the methods for performing synchronization.

Let us use an example to demonstrate thread communications. Suppose that you create and launch two tasks: one that deposits into an account, and one that withdraws from the same account. The withdraw task has to wait if the amount to be withdrawn is more than the current balance. Whenever new funds are deposited into the account, the deposit task notifies the withdraw thread to resume. If the amount is still not enough for a withdrawal, the withdraw thread has to continue to wait for a new deposit.

To synchronize the operations, use a lock with a condition: newDeposit (i.e., new deposit added to the account). If the balance is less than the amount to be withdrawn, the withdraw task will wait for the newDeposit condition. When the deposit task adds money to the account, the task signals the waiting withdraw task to try again. The interaction between the two tasks is shown in Figure 32.16.

```
while (balance < withdrawAmount)
    newDeposit.await();

balance -= withdrawAmount
lock.unlock();

lock.lock();
newDeposit.signalAll();
lock.unlock();
```

**Figure 32.16** The condition newDeposit is used for communications between the two threads.

You create a condition from a Lock object. To use a condition, you have to first obtain a lock. The await() method causes the thread to wait and automatically releases the lock on the condition. Once the condition is right, the thread reacquires the lock and continues executing.

Assume that the initial balance is 0 and the amounts to deposit and withdraw are randomly generated. Listing 32.9 gives the program. A sample run of the program is shown in Figure 32.17.
Figure 32.17 The withdraw task waits if there are not sufficient funds to withdraw.

Listing 32.9 ThreadCooperation.java

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;
import java.util.concurrent.locks.*;

public class ThreadCooperation {
    private static Account account = new Account();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a thread pool with two threads
        ExecutorService executor = Executors.newFixedThreadPool(2);
        executor.execute(new DepositTask());
        executor.execute(new WithdrawTask());
        executor.shutdown();

        System.out.println("Thread 1		Thread 2		Balance");
    }

    static {
        @Override
        // Keep adding an amount to the account
        public void run() {
            try { // Purposely delay it to let the withdraw method proceed
                while (true) {
                    account.deposit(((int)(Math.random() * 10) + 1);
                    Thread.sleep(1000);
                }
            } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
                ex.printStackTrace();
            }
        }

        public static class DepositTask implements Runnable {
            @Override
            public void run() {
                while (true) {
                    account.deposit(((int)(Math.random() * 10) + 1);
                    Thread.sleep(1000);
                }
            }
        }

        public static class WithdrawTask implements Runnable {
            @Override
            public void run() {
                while (true) {
                    account.withdraw(((int)(Math.random() * 10) + 1);
                }
            }
        }

        // An inner class for account
        private static class Account {
            // Create a new lock
            private static Lock lock = new ReentrantLock();

            // Create a condition
            private static Condition newDeposit = lock.newCondition();
        }
    }
}
```
private int balance = 0;

public int getBalance() {
    return balance;
}

public void withdraw(int amount) {
    lock.lock(); // Acquire the lock
    try {
        while (balance < amount) {
            System.out.println("\t\t\t\tWait for a deposit");
            newDeposit.await();
        }
        balance -= amount;
        System.out.println("\t\t\tWithdraw " + amount +
            "\t\t\t" + getBalance());
    } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    } finally {
        lock.unlock(); // Release the lock
    }
}

public void deposit(int amount) {
    lock.lock(); // Acquire the lock
    try {
        balance += amount;
        System.out.println("Deposit " + amount +
            "\t\t\t\t" + getBalance());
        // Signal thread waiting on the condition
        newDeposit.signalAll();
    } finally {
        lock.unlock(); // Release the lock
    }
}

The example creates a new inner class named Account to model the account with two methods, deposit(int) and withdraw(int), a class named DepositTask to add an amount to the balance, a class named WithdrawTask to withdraw an amount from the balance, and a main class that creates and launches two threads.

The program creates and submits the deposit task (line 10) and the withdraw task (line 11). The deposit task is purposely put to sleep (line 23) to let the withdraw task run. When there are not enough funds to withdraw, the withdraw task waits (line 59) for notification of the balance change from the deposit task (line 83).

A lock is created in line 44. A condition named newDeposit on the lock is created in line 47. A condition is bound to a lock. Before waiting or signaling the condition, a thread must first acquire the lock for the condition. The withdraw task acquires the lock in line 56, waits for the newDeposit condition (line 60) when there is not a sufficient amount to withdraw, and releases the lock in line 71. The deposit task acquires the lock in line 76, and signals all waiting threads (line 83) for the newDeposit condition after a new deposit is made.
What will happen if you replace the `while` loop in lines 58–61 with the following `if` statement?

```java
if (balance < amount) {
    System.out.println("\t\t\tWait for a deposit");
    newDeposit.await();
}
```

The deposit task will notify the withdraw task whenever the balance changes. `(balance < amount)` may still be true when the withdraw task is awakened. Using the `if` statement, the withdraw task may wait forever. Using the loop statement, the withdraw task will have a chance to recheck the condition. Thus you should always test the condition in a loop.

**Caution**

Once a thread invokes `await()` on a condition, the thread waits for a signal to resume. If you forget to call `signal()` or `signalAll()` on the condition, the thread will wait forever.

**Caution**

A condition is created from a `Lock` object. To invoke its method (e.g., `await()`, `signal()`, and `signalAll()`), you must first own the lock. If you invoke these methods without acquiring the lock, an `IllegalMonitorStateException` will be thrown.

Locks and conditions were introduced in Java 5. Prior to Java 5, thread communications were programmed using the object’s built-in monitors. Locks and conditions are more powerful and flexible than the built-in monitor, so you can ignore this section. However, if you are working with legacy Java code, you may encounter Java’s built-in monitor.

A monitor is an object with mutual exclusion and synchronization capabilities. Only one thread at a time can execute a method in the monitor. A thread enters the monitor by acquiring a lock on it and exits by releasing the lock. Any object can be a monitor. An object becomes a monitor once a thread locks it. Locking is implemented using the `synchronized` keyword on a method or a block. A thread must acquire a lock before executing a synchronized method or block. A thread can wait in a monitor if the condition is not right for it to continue executing in the monitor. You can invoke the `wait()` method on the monitor object to release the lock so that some other thread can get in the monitor and perhaps change the monitor’s state. When the condition is right, the other thread can invoke the `notify()` or `notifyAll()` method to signal one or all waiting threads to regain the lock and resume execution. The template for invoking these methods is shown in Figure 32.18.

```
synchronized (anObject) {
    try {
        // Wait for the condition to become true
        while (!condition)
            anObject.wait();
        // Do something when condition is true
    } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}
```

```
synchronized (anObject) {
    // When condition becomes true
    anObject.notify(); or anObject.notifyAll();
    ...
}
```

**Figure 32.18** The `wait()`, `notify()`, and `notifyAll()` methods coordinate thread communication.
The `wait()`, `notify()`, and `notifyAll()` methods must be called in a synchronized method or a synchronized block on the receiving object of these methods. Otherwise, an `IllegalMonitorStateException` will occur.

When `wait()` is invoked, it pauses the thread and simultaneously releases the lock on the object. When the thread is restarted after being notified, the lock is automatically reacquired.

The `wait()`, `notify()`, and `notifyAll()` methods on an object are analogous to the `await()`, `signal()`, and `signalAll()` methods on a condition.

**32.19** How do you create a condition on a lock? What are the `await()`, `signal()`, and `signalAll()` methods for?

**32.20** What would happen if the `while` loop in line 58 of Listing 32.9 were changed to an `if` statement?

```java
while (balance < amount) Replaced by if (balance < amount)
```

**32.21** Why does the following class have a syntax error?

```java
1 import javax.swing.*;
2
3 public class Test extends JApplet implements Runnable {
4   public void init() throws InterruptedException {
5     Thread thread = new Thread(this);
6     thread.sleep(1000);
7   }
8
9   public synchronized void run() {
10   }
11 }
```

**32.22** What is a possible cause for `IllegalMonitorStateException`?

**32.23** Can the `wait()`, `notify()`, and `notifyAll()` be invoked from any object? What is the purpose of these methods?

**32.24** What is wrong in the following code?

```java
synchronized (object1) {
  try {
    while (!condition) object2.wait();
  }
  catch (InterruptedException ex) {
  }
}
```

---

**32.12 Case Study: Producer/Consumer**

*This section gives the classic Consumer/Producer example for demonstrating thread coordination.*

Suppose you use a buffer to store integers, and that the buffer size is limited. The buffer provides the method `write(int)` to add an `int` value to the buffer and the method `read()` to read and delete an `int` value from the buffer. To synchronize the operations, use a lock with two conditions: `notEmpty` (i.e., the buffer is not empty) and `notFull` (i.e., the buffer is not full). When a task adds an `int` to the buffer, if the buffer is full, the task will wait for the `notFull` condition. When a task deletes an `int` from the buffer, if the buffer is empty, the
task will wait for the **notEmpty** condition. The interaction between the two tasks is shown in Figure 32.19.

```java
while (count == CAPACITY)
    notFull.await();

Add an int to the buffer

notEmpty.signal();
```

```java
while (count == 0)
    notEmpty.await();

Delete an int from the buffer

notFull.signal();
```

**Figure 32.19** The conditions **notFull** and **notEmpty** are used to coordinate task interactions.

Listing 32.10 presents the complete program. The program contains the **Buffer** class (lines 48–95) and two tasks for repeatedly adding and consuming numbers to and from the buffer (lines 16–45). The **write(int)** method (line 60) adds an integer to the buffer. The **read()** method (line 77) deletes and returns an integer from the buffer.

The buffer is actually a first-in, first-out queue (lines 50–51). The conditions **notEmpty** and **notFull** on the lock are created in lines 57–58. The conditions are bound to a lock. A lock must be acquired before a condition can be applied. If you use the **wait()** and **notify()** methods to rewrite this example, you have to designate two objects as monitors.

**Listing 32.10 ConsumerProducer.java**

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;
import java.util.concurrent.locks.*;

public class ConsumerProducer {
    private static class ProducerTask implements Runnable {
        public void run() {
            try {
                int i = 1;
                while (true) {
                    System.out.println("Producer writes "+ i);
                    buffer.write(i++); // Add a value to the buffer
                    // Put the thread to sleep
                    Thread.sleep((int)(Math.random() * 10000));
                }
            } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
```
32.12 Case Study: Producer/Consumer

```java
    ex.printStackTrace();
}

// A task for reading and deleting an int from the buffer
private static class ConsumerTask implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        try {
            while (true) {
                System.out.println("Consumer reads " + buffer.read());
                // Put the thread to sleep
                Thread.sleep((int)(Math.random() * 10000));
            }
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}

// An inner class for buffer
private static class Buffer {
    private static final int CAPACITY = 1;  // buffer size
    private java.util.LinkedList<Integer> queue =
        new java.util.LinkedList<Integer>();

    // Create a new lock
    private static Lock lock = new ReentrantLock();

    // Create two conditions
    private static Condition notEmpty = lock.newCondition();
    private static Condition notFull = lock.newCondition();

    public void write(int value) {
        lock.lock(); // Acquire the lock
        try {
            while (queue.size() == CAPACITY) {
                System.out.println("Wait for notFull condition");
                notFull.await();
            }
            queue.offer(value);
            notEmpty.signal(); // Signal notEmpty condition
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        } finally {
            lock.unlock(); // Release the lock
        }
    }

    public int read() {
        int value = 0;
        lock.lock(); // Acquire the lock
        try {
            while (queue.isEmpty()) {
                System.out.println("Wait for notEmpty condition");
                notEmpty.await();
            }
            value = queue.remove();
            notFull.signal(); // Signal notFull condition
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        } finally {
            lock.unlock(); // Release the lock
        }
    }
```
Locks and conditions are used for communications between the Producer and Consumer threads.

Figure 32.20  Locks and conditions are used for communications between the Producer and Consumer threads.

32.25 Can the read and write methods in the Buffer class be executed concurrently?

32.26 When invoking the read method, what happens if the queue is empty?

32.27 When invoking the write method, what happens if the queue is full?

32.13 Blocking Queues

Java Collections Framework provides ArrayBlockingQueue, LinkedBlockingQueue, and PriorityBlockingQueue for supporting blocking queues.

Blocking Queue

Queues and priority queues were introduced in Section 22.9. A blocking queue causes a thread to block when you try to add an element to a full queue or to remove an element from an empty queue. The BlockingQueue interface extends java.util.Queue and provides the synchronized put and take methods for adding an element to the tail of the queue and for removing an element from the head of the queue, as shown in Figure 32.21.

Three concrete blocking queues—ArrayBlockingQueue, LinkedBlockingQueue, and PriorityBlockingQueue—are provided in Java, as shown in Figure 32.22. All are in the java.util.concurrent package. ArrayBlockingQueue implements a blocking queue using an array. You have to specify a capacity or an optional fairness to construct an ArrayBlockingQueue. LinkedBlockingQueue implements a blocking queue using a linked list. You can create an unbounded or bounded LinkedBlockingQueue. PriorityBlockingQueue is a priority queue. You can create an unbounded or bounded priority queue.

Note

The put method will never block an unbounded LinkedBlockingQueue or PriorityBlockingQueue.

```java
NotFull.signal(); // Signal notFull condition
```
Listing 32.11 gives an example of using an `ArrayBlockingQueue` to simplify the Consumer/Producer example in Listing 32.10. Line 5 creates an `ArrayBlockingQueue` to store integers. The Producer thread puts an integer into the queue (line 22), and the Consumer thread takes an integer from the queue (line 37).

**LISTING 32.11 ConsumerProducerUsingBlockingQueue.java**

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;

public class ConsumerProducerUsingBlockingQueue {

    private static ArrayBlockingQueue<Integer> buffer =
    new ArrayBlockingQueue<Integer>(2);

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a thread pool with two threads
        ExecutorService executor = Executors.newFixedThreadPool(2);
        executor.execute(new ProducerTask());
        executor.execute(new ConsumerTask());
        executor.shutdown();
    }

    // A task for adding an int to the buffer
```

Listing 32.11 gives an example of using an `ArrayBlockingQueue` to simplify the Consumer/Producer example in Listing 32.10. Line 5 creates an `ArrayBlockingQueue` to store integers. The Producer thread puts an integer into the queue (line 22), and the Consumer thread takes an integer from the queue (line 37).
In Listing 32.10, you used locks and conditions to synchronize the Producer and Consumer threads. In this program, hand coding is not necessary, because synchronization is already implemented in `ArrayBlockingQueue`.

32.28 What is a blocking queue? What blocking queues are supported in Java?

32.29 What method do you use to add an element to an `ArrayBlockingQueue`? What happens if the queue is full?

32.30 What method do you use to retrieve an element from an `ArrayBlockingQueue`? What happens if the queue is empty?

### 32.14 Semaphores

Semaphores can be used to restrict the number of threads that access a shared resource.

In computer science, a semaphore is an object that controls the access to a common resource. Before accessing the resource, a thread must acquire a permit from the semaphore. After finishing with the resource, the thread must return the permit back to the semaphore, as shown in Figure 32.23.

To create a semaphore, you have to specify the number of permits with an optional fairness policy, as shown in Figure 32.24. A task acquires a permit by invoking the semaphore’s `acquire()` method and releases the permit by invoking the semaphore’s `release()` method. Once a permit is acquired, the total number of available permits in a semaphore is reduced by 1. Once a permit is released, the total number of available permits in a semaphore is increased by 1.
A semaphore with just one permit can be used to simulate a mutually exclusive lock. Listing 32.12 revises the `Account` inner class in Listing 32.9 using a semaphore to ensure that only one thread at a time can access the `deposit` method.

**LISTING 32.12 New Account Inner Class**

```java
// An inner class for Account
private static class Account {
    // Create a semaphore
    private static Semaphore semaphore = new Semaphore(1); // create a semaphore
    private int balance = 0;

    public int getBalance() {
        return balance;
    }

    public void deposit(int amount) {
        try {
            semaphore.acquire(); // Acquire a permit
            int newBalance = balance + amount;
            // This delay is deliberately added to magnify the 
            // data-corruption problem and make it easy to see
            Thread.sleep(5);
            balance = newBalance;
        } catch (InterruptedException ex) {
            semaphore.release(); // Release the permit
        }
    }
}
```

A thread accessing a shared resource.

Acquire a permit from a semaphore. Wait if the permit is not available.

```java
semaphore.acquire();
```

Access the resource

Release the permit to the semaphore.

```java
semaphore.release();
```

**Figure 32.23** A limited number of threads can access a shared resource controlled by a semaphore.

**Semaphore**

- `Semaphore(numberOfPermits: int)`
  - Creates a semaphore with the specified number of permits. The fairness policy is false.
- `Semaphore(numberOfPermits: int, fair: boolean)`
  - Creates a semaphore with the specified number of permits and the fairness policy.
- `acquire(): void`
  - Acquires a permit from this semaphore. If no permit is available, the thread is blocked until one is available.
- `release(): void`
  - Releases a permit back to the semaphore.

**Figure 32.24** The `Semaphore` class contains the methods for accessing a semaphore.
A semaphore with one permit is created in line 4. A thread first acquires a permit when executing the deposit method in line 13. After the balance is updated, the thread releases the permit in line 25. It is a good practice to always place the release() method in the finally clause to ensure that the permit is finally released even in the case of exceptions.

32.31 What are the similarities and differences between a lock and a semaphore?

32.32 How do you create a semaphore that allows three concurrent threads? How do you acquire a semaphore? How do you release a semaphore?

32.15 Avoiding Deadlocks

Deadlocks can be avoided by using a proper resource ordering.

Sometimes two or more threads need to acquire the locks on several shared objects. This could cause a deadlock, in which each thread has the lock on one of the objects and is waiting for the lock on the other object. Consider the scenario with two threads and two objects, as shown in Figure 32.25. Thread 1 has acquired a lock on object1, and Thread 2 has acquired a lock on object2. Now Thread 1 is waiting for the lock on object2, and Thread 2 for the lock on object1. Each thread waits for the other to release the lock it needs, and until that happens, neither can continue to run.

Deadlock is easily avoided by using a simple technique known as resource ordering. With this technique, you assign an order to all the objects whose locks must be acquired and ensure that each thread acquires the locks in that order. For the example in Figure 32.25, suppose that the objects are ordered as object1 and object2. Using the resource ordering technique, Thread 2 must acquire a lock on object1 first, then on object2. Once Thread 1 acquires a lock on object1, Thread 2 has to wait for a lock on object1. Thus, Thread 1 will be able to acquire a lock on object2 and no deadlock will occur.

32.33 What is a deadlock? How can you avoid deadlock?
32.16 Thread States

A thread state indicates the status of a thread.

Tasks are executed in threads. Threads can be in one of five states: New, Ready, Running, Blocked, or Finished (see Figure 32.26).

When a thread is newly created, it enters the *New* state. After a thread is started by calling its `start()` method, it enters the *Ready* state. A ready thread is runnable but may not be running yet. The operating system has to allocate CPU time to it.

When a ready thread begins executing, it enters the *Running* state. A running thread can enter the *Ready* state if its given CPU time expires or its `yield()` method is called.

A thread can enter the *Blocked* state (i.e., become inactive) for several reasons. It may have invoked the `join()`, `sleep()`, or `wait()` method. It may be waiting for an I/O operation to finish. A blocked thread may be reactivated when the action inactivating it is reversed. For example, if a thread has been put to sleep and the sleep time has expired, the thread is reactivated and enters the *Ready* state.

Finally, a thread is *Finished* if it completes the execution of its `run()` method.

The `isAlive()` method is used to find out the state of a thread. It returns `true` if a thread is in the *Ready*, *Blocked*, or *Running* state; it returns `false` if a thread is new and has not started or if it is finished.

The `interrupt()` method interrupts a thread in the following way: If a thread is currently in the *Ready* or *Running* state, its interrupted flag is set; if a thread is currently blocked, it is awakened and enters the *Ready* state, and a `java.lang.InterruptedException` is thrown.

32.34 What is a thread state? Describe the states for a thread.

32.17 Synchronized Collections

Java Collections Framework provides synchronized collections for lists, sets, and maps.

The classes in the Java Collections Framework are not thread-safe; that is, their contents may become corrupted if they are accessed and updated concurrently by multiple threads. You can protect the data in a collection by locking the collection or by using synchronized collections.
The Collections class provides six static methods for wrapping a collection into a synchronized version, as shown in Figure 32.27. The collections created using these methods are called synchronization wrappers.

**java.util.Collections**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedCollection(c: Collection): Collection</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized collection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedList(list: List): List</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized list from the specified list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedMap(m: Map): Map</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized map from the specified map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedSet(s: Set): Set</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized set from the specified set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedSortedMap(s: SortedMap): SortedMap</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized sorted map from the specified sorted map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+synchronizedSortedSet(s: SortedSet): SortedSet</code></td>
<td>Returns a synchronized sorted set.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 32.27** You can obtain synchronized collections using the methods in the Collections class.

Invoking `synchronizedCollection(Collection c)` returns a new Collection object, in which all the methods that access and update the original collection \( c \) are synchronized. These methods are implemented using the synchronized keyword. For example, the add method is implemented like this:

```java
public boolean add(E o) {
    synchronized (this) {
    return c.add(o);
    }
}
```

Synchronized collections can be safely accessed and modified by multiple threads concurrently.

**Note**

The methods in `java.util.Vector`, `java.util.Stack`, and `java.util.Hashtable` are already synchronized. These are old classes introduced in JDK 1.0. Starting with JDK 1.5, you should use `java.util.ArrayList` to replace `Vector`, `java.util.LinkedList` to replace `Stack`, and `java.util.Map` to replace `Hashtable`. If synchronization is needed, use a synchronization wrapper.

The synchronization wrapper classes are thread-safe, but the iterator is fail-fast. This means that if you are using an iterator to traverse a collection while the underlying collection is being modified by another thread, then the iterator will immediately fail by throwing `java.util.ConcurrentModificationException`, which is a subclass of `RuntimeException`. To avoid this error, you need to create a synchronized collection object and acquire a lock on the object when traversing it. For example, to traverse a set, you have to write the code like this:

```java
Set hashSet = Collections.synchronizedSet(new HashSet());

synchronized (hashSet) { // Must synchronize it
    Iterator iterator = hashSet.iterator();
    while (iterator.hasNext()) {
        System.out.println(iterator.next());
    }
}
```
32.35 What is a synchronized collection? Is ArrayList synchronized? How do you make it synchronized?

32.36 Explain why an iterator is fail-fast.

32.18 Parallel Programming

The Fork/Join Framework is used for parallel programming in Java.

The widespread use of multicore systems has created a revolution in software. In order to benefit from multiple processors, software needs to run in parallel. JDK 7 introduces the new Fork/Join Framework for parallel programming, which utilizes the multicore processors.

The Fork/Join Framework is illustrated in Figure 32.28 (the diagram resembles a fork, hence its name). A problem is divided into nonoverlapping subproblems, which can be solved independently in parallel. The solutions to all subproblems are then joined to obtain the overall solution for the problem. This is the parallel implementation of the divide-and-conquer approach. In JDK 7’s Fork/Join Framework, a fork can be viewed as an independent task that runs on a thread.

The framework defines a task using the ForkJoinTask class, as shown in Figure 32.29, and executes a task in an instance of ForkJoinPool, as shown in Figure 32.30.

ForkJoinTask is the abstract base class for tasks. A ForkJoinTask is a thread-like entity, but it is much lighter than a normal thread, because huge numbers of tasks and subtasks can be executed by a small number of actual threads in a ForkJoinPool. The tasks are primarily coordinated using fork() and join(). Invoking fork() on a task arranges asynchronous execution, and invoking join() waits until the task is completed. The invoke() and invokeAll(tasks) methods implicitly invoke fork() to execute the task and join() to wait for the tasks to complete, and return the result, if any. Note that the static method invokeAll takes a variable number of ForkJoinTask arguments using the ... syntax, which was introduced in Section 6.9.

The Fork/Join Framework is designed to parallelize divide-and-conquer solutions, which are naturally recursive. RecursiveAction and RecursiveTask are two subclasses of ForkJoinTask. To define a concrete task class, your class should extend RecursiveAction or RecursiveTask. RecursiveAction is for a task that doesn’t return a value, and RecursiveTask is for a task that does return a value. Your task class should override the compute() method to specify how a task is performed.

We now use a merge sort to demonstrate how to develop parallel programs using the Fork/Join Framework. The merge sort algorithm (introduced in Section 25.3) divides the
Chapter 32  Multithreading and Parallel Programming

### Java.util.concurrent.Future<V>

- `cancel(interrupt: boolean): boolean` - Attempts to cancel this task.
- `get(): V` - Waits if needed for the computation to complete and returns the result.
- `isDone(): boolean` - Returns true if this task is completed.

### java.util.concurrent.ForkJoinTask<V>

- `adapt(Runnable task): ForkJoinTask<V>` - Returns a ForkJoinTask from a runnable task.
- `fork(): ForkJoinTask<V>` - Arranges asynchronous execution of the task.
- `join(): V` - Returns the result of computations when it is done.
- `invoke(): V` - Performs the task and awaits for its completion, and returns its result.
- `invokeAll(tasks ForkJoinTask<?>...): void` - Forks the given tasks and returns when all tasks are completed.

### java.util.concurrent.RecursiveAction<V>

- `compute(): void` - Defines how task is performed.

### java.util.concurrent.RecursiveTask<V>

- `compute(): V` - Defines how task is performed. Return the value after the task is completed.

---

**Figure 32.29** The `ForkJoinTask` class defines a task for asynchronous execution.

**Figure 32.30** The `ForkJoinPool` executes Fork/Join tasks.

---

array into two halves and applies a merge sort on each half recursively. After the two halves are sorted, the algorithm merges them. Listing 32.13 gives a parallel implementation of the merge sort algorithm and compares its execution time with a sequential sort.

### Listing 32.13 ParallelMergeSort.java

```java
import java.util.concurrent.RecursiveAction;
import java.util.concurrent.ForkJoinPool;

public class ParallelMergeSort {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
```

See Figure 32.8

Creates a `ForkJoinPool` with all available processors.

Creates a `ForkJoinPool` with the specified number of processors.

Performs the task and returns its result upon completion.
```java
final int SIZE = 7000000;
int[] list1 = new int[SIZE];
int[] list2 = new int[SIZE];

for (int i = 0; i < list1.length; i++)
    list1[i] = list2[i] = (int)(Math.random() * 10000000);

long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
parallelMergeSort(list1); // Invoke parallel merge sort
long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
System.out.println("Parallel time with "+ Runtime.getRuntime().availableProcessors() + " processors is " +(endTime - startTime) + " milliseconds");

startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
MergeSort.mergeSort(list2); // MergeSort is in Listing 25.5
endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
System.out.println("Sequential time is " +(endTime - startTime) + " milliseconds");

public static void parallelMergeSort(int[] list) {
    RecursiveAction mainTask = new SortTask(list);
    ForkJoinPool pool = new ForkJoinPool();
    pool.invoke(mainTask);
}

private static class SortTask extends RecursiveAction {
    private final int THRESHOLD = 500;
    private int[] list;

    SortTask(int[] list) {
        this.list = list;
    }
}

@Override
protected void compute() {
    if (list.length < THRESHOLD)
        java.util.Arrays.sort(list);
    else {
        // Obtain the first half
        int[] firstHalf = new int[list.length / 2];
        System.arraycopy(list, 0, firstHalf, 0, list.length / 2);

        // Obtain the second half
        int secondHalfLength = list.length - list.length / 2;
        int[] secondHalf = new int[secondHalfLength];
        System.arraycopy(list, list.length / 2, secondHalf, 0, secondHalfLength);

        // Recursively sort the two halves
        invokeAll(new SortTask(firstHalf),
                   new SortTask(secondHalf));

        // Merge firstHalf with secondHalf into list
        MergeSort.merge(firstHalf, secondHalf, list);
    }
}
```

Since the sort algorithm does not return a value, we define a concrete `ForkJoinTask` class by extending `RecursiveAction` (lines 33–64). The `compute` method is overridden to implement a recursive merge sort (lines 42–63). If the list is small, it is more efficient to be solved sequentially (line 44). For a large list, it is split into two halves (lines 47–54). The two halves are sorted concurrently (lines 57–58) and then merged (line 61).

The program creates a main `ForkJoinTask` (line 28), a `ForkJoinPool` (line 29), and places the main task for execution in a `ForkJoinPool` (line 30). The `invoke` method will return after the main task is completed.

When executing the main task, the task is split into subtasks and the subtasks are invoked using the `invokeAll` method (lines 57–58). The `invokeAll` method will return after all the subtasks are completed. Note that each subtask is further split into smaller tasks recursively. Huge numbers of subtasks may be created and executed in the pool. The Fork/Join Framework automatically executes and coordinates all the tasks efficiently.

The `MergeSort` class is defined in Listing 25.5. The program invokes `MergeSort.merge` to merge two sorted sublists (line 61). The program also invokes `MergeSort.mergeSort` (line 21) to sort a list using merge sort sequentially. You can see that the parallel sort is much faster than the sequential sort.

Note that the loop for initializing the list can also be parallelized. However, you should avoid using `Math.random()` in the code, because it is synchronized and cannot be executed in parallel (see Programming Exercise 32.12). The `parallelMergeSort` method only sorts an array of `int` values, but you can modify it to become a generic method (see Programming Exercise 32.13).

In general, a problem can be solved in parallel using the following pattern:

```
if (the program is small)
    solve it sequentially;
else {
    divide the problem into nonoverlapping subproblems;
    solve the subproblems concurrently;
    combine the results from subproblems to solve the whole problem;
}
```

Listing 32.14 develops a parallel method that finds the maximal number in a list.

**Listing 32.14  ParallelMax.java**

```java
import java.util.concurrent.*;

public class ParallelMax {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a list
        final int N = 9000000;
        int[] list = new int[N];
        for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
            list[i] = i;

        long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
        System.out.println("\nThe maximal number is "+ max(list));
        long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
        System.out.println("\nThe number of processors is "+
                Runtime.getRuntime().availableProcessors());
        System.out.println("Time is "+(endTime - startTime));
    }

    public static int max(int[] list) {
        return list[0];
    }
}
```
public static int max(int[] list) {
    RecursiveTask<Integer> task = new MaxTask(list, 0, list.length);
    ForkJoinPool pool = new ForkJoinPool();
    return pool.invoke(task);
}

private static class MaxTask extends RecursiveTask<Integer> {
    private final static int THRESHOLD = 1000;
    private int[] list;
    private int low;
    private int high;

    public MaxTask(int[] list, int low, int high) {
        this.list = list;
        this.low = low;
        this.high = high;
    }

    @Override
    public Integer compute() {
        if (high - low < THRESHOLD) {
            int max = list[0];
            for (int i = low; i < high; i++)
                if (list[i] > max)
                    max = list[i];
            return new Integer(max);
        } else {
            int mid = (low + high) / 2;
            RecursiveTask<Integer> left = new MaxTask(list, low, mid);
            RecursiveTask<Integer> right = new MaxTask(list, mid, high);

            right.fork();
            left.fork();
            return new Integer(Math.max(left.join().intValue(),
                right.join().intValue()));
        }
    }
}

The maximal number is 8999999
The number of processors is 2
Time is 44 milliseconds

Since the algorithm returns an integer, we define a task class for fork join by extending RecursiveTask<Integer> (lines 26–58). The compute method is overridden to return the max element in a list[low..high] (lines 39–57). If the list is small, it is more efficient to be solved sequentially (lines 40–46). For a large list, it is split into two halves (lines 48–50). The tasks left and right find the maximal element in the left half and right half, respectively. Invoking fork() on the task causes the task to be executed (lines 52–53). The join() method awaits for the task to complete and then returns the result (lines 54–55).
How do you define a ForkJoinTask? What are the differences between RecursiveAction and RecursiveTask?

How do you tell the system to execute a task?

What method can you use to test if a task has been completed?

How do you create a ForkJoinPool? How do you place a task into a ForkJoinPool?

**Key Terms**

- condition 1150
- deadlock 1162
- event dispatch thread 1138
- fail-fast 1164
- fairness policy 1149
- Fork/Join Framework 1165
- lock 1148
- monitor 1154
- multithreading 1130
- race condition 1147
- semaphore 1160
- synchronization wrapper 1164
- synchronized block 1148
- thread 1130
- thread-safe 1147

**Chapter Summary**

1. Each task is an instance of the Runnable interface. A thread is an object that facilitates the execution of a task. You can define a task class by implementing the Runnable interface and create a thread by wrapping a task using a Thread constructor.

2. After a thread object is created, use the start() method to start a thread, and the sleep(long) method to put a thread to sleep so that other threads get a chance to run.

3. A thread object never directly invokes the run method. The JVM invokes the run method when it is time to execute the thread. Your class must override the run method to tell the system what the thread will do when it runs.

4. To prevent threads from corrupting a shared resource, use synchronized methods or blocks. A synchronized method acquires a lock before it executes. In the case of an instance method, the lock is on the object for which the method was invoked. In the case of a static (class) method, the lock is on the class.

5. A synchronized statement can be used to acquire a lock on any object, not just this object, when executing a block of the code in a method. This block is referred to as a synchronized block.

6. You can use explicit locks and conditions to facilitate communications among threads, as well as using the built-in monitor for objects.

7. Deadlock occurs when two or more threads acquire locks on multiple objects and each has a lock on one object and is waiting for the lock on the other object. The resource ordering technique can be used to avoid deadlock.

8. The JDK 7’s Fork/Join Framework is designed for developing parallel programs. You can define a task class that extends RecursiveAction or RecursiveTask and execute the tasks concurrently in ForkJoinPool, and obtains the overall solution after all tasks are completed.
**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

**Programming Exercises**

**Sections 32.1–32.5**

*32.1 (Revise Listing 32.1) Rewrite Listing 32.1 to display the output in a text area, as shown in Figure 32.31.

![Figure 32.31](image)

The output from three threads is displayed in a text area.

32.2 (Racing cars) Rewrite Programming Exercise 18.17 using a thread to control car racing. Compare the program with Programming Exercise 18.17 by setting the delay time to 10 in both programs. Which one runs the animation faster?

32.3 (Raise flags) Rewrite Programming Exercise 18.23 using a thread to animate a flag being raised. Compare the program with Programming Exercise 18.23 by setting the delay time to 10 in both programs. Which one runs the animation faster?

**Sections 32.8–32.12**

32.4 (Synchronize threads) Write a program that launches 1,000 threads. Each thread adds 1 to a variable `sum` that initially is 0. You need to pass `sum` by reference to each thread. In order to pass it by reference, define an `Integer` wrapper object to hold `sum`. Run the program with and without synchronization to see its effect.

32.5 (Run fans) Rewrite Programming Exercise 18.11 using a thread to control the fan animation.

32.6 (Bouncing balls) Rewrite Programming Exercise 18.19 using a thread to animate bouncing ball movements.

32.7 (Control a group of clocks) Rewrite Programming Exercise 18.14 using a thread to control the clock animation.

32.8 (Account synchronization) Rewrite Listing 32.9, ThreadCooperation.java, using the object’s `wait()` and `notifyAll()` methods.

32.9 (Demonstrate ConcurrentModificationException) The iterator is *fail-fast*. Write a program to demonstrate it by creating two threads that concurrently access and modify a set. The first thread creates a hash set filled with numbers, and adds a new number to the set every second. The second thread obtains an iterator for the set and traverses the set back and forth through the iterator every second. You will receive a `ConcurrentModificationException` because the underlying set is being modified in the first thread while the set in the second thread is being traversed.
32.10 (Use synchronized sets) Using synchronization, correct the problem in the preceding exercise so that the second thread does not throw a `ConcurrentModificationException`.

Section 32.15

32.11 (Demonstrate deadlock) Write a program that demonstrates deadlock.

Section 32.18

32.12 (Parallel array initializer) Implement the following method using the Fork/Join Framework to assign random values to the list.

```
public static void parallelAssignValues(double[] list)
```

Write a test program that creates a list with 9,000,000 elements and invokes `parallelAssignValues` to assign random values to the list. Also implement a sequential algorithm and compare the execution time of the two. Note that if you use `Math.random()`, your parallel code execution time will be worse than the sequential code execution time, because `Math.random()` is synchronized and cannot be executed in parallel. To fix this problem, create a `Random` object for assigning random values to a small list.

32.13 (Generic parallel merge sort) Revise Listing 32.13, ParallelMergeSort.java, to define a generic `parallelMergeSort` method as follows:

```
public static void <E extends Comparable<E>>
    parallelMergeSort(E[] list)
```

32.14 (Parallel quick sort) Implement the following method in parallel to sort a list using quick sort (see Listing 25.7).

```
public static void parallelQuickSort(int[] list)
```

Write a test program that times the execution time for a list of size 9,000,000 using this parallel method and a sequential method.

32.15 (Parallel sum) Implement the following method using Fork/Join to find the sum of a list.

```
public static double parallelSum(double[] list)
```

Write a test program that finds the sum in a list of 9,000,000 double values.

32.16 (Parallel matrix addition) Programming Exercise 7.5 describes how to perform matrix addition. Suppose you have multiple processors, so you can speed up the matrix addition. Implement the following method in parallel.

```
public static double[][] parallelAddMatrix(
    double[][] a, double[][] b)
```

Write a test program that times the execution time for adding two 2,000 × 2,000 matrices.

32.17 (Parallel matrix multiplication) Programming Exercise 7.6 describes how to perform matrix multiplication. Suppose you have multiple processors, so you can speed up the matrix multiplication. Implement the following method in parallel.

```
public static double[][] parallelMultiplyMatrix(
    double[][] a, double[][] b)
```
Write a test program that times the execution time for multiplying two 2,000 × 2,000 matrices.

*32.18 (Parallel Eight Queens) Revise Listing 24.10, EightQueens.java, to develop a parallel algorithm that finds all solutions for the Eight Queens problem. (Hint: Launch eight subtasks, each of which places the queen in a different column in the first row.)

Comprehensive

***32.19 (Sorting animation) Write an animation applet for selection sort, insertion sort, and bubble sort, as shown in Figure 32.32. Create an array of integers 1, 2, . . . , 50. Shuffle it randomly. Create a panel to display the array in a histogram. You should invoke each sort method in a separate thread. Each algorithm uses two nested loops. When the algorithm completes an iteration in the outer loop, put the thread to sleep for 0.5 seconds, and redisplay the array in the histogram. Color the last bar in the sorted subarray.

***32.20 (Sudoku search animation) Modify Programming Exercise 24.21 to display the intermediate results of the search. As shown in Figure 32.33a, the number 2 is placed in the first row and last column, because 2 already appears in the same row. This number is invalid, so the next value, 3, is placed in Figure 32.33b. This number is also invalid, because 3 already appears in the same row; so the next value, 4, is placed in Figure 32.33c. The animation displays all the search steps.

***32.21 (Eight Queens animation) Modify Listing 24.10, EightQueens.java, to display the intermediate results of the search. As shown in Figure 32.34a, the current row being searched is highlighted. When the user clicks the mouse button, a position for the row is found and a queen is placed in the row, as shown in Figure 32.34b.
Figure 32.33  The intermediate search steps are displayed in the animation for the Sudoku problem.

Figure 32.34  The intermediate search steps are displayed in the animation for the Eight Queens problem.
Objectives

■ To explain terms: TCP, IP, domain name, domain name server, stream-based communications, and packet-based communications (§33.2).
■ To create servers using server sockets (§33.2.1) and clients using client sockets (§33.2.2).
■ To implement Java networking programs using stream sockets (§33.2.3).
■ To develop an example of a client/server application (§33.2.4).
■ To obtain Internet addresses using the InetAddress class (§33.3).
■ To develop servers for multiple clients (§33.4).
■ To develop applets that communicate with the server (§33.5).
■ To send and receive objects on a network (§33.6).
■ To develop an interactive tic-tac-toe game played on the Internet (§33.7).
33.1 Introduction

Computer networking is to send and receive messages among computers on the Internet.

To browse the Web or send email, your computer must be connected to the Internet. The Internet is the global network of millions of computers. Your computer can connect to the Internet through an Internet Service Provider (ISP) using a dialup, DSL, or cable modem, or through a local area network (LAN).

When a computer needs to communicate with another computer, it needs to know the other computer’s address. An Internet Protocol (IP) address uniquely identifies the computer on the Internet. An IP address consists of four dotted decimal numbers between 0 and 255, such as 130.254.204.33. Since it is not easy to remember so many numbers, they are often mapped to meaningful names called domain names, such as liang.armstrong.edu. Special servers called Domain Name Servers (DNS) on the Internet translate host names into IP addresses. When a computer contacts liang.armstrong.edu, it first asks the DNS to translate this domain name into a numeric IP address and then sends the request using the IP address.

The Internet Protocol is a low-level protocol for delivering data from one computer to another across the Internet in packets. Two higher-level protocols used in conjunction with the IP are the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and the User Datagram Protocol (UDP). TCP enables two hosts to establish a connection and exchange streams of data. TCP guarantees delivery of data and also guarantees that packets will be delivered in the same order in which they were sent. UDP is a standard, low-overhead, connectionless, host-to-host protocol that is used over the IP. UDP allows an application program on one computer to send a datagram to an application program on another computer.

Java supports both stream-based and packet-based communications. Stream-based communications use TCP for data transmission, whereas packet-based communications use UDP. Since TCP can detect lost transmissions and resubmit them, transmissions are lossless and reliable. UDP, in contrast, cannot guarantee lossless transmission. Stream-based communications are used in most areas of Java programming and are the focus of this chapter. Packet-based communications are introduced in Supplement III.U, Networking Using Datagram Protocol.

33.2 Client/Server Computing

Java provides the ServerSocket class for creating a server socket and the Socket class for creating a client socket. Two programs on the Internet communicate through a server socket and a client socket using I/O streams.

Networking is tightly integrated in Java. The Java API provides the classes for creating sockets to facilitate program communications over the Internet. Sockets are the endpoints of logical connections between two hosts and can be used to send and receive data. Java treats socket communications much as it treats I/O operations; thus, programs can read from or write to sockets as easily as they can read from or write to files.

Network programming usually involves a server and one or more clients. The client sends requests to the server, and the server responds. The client begins by attempting to establish a connection to the server. The server can accept or deny the connection. Once a connection is established, the client and the server communicate through sockets.

The server must be running when a client attempts to connect to the server. The server waits for a connection request from a client. The statements needed to create sockets on a server and a client are shown in Figure 33.1.

33.2.1 Server Sockets

To establish a server, you need to create a server socket and attach it to a port, which is where the server listens for connections. The port identifies the TCP service on the socket. Port numbers range from 0 to 65536, but port numbers 0 to 1024 are reserved for privileged services.
33.2 Client/Server Computing

For instance, the email server runs on port 25, and the Web server usually runs on port 80. You can choose any port number that is not currently used by other programs. The following statement creates a server socket `serverSocket`:

```
ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(port);
```

**Note**
Attempting to create a server socket on a port already in use would cause the `java.net.BindException`.

### 33.2.2 Client Sockets

After a server socket is created, the server can use the following statement to listen for connections:

```
Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();
```

This statement waits until a client connects to the server socket. The client issues the following statement to request a connection to a server:

```
Socket socket = new Socket(serverName, port);
```

This statement opens a socket so that the client program can communicate with the server. `serverName` is the server’s Internet host name or IP address. The following statement creates a socket on the client machine to connect to the host 130.254.204.33 at port 8000:

```
Socket socket = new Socket("130.254.204.33", 8000)
```

Alternatively, you can use the domain name to create a socket, as follows:

```
Socket socket = new Socket("liang.armstrong.edu", 8000);
```

When you create a socket with a host name, the JVM asks the DNS to translate the host name into the IP address.

**Note**
A program can use the host name `localhost` or the IP address `127.0.0.1` to refer to the machine on which a client is running.
**33.2.3 Data Transmission through Sockets**

After the server accepts the connection, communication between the server and client is conducted the same as for I/O streams. The statements needed to create the streams and to exchange data between them are shown in Figure 33.2.

To get an input stream and an output stream, use the `getInputStream()` and `getOutputStream()` methods on a socket object. For example, the following statements create an `InputStream` stream called `input` and an `OutputStream` stream called `output` from a socket:

```java
int port = 8000;
DataInputStream in;
DataOutputStream out;
ServerSocket server;
Socket socket;

server = new ServerSocket(port);
socket = server.accept();
in = new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());
out = new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());
System.out.println(in.readDouble());
out.writeDouble(aNumber);
```

The `InputStream` and `OutputStream` streams are used to read or write bytes. You can use `DataInputStream`, `DataOutputStream`, `BufferedReader`, and `PrintWriter` to wrap on the `InputStream` and `OutputStream` to read or write data, such as `int`, `double`, or `String`. The following statements, for instance, create the `DataInputStream` stream `input` and the `DataOutputStream` stream `output` to read and write primitive data values:

```java
DataInputStream input = new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());
DataOutputStream output = new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());
```

The server can use `input.readDouble()` to receive a `double` value from the client, and `output.writeDouble(d)` to send the `double` value `d` to the client.

**Tip**

Recall that binary I/O is more efficient than text I/O because text I/O requires encoding and decoding. Therefore, it is better to use binary I/O for transmitting data between a server and a client to improve performance.
33.2.4 A Client/Server Example

This example presents a client program and a server program. The client sends data to a server. The server receives the data, uses it to produce a result, and then sends the result back to the client. The client displays the result on the console. In this example, the data sent from the client comprise the radius of a circle, and the result produced by the server is the area of the circle (see Figure 33.3).

The client sends the radius through a DataOutputStream on the output stream socket, and the server receives the radius through the DataInputStream on the input stream socket, as shown in Figure 33.4a. The server computes the area and sends it to the client through a DataOutputStream on the output stream socket, and the client receives the area through a DataInputStream on the input stream socket, as shown in Figure 33.4b. The server and client programs are given in Listings 33.1 and 33.2. Figure 33.5 contains a sample run of the server and the client.

![Figure 33.3](image)

**Figure 33.3** The client sends the radius to the server; the server computes the area and sends it to the client.

![Figure 33.4](image)

**Figure 33.4** (a) The client sends the radius to the server. (b) The server sends the area to the client.

![Figure 33.5](image)

**Figure 33.5** The client sends the radius to the server. The server receives it, computes the area, and sends the area to the client.
**Listing 33.1 Server.java**

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class Server extends JFrame {
    // Text area for displaying contents
    private JTextArea jta = new JTextArea();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new Server();
    }

    public Server() {
        // Place text area on the frame
        setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        add(new JScrollPane(jta), BorderLayout.CENTER);
        setTitle("Server");
        setSize(500, 300);
        setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        setVisible(true); // It is necessary to show the frame here!

        try {
            // Create a server socket
            ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);
            jta.append("Server started at " + new Date() + '\n');

            // Listen for a connection request
            Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();
            DataInputStream inputFromClient = new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());
            DataOutputStream outputToClient = new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());

            while (true) {
                // Receive radius from the client
                double radius = inputFromClient.readDouble();

                // Compute area
                double area = radius * radius * Math.PI;

                // Send area back to the client
                outputToClient.writeDouble(area);
                jta.append("Radius received from client: " + radius + '\n');
                jta.append("Area found: " + area + '\n');
            }
        } catch (IOException ex) {
            System.err.println(ex);
        }
    }
}
```
Listing 33.2  Client.java

1 import java.io.*;
2 import java.net.*;
3 import java.awt.*;
4 import java.awt.event.*;
5 import javax.swing.*;
6 public class Client extends JFrame {
7     // Text field for receiving radius
8     private JTextField jtf = new JTextField();
9     // Text area to display contents
10    private JTextArea jta = new JTextArea();
11    // IO streams
12    private DataOutputStream toServer;
13    private DataInputStream fromServer;
14    public static void main(String[] args) {
15        new Client();
16    }
17    public Client() {
18        // Panel p to hold the label and text field
19        JPanel p = new JPanel();
20        p.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
21        p.add(new JLabel("Enter radius"), BorderLayout.WEST);
22        p.add(jtf, BorderLayout.CENTER);
23        jtf.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
24        setLayout(new BorderLayout());
25        add(p, BorderLayout.NORTH);
26        add(new JScrollPane(jta), BorderLayout.CENTER);
27        jtf.addActionListener(new TextFieldListener());
28        setTitle("Client");
29        setSize(500, 300);
30        setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
31        setVisible(true); // It is necessary to show the frame here!
32    }
33    try {
34        // Create a socket to connect to the server
35        Socket sock = new Socket("localhost", 8000);
36        // Create an input stream to receive data from the server
37        fromServer = new DataInputStream(sock.getInputStream());
38        // Create an output stream to send data to the server
39        toServer = new DataOutputStream(sock.getOutputStream());
40    } catch (IOException ex) {
41        jta.append(ex.toString() + '
');
42    }
private class TextFieldListener implements ActionListener {
  @Override
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    try {
      // Get the radius from the text field
      double radius = Double.parseDouble(jtf.getText().trim());

      // Send the radius to the server
      toServer.writeDouble(radius);
      toServer.flush();

      // Get area from the server
      double area = fromServer.readDouble();

      // Display to the text area
      jta.append("Radius is " + radius + "\n");
      jta.append("Area received from the server is " + area + "\n");
    }
    catch (IOException ex) {
      System.err.println(ex);
    }
  }
}

You start the server program first, then start the client program. In the client program, enter a radius in the text field and press Enter to send the radius to the server. The server computes the area and sends it back to the client. This process is repeated until one of the two programs terminates.

The networking classes are in the package java.net. You should import this package when writing Java network programs.

The Server class creates a ServerSocket serverSocket and attaches it to port 8000, using this statement (line 27 in Server.java):

    ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);

The server then starts to listen for connection requests, using the following statement (line 31 in Server.java):

    Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();

The server waits until a client requests a connection. After it is connected, the server reads the radius from the client through an input stream, computes the area, and sends the result to the client through an output stream.

The Client class uses the following statement to create a socket that will request a connection to the server on the same machine (localhost) at port 8000 (line 43 in Client.java):

    Socket socket = new Socket("localhost", 8000);

If you run the server and the client on different machines, replace localhost with the server machine’s host name or IP address. In this example, the server and the client are running on the same machine.

If the server is not running, the client program terminates with a java.net.ConnectException. After it is connected, the client gets input and output streams—wrapped by data input and output streams—in order to receive and send data to the server.
33.3 The InetAddress Class

The server program can use the InetAddress class to obtain the information about the IP address and host name for the client.

Occasionally, you would like to know who is connecting to the server. You can use the InetAddress class to find the client’s host name and IP address. The InetAddress class models an IP address. You can use the following statement in the server program to get an instance of InetAddress on a socket that connects to the client.

```
InetAddress inetAddress = socket.getInetAddress();
```

Next, you can display the client’s host name and IP address, as follows:

```
System.out.println("Client’s host name is " + inetAddress.getHostName());
```
System.out.println("Client's IP Address is "+inetAddress.getHostAddress());

You can also create an instance of InetAddress from a host name or IP address using the static getByName method. For example, the following statement creates an InetAddress for the host liang.armstrong.edu.

InetAddress address = InetAddress.getByName("liang.armstrong.edu");

Listing 33.3 gives a program that identifies the host name and IP address of the arguments you pass in from the command line. Line 7 creates an InetAddress using the getByName method. Lines 8–9 use the getHostName and getHostAddress methods to get the host’s name and IP address. Figure 33.7 shows a sample run of the program.

```
Listing 33.3 IdentifyHostNameIP.java

import java.net.*;

public class IdentifyHostNameIP {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        for (int i = 0; i < args.length; i++) {
            try {
                InetAddress address = InetAddress.getByName(args[i]);
                System.out.print("Host name: "+address.getHostName()+" ");
                System.out.println("IP address: "+address.getHostAddress());
            } catch (UnknownHostException ex) {
                System.err.println("Unknown host or IP address "+args[i]);
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Figure 33.7 The program identifies host names and IP addresses.

33.6 How do you obtain an instance of InetAddress?

33.7 What methods can you use to get the IP address and hostname from an InetAddress?

33.4 Serving Multiple Clients

A server can serve multiple clients. The connection to each client is handled by one thread.

Multiple clients are quite often connected to a single server at the same time. Typically, a server runs continuously on a server computer, and clients from all over the Internet can connect to it. You can use threads to handle the server’s multiple clients simultaneously—simply
create a thread for each connection. Here is how the server handles the establishment of a connection:

```java
while (true) {
    Socket socket = serverSocket.accept(); // Connect to a client
    Thread thread = new ThreadClass(socket);
    thread.start();
}
```

The server socket can have many connections. Each iteration of the `while` loop creates a new connection. Whenever a connection is established, a new thread is created to handle communication between the server and the new client, and this allows multiple connections to run at the same time.

Listing 33.4 creates a server class that serves multiple clients simultaneously. For each connection, the server starts a new thread. This thread continuously receives input (the radius of a circle) from clients and sends the results (the area of the circle) back to them (see Figure 33.8). The client program is the same as in Listing 33.2. A sample run of the server with two clients is shown in Figure 33.9.

**Figure 33.8** Multithreading enables a server to handle multiple independent clients.

**Figure 33.9** The server spawns a thread in order to serve a client.

**Listing 33.4** MultiThreadServer.java

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
```
public class MultiThreadServer extends JFrame {
    private JTextArea jta = new JTextArea();

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new MultiThreadServer();
    }

    public MultiThreadServer() {
        // Place text area on the frame
        setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        add(new JScrollPane(jta), BorderLayout.CENTER);

        setTitle("MultiThreadServer");
        setSize(500, 300);
        setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        setVisible(true); // It is necessary to show the frame here!

        try {
            // Create a server socket
            ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);
            jta.append("MultiThreadServer started at " + new Date() + '\n');

            // Number a client
            int clientNo = 1;

            while (true) {
                // Listen for a new connection request
                Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();

                // Display the client number
                jta.append("Starting thread for client " + clientNo + " at " + new Date() + '\n');

                // Find the client's host name and IP address
                InetAddress inetAddress = socket.getInetAddress();
                jta.append("Client " + clientNo + "'s host name is "
                        + inetAddress.getHostName() + '\n');
                jta.append("Client " + clientNo + "'s IP Address is "
                        + inetAddress.getHostAddress() + '\n');

                // Create a new thread for the connection
                HandleAClient task = new HandleAClient(socket);

                // Start the new thread
                new Thread(task).start();

                // Increment clientNo
                clientNo++;
            }
        }
    }
}

class HandleAClient implements Runnable {

private Socket socket; // A connected socket

/** Construct a thread */
public HandleAClient(Socket socket) {
  this.socket = socket;
}

@Override /** Run a thread */
public void run() {
  try {
    // Create data input and output streams
    DataInputStream inputFromClient = new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());
    DataOutputStream outputToClient = new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());

    // Continuously serve the client
    while (true) {
      // Receive radius from the client
      double radius = inputFromClient.readDouble();

      // Compute area
      double area = radius * radius * Math.PI;

      // Send area back to the client
      outputToClient.writeDouble(area);
      jta.append("radius received from client: " + radius + 
        "Area found: " + area + 
      } catch (IOException e) {
        System.err.println(e);
      }
    }
  }
}

The server creates a server socket at port 8000 (line 27) and waits for a connection (line 35). When a connection with a client is established, the server creates a new thread to handle the communication (line 49). It then waits for another connection in an infinite while loop (lines 33–56). The threads, which run independently of one another, communicate with designated clients. Each thread creates data input and output streams that receive and send data to a client.

33.8 How do you make a server serve multiple clients?

33.5 Applet Clients

The client can be an applet that connects to the server running on the host from which the applet is loaded.

Because of security constraints, applets can connect only to the host from which they were loaded. Therefore, the HTML file must be located on the machine on which the server is running. You can obtain the server’s host name by invoking getCodeBase().getHost() on an applet, so you can write the applet without the host name fixed. The following is an example of how to use an applet to connect to a server.
The applet shows the number of visits made to a Web page. The count should be stored in a file on the server side. Every time the page is visited or reloaded, the applet sends a request to the server, and the server increases the count and sends it to the applet. The applet then displays the new count in a message, such as **You are visitor number 11**, as shown in Figure 33.10. The server and client programs are given in Listings 33.5 and 33.6.

![Applet Viewer: AppletClient.class](image)

**Figure 33.10** The applet displays the access count on a Web page.

### Listing 33.5  CountServer.java

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

public class CountServer {
    private RandomAccessFile raf;
    private int count; // Count the access to the server

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        new CountServer();
    }

    public CountServer() {
        try {
            // Create a server socket
            ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);
            System.out.println("Server started ");

            // Create or open the count file
            raf = new RandomAccessFile("count.dat", "rw");

            // Get the count
            if (raf.length() == 0)
                count = 0;
            else
                count = raf.readInt();

            // Listen for a new connection request
            Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();

            // Create a DataOutputStream for the socket
            DataOutputStream outputToClient =
                new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());

            // Increase count and send the count to the client
            count++;
            outputToClient.writeInt(count);

            // Write new count back to the file
            raf.seek(0);
        }
    }
}
```

The server creates a `ServerSocket` in line 15 and creates or opens a file using `RandomAccessFile` in line 19. It reads the count from the file in lines 22–33. The server then waits for a connection request from a client (line 29). After a connection with a client is established, the server creates an output stream to the client (lines 32–33), increases the count (line 36), sends the count to the client (line 37), and writes the new count back to the file. This process continues in an infinite `while` loop to handle all clients.

**LISTING 33.6 AppletClient.java**

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class AppletClient extends JApplet {

    private JLabel jlblCount = new JLabel();

    // Indicate if it runs as application
    private boolean isStandAlone = false;

    // Host name or IP address
    private String host = "localhost";

    // Label for displaying the visit count
    private JLabel jlblCount = new JLabel();

    public void init() {
        add(jlblCount);

        try {
            // Create a socket to connect to the server
            Socket socket;
            if (isStandAlone)
                socket = new Socket(host, 8000);
            else
                socket = new Socket(getCodeBase().getHost(), 8000);

            // Create an input stream to receive data from the server
            DataInputStream inputFromServer =
                new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());

            // Receive the count from the server and display it on label
            int count = inputFromServer.readInt();
            jlblCount.setText("You are visitor number " + count);

            // Close the stream
            inputFromServer.close();
        }
        catch (IOException ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}
```
** Run the applet as an application */

```java
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create a frame
    JFrame frame = new JFrame("Applet Client");

    // Create an instance of the applet
    AppletClient applet = new AppletClient();
    applet.isStandAlone = true;

    // Get host
    if (args.length == 1) applet.host = args[0];

    // Add the applet instance to the frame
    frame.add(applet, java.awt.BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Invoke init() and start()
    applet.init();
    applet.start();

    // Display the frame
    frame.pack();
    frame.setVisible(true);
}
```

The client is an applet. When it runs as an applet, it uses `getCodeBase().getHost()` (line 25) to return the IP address for the server. When it runs as an application, it passes the URL from the command line (line 53). If the URL is not passed from the command line, by default localhost is used for the URL (line 13).

The client creates a socket to connect to the server (lines 21–25), creates an input stream from the socket (lines 28–29), receives the count from the server (line 32), and displays it in the text field (line 33).

### 33.6 Sending and Receiving Objects

* A program can send and receive objects from another program.

In the preceding examples, you learned how to send and receive data of primitive types. You can also send and receive objects using `ObjectOutputStream` and `ObjectInputStream` on socket streams. To enable passing, the objects must be serializable. The following example demonstrates how to send and receive objects.

The example consists of three classes: `StudentAddress.java` (Listing 33.7), `StudentClient.java` (Listing 33.8), and `StudentServer.java` (Listing 33.9). The client program collects student information from a client and sends it to a server, as shown in Figure 33.11.

The `StudentAddress` class contains the student information: name, street, city, state, and zip. The `StudentAddress` class implements the `Serializable` interface. Therefore, a `StudentAddress` object can be sent and received using the object output and input streams.

![Register Student Client](image)

**Figure 33.11** The client sends the student information in an object to the server.
LISTING 33.7  StudentAddress.java

```java
public class StudentAddress implements java.io.Serializable {
    private String name;
    private String street;
    private String city;
    private String state;
    private String zip;

    public StudentAddress(String name, String street, String city,
                           String state, String zip) {
        this.name = name;
        this.street = street;
        this.city = city;
        this.state = state;
        this.zip = zip;
    }

    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }

    public String getStreet() {
        return street;
    }

    public String getCity() {
        return city;
    }

    public String getState() {
        return state;
    }

    public String getZip() {
        return zip;
    }
}
```

The client sends a **StudentAddress** object through an **ObjectOutputStream** on the output stream socket, and the server receives the **Student** object through the **ObjectInputStream** on the input stream socket, as shown in Figure 33.12. The client uses

![Diagram](image-url)  

**Figure 33.12**  The client sends a **StudentAddress** object to the server.
the `writeObject` method in the `ObjectOutputStream` class to send data about a student to the server, and the server receives the student's information using the `readObject` method in the `ObjectInputStream` class. The server and client programs are given in Listings 33.8 and 33.9.

**LISTING 33.8 StudentClient.java**

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class StudentClient extends JApplet {
    private JTextField jtfName = new JTextField(32);
    private JTextField jtfStreet = new JTextField(32);
    private JTextField jtfCity = new JTextField(20);
    private JTextField jtfState = new JTextField(2);
    private JTextField jtfZip = new JTextField(5);

    // Button for sending a student's address to the server
    private JButton jbtRegister = new JButton("Register to the Server");

    // Indicate if it runs as application
    private boolean isStandAlone = false;

    // Host name or IP address
    String host = "localhost";

    public void init() {
        // Panel p1 for holding labels Name, Street, and City
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
        p1.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
        p1.add(new JLabel("Name"));
        p1.add(new JLabel("Street"));
        p1.add(new JLabel("City"));

        // Panel jpState for holding state
        JPanel jpState = new JPanel();
        jpState.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        jpState.add(new JLabel("State"), BorderLayout.WEST);
        jpState.add(jtfState, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Panel jpZip for holding zip
        JPanel jpZip = new JPanel();
        jpZip.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        jpZip.add(new JLabel("Zip"), BorderLayout.WEST);
        jpZip.add(jtfZip, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Panel p2 for holding jpState and jpZip
        JPanel p2 = new JPanel();
        p2.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        p2.add(jpState, BorderLayout.WEST);
        p2.add(jpZip, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Panel p3 for holding jtfCity and p2
        JPanel p3 = new JPanel();
        p3.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        p3.add(jtfCity, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
```

create UI
33.6 Sending and Receiving Objects

```java
p3.add(p2, BorderLayout.EAST);

// Panel p4 for holding jtfName, jtfStreet, and p3
JPanel p4 = new JPanel();
p4.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
p4.add(jtfName);
p4.add(jtfStreet);
p4.add(p3);

// Place p1 and p4 into StudentPanel
JPanel studentPanel = new JPanel(new BorderLayout());
studentPanel.setBorder(new BevelBorder(BevelBorder.RAISED));
studentPanel.add(p1, BorderLayout.WEST);
studentPanel.add(p4, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Add the student panel and button to the applet
add(studentPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jbtRegister, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listener
jbtRegister.addActionListener(new ButtonListener());

// Find the IP address of the Web server
if (!isStandAlone)
    host = getCodeBase().getHost();

/** Handle button action */
private class ButtonListener implements ActionListener {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        try {
            // Establish connection with the server
            Socket socket = new Socket(host, 8000);

            // Create an output stream to the server
            ObjectOutputStream toServer =
                new ObjectOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());

            // Get text field
            String name = jtfName.getText().trim();
            String street = jtfStreet.getText().trim();
            String city = jtfCity.getText().trim();
            String state = jtfState.getText().trim();
            String zip = jtfZip.getText().trim();

            // Create a StudentAddress object and send to the server
            StudentAddress s =
                new StudentAddress(name, street, city, state, zip);
            toServer.writeObject(s);

        } catch (IOException ex) {
            System.err.println(ex);
        }
    }

    // Run the applet as an application */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a frame
```
JFrame frame = new JFrame("Register Student Client");
// Create an instance of the applet
StudentClient applet = new StudentClient();
applet.isStandAlone = true;
// Get host
if (args.length == 1) applet.host = args[0];
// Add the applet instance to the frame
frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
// Invoke init() and start()
applet.init();
applet.start();
// Display the frame
frame.pack();
frame.setVisible(true);
}

Listing 33.9  StudentServer.java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

public class StudentServer {
  private ObjectOutputStream outputToFile;
  private ObjectInputStream inputFromClient;

  public static void main(String[] args) {
    new StudentServer();
  }

  public StudentServer() {
    try {
      // Create a server socket
      ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);
      System.out.println("Server started ");
      // Create an object output stream
      outputToFile = new ObjectOutputStream(new FileOutputStream("student.dat", true));

      while (true) {
        // Listen for a new connection request
        Socket socket = serverSocket.accept();

        // Create an input stream from the socket
        inputFromClient = new ObjectInputStream(socket.getInputStream());

        // Read from input
        Object object = inputFromClient.readObject();

        // Write to the file
        outputToFile.writeObject(object);
        System.out.println("A new student object is stored");
      }
    }
  }
}
On the client side, when the user clicks the Register to the Server button, the client creates a socket to connect to the host (line 87), creates an ObjectOutputStream on the output stream of the socket (lines 90–91), and invokes the writeObject method to send the StudentAddress object to the server through the object output stream (line 103).

On the server side, when a client connects to the server, the server creates an ObjectInputStream on the input stream of the socket (lines 27–28), invokes the readObject method to receive the StudentAddress object through the object input stream (line 31), and writes the object to a file (line 34).

This program can run either as an applet or as an application. To run it as an application, the host name is passed as a command-line argument.

33.9 Can an applet connect to a server that is different from the machine where the applet is located?

33.10 How do you find the host name of an applet?

33.11 How do you send and receive an object?

33.7 Case Study: Distributed Tic-Tac-Toe Games

This section develops an applet that enables two players to play the tic-tac-toe game on the Internet.

In Section 18.9, Case Study: Developing a Tic-Tac-Toe Game, you developed an applet for a tic-tac-toe game that enables two players to play the game on the same machine. In this section, you will learn how to develop a distributed tic-tac-toe game using multithreads and networking with socket streams. A distributed tic-tac-toe game enables users to play on different machines from anywhere on the Internet.

You need to develop a server for multiple clients. The server creates a server socket and accepts connections from every two players to form a session. Each session is a thread that communicates with the two players and determines the status of the game. The server can establish any number of sessions, as shown in Figure 33.13.

For each session, the first client connecting to the server is identified as player 1 with token X, and the second client connecting is identified as player 2 with token O. The server notifies the players of their respective tokens. Once two clients are connected to it, the server starts a thread to facilitate the game between the two players by performing the steps repeatedly, as shown in Figure 33.14.
The server does not have to be a graphical component, but creating it as a frame in which game information can be viewed is user-friendly. You can create a scroll pane to hold a text area in the frame and display game information in the text area. The server creates a thread to handle a game session when two players are connected to the server.

The client is responsible for interacting with the players. It creates a user interface with nine cells, and displays the game title and status to the players in the labels. The client class is very similar to the TicTacToe class presented in the case study in Section 18.9. However, the
client in this example does not determine the game status (win or draw); it simply passes the moves to the server and receives the game status from the server.

Based on the foregoing analysis, you can create the following classes:

- **TicTacToeServer** serves all the clients in Listing 33.11.
- **HandleASession** facilitates the game for two players. This class is defined in TicTacToeServer.java.
- **TicTacToeClient** models a player in Listing 33.12.
- **Cell** models a cell in the game. It is an inner class in TicTacToeClient.
- **TicTacToeConstants** is an interface that defines the constants shared by all the classes in the example in Listing 33.10.

The relationships of these classes are shown in Figure 33.15.

**Listing 33.10**  
TicTacToeConstants.java

```java
public interface TicTacToeConstants {
    public static int PLAYER1 = 1; // Indicate player 1
    public static int PLAYER2 = 2; // Indicate player 2
```

**Figure 33.15**  
TicTacToeServer creates an instance of HandleASession for each session of two players. TicTacToeClient creates nine cells in the UI.
public static int PLAYER1_WON = 1; // Indicate player 1 won
public static int PLAYER2_WON = 2; // Indicate player 2 won
public static int DRAW = 3; // Indicate a draw
public static int CONTINUE = 4; // Indicate to continue

Listing 33.11 TicTacToeServer.java

```java
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.util.Date;

public class TicTacToeServer extends JFrame implements TicTacToeConstants {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        TicTacToeServer frame = new TicTacToeServer();
    }

    public TicTacToeServer() {
        JTextArea jtaLog = new JTextArea();

        // Create a scroll pane to hold text area
        JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(jtaLog);

        // Add the scroll pane to the frame
        add(scrollPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
        setSize(300, 300);
        setTitle("TicTacToeServer");
        setVisible(true);

        try {
            // Create a server socket
            ServerSocket serverSocket = new ServerSocket(8000);
            jtaLog.append(new Date() +
                           "Server started at socket 8000\n");

            // Number a session
            int sessionNo = 1;

            // Ready to create a session for every two players
            while (true) {
                jtaLog.append(new Date() +
                              "Wait for players to join session " + sessionNo + '\n');

                // Connect to player 1
                Socket player1 = serverSocket.accept();

                jtaLog.append(new Date() +
                              "Player 1 joined session " + sessionNo + '\n');
                jtaLog.append("Player 1’s IP address" +
                              player1.getInetAddress().getHostAddress() + '\n');

                // Notify that the player is Player 1
                new DataOutputStream(
                    player1.getOutputStream()).writeInt(PLAYER1);
            }
        }
    }
}
```

---

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// Connect to player 2
Socket player2 = serverSocket.accept();

jtaLog.append("new Date() + ": Player 2 joined session " + sessionNo + '\n\n');
jtaLog.append("Player 2's IP address" +
player2.getInetAddress().getHostAddress() + '\n\n');

// Notify that the player is Player 2
new DataOutputStream(
    player2.getOutputStream()).writeInt(PLAYER2);

// Display this session and increment session number
jtaLog.append("new Date() + ": Start a thread for session " +
    sessionNo++ + '\n\n');

// Create a new thread for this session of two players
HandleASession task = new HandleASession(player1, player2);

// Start the new thread
new Thread(task).start();

} catch (IOException ex) {
    System.err.println(ex);
}
}

// Define the thread class for handling a new session for two players
class HandleASession implements Runnable, TicTacToeConstants {
    private Socket player1;
    private Socket player2;

    // Create and initialize cells
    private char[][] cell = new char[3][3];

    private DataInputStream fromPlayer1;
    private DataOutputStream toPlayer1;
    private DataInputStream fromPlayer2;
    private DataOutputStream toPlayer2;

    // Continue to play
    private boolean continueToPlay = true;

    /** Construct a thread */
    public HandleASession(Socket player1, Socket player2) {
        this.player1 = player1;
        this.player2 = player2;

        // Initialize cells
        for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
            for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
                cell[i][j] = ' ';

    }

    @Override /** Implement the run() method for the thread */
    public void run() {
        try {
            // Create data input and output streams
            "Create and initialize cells"}
DataInputStream fromPlayer1 = new DataInputStream(player1.getInputStream);
DataOutputStream toPlayer1 = new DataOutputStream(player1.getOutputStream);
DataInputStream fromPlayer2 = new DataInputStream(player2.getInputStream);
DataOutputStream toPlayer2 = new DataOutputStream(player2.getOutputStream);

// Write anything to notify player 1 to start
// This is just to let player 1 know to start
toPlayer1.writeInt(1);

// Continuously serve the players and determine and report
// the game status to the players
while (true) {
    // Receive a move from player 1
    int row = fromPlayer1.readInt();
    int column = fromPlayer1.readInt();
    cell[row][column] = 'X';

    // Check if Player 1 wins
    if (isWon('X')) {
        toPlayer1.writeInt(PLAYER1_WON);
        toPlayer2.writeInt(PLAYER1_WON);
        sendMove(toPlayer2, row, column);
        break; // Break the loop
    }
    else if (isFull()) { // Check if all cells are filled
        toPlayer1.writeInt(DRAW);
        toPlayer2.writeInt(DRAW);
        sendMove(toPlayer2, row, column);
        break;
    }
    else {
        // Notify player 2 to take the turn
        toPlayer2.writeInt(CONTINUE);

        // Send player 1's selected row and column to player 2
        sendMove(toPlayer2, row, column);
    }

    // Receive a move from Player 2
    row = fromPlayer2.readInt();
    column = fromPlayer2.readInt();
    cell[row][column] = 'O';

    // Check if Player 2 wins
    if (isWon('O')) {
        toPlayer1.writeInt(PLAYER2_WON);
        toPlayer2.writeInt(PLAYER2_WON);
        sendMove(toPlayer1, row, column);
        break;
    }
    else { // Notify player 1 to take the turn
        toPlayer1.writeInt(CONTINUE);

        // Send player 2's selected row and column to player 1
    }
    sendMove(toPlayer1, row, column);

    } catch (IOException ex) {
      System.err.println(ex);
    }

  }

  /** Send the move to other player */
  private void sendMove(DataOutputStream out, int row, int column)
    throws IOException {
    out.writeInt(row); // Send row index
    out.writeInt(column); // Send column index
  }

  /** Determine if the cells are all occupied */
  private boolean isFull() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
      for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        if (cell[i][j] == ' ')
          return false; // At least one cell is not filled
    // All cells are filled
    return true;
  }

  /** Determine if the player with the specified token wins */
  private boolean isWon(char token) {
    // Check all rows
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
      if (((cell[i][0] == token)
           && (cell[i][1] == token)
           && (cell[i][2] == token))
          return true;
    }

    /** Check all columns */
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
      if (((cell[0][j] == token)
           && (cell[1][j] == token)
           && (cell[2][j] == token))
          return true;
    }

    /** Check major diagonal */
    if ((cell[0][0] == token)
        && (cell[1][1] == token)
        && (cell[2][2] == token))
      return true;
    }

    /** Check subdiagonal */
    if ((cell[0][2] == token)
        && (cell[1][1] == token)
        && (cell[2][0] == token))
      return true;
    }

    }
/* All checked, but no winner */
return false;

Listing 33.12  TicTacToeClient.java

import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.LineBorder;
import java.io.*;
import java.net.*;

public class TicTacToeClient extends JApplet
    implements Runnable, TicTacToeConstants {
    // Indicate whether the player has the turn
    private boolean myTurn = false;

    // Indicate the token for the player
    private char myToken = ' ';

    // Indicate the token for the other player
    private char otherToken = ' ';

    // Create and initialize cells
    private Cell[][] cell = new Cell[3][3];

    // Create and initialize a title label
    private JLabel jlblTitle = new JLabel();

    // Create and initialize a status label
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel();

    // Indicate selected row and column by the current move
    private int rowSelected;
    private int columnSelected;

    // Input and output streams from/to server
    private DataInputStream fromServer;
    private DataOutputStream toServer;

    // Continue to play?
    private boolean continueToPlay = true;

    // Wait for the player to mark a cell
    private boolean waiting = true;

    // Indicate if it runs as application
    private boolean isStandAlone = false;

    // Host name or IP address
    private String host = "localhost";

    @Override /** Initialize UI */
    public void init() {
        // Panel p to hold cells
        JPanel p = new JPanel();
        p.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 3, 0, 0));
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        p.add(cell[i][j] = new Cell(i, j));

// Set properties for labels and borders for labels and panel
p.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black, 1));
jlblTitle.setHorizontalAlignment(JLabel.CENTER);
jlblTitle.setFont(new Font("SansSerif", Font.BOLD, 16));
jlblTitle.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black, 1));

// Place the panel and the labels for the applet
add(jlblTitle, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(p, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Connect to the server
connectToServer();

private void connectToServer() {
    try {
        // Create a socket to connect to the server
        Socket socket;
        if (isStandAlone)
            socket = new Socket(host, 8000);
        else
            socket = new Socket(getCodeBase().getHost(), 8000);

        // Create an input stream to receive data from the server
        fromServer = new DataInputStream(socket.getInputStream());

        // Create an output stream to send data to the server
        toServer = new DataOutputStream(socket.getOutputStream());
    }
    catch (Exception ex) {
        System.err.println(ex);
    }

    // Control the game on a separate thread
    Thread thread = new Thread(this);
    thread.start();
}

@Override
public void run() {
    try {
        // Get notification from the server
        int player = fromServer.readInt();

        // Am I player 1 or 2?
        if (player == PLAYER1) {
            myToken = 'X';
            otherToken = 'O';
            jlblTitle.setText("Player 1 with token 'X'");
            jlblStatus.setText("Waiting for player 2 to join");
        }

        // Receive startup notification from the server
        fromServer.readInt(); // Whatever read is ignored
public class Connect4 {

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Initialize the server connection
        Socket serverSocket = new Socket("localhost", 8080);
        DataInputStream fromServer = new DataInputStream(serverSocket.getInputStream());
        DataOutputStream toServer = new DataOutputStream(serverSocket.getOutputStream());

        // Receive the player number
        int playerNumber = fromServer.readInt();
        System.out.println("Player "+(playerNumber==1?"1":"2")+" joined the game.");

        try {
            // Continue to play
            while (continueToPlay) {
                // Wait for the player to mark a cell
                Thread.sleep(100);
                waiting = true;
                toServer.writeInt(rowSelected); // Send the selected row
                toServer.writeInt(columnSelected); // Send the selected column

                // Receive info from the server
                int status = fromServer.readInt();
                if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
                    // Player 1 won, stop playing
                    continueToPlay = false;
                    if (myToken == 'X') {
                        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
                    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
                        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
                    }
                } else if (myToken == 'X') {
                    jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
                } else if (myToken == 'O') {
                    jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
                }
            }
        } catch (IOException e) {
            e.printStackTrace();
        } finally {
            toServer.close();
            fromServer.close();
            serverSocket.close();
        }
    }
}

private void waitForPlayerAction() throws InterruptedException {
    while (waiting) {
        Thread.sleep(100);
    }
    waiting = true;
}

private void sendMove() throws IOException {
    toServer.writeInt(rowSelected); // Send the selected row
    toServer.writeInt(columnSelected); // Send the selected column
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}

private void receiveInfoFromServer() throws IOException {
    // Receive game status
    int status = fromServer.readInt();
    if (status == PLAYER1_WON) {
        // Player 1 won, stop playing
        continueToPlay = false;
        if (myToken == 'X') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
        } else if (myToken == 'O') {
            jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
        }
    } else if (myToken == 'X') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (X)";)
    } else if (myToken == 'O') {
        jlblStatus.setText("I won! (O)";)
    }
}
private void receiveMove() throws IOException {
    // Get the other player's move
    int row = fromServer.readInt();
    int column = fromServer.readInt();
    cell[row][column].setToken(otherToken);
}

// An inner class for a cell
public class Cell extends JPanel {
    // Indicate the row and column of this cell in the board
    private int row;
    private int column;

    // Token used for this cell
    private char token = ' ';

    public Cell(int row, int column) {
        this.row = row;
        this.column = column;
        setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black, 1)); // Set cell's border
        addMouseListener(new ClickListener()); // Register listener
    }

    /** Return token */
    public char getToken() {
        return token;
    }
}
/* Set a new token */
public void setToken(char c) {
        token = c;
        repaint();
}

@Override /* Paint the cell */
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        if (token == 'X') {
                g.drawLine(10, 10, getWidth() - 10, getHeight() - 10);
                g.drawLine(getWidth() - 10, 10, 10, getHeight() - 10);
        } else if (token == 'O') {
                g.drawOval(10, 10, getWidth() - 20, getHeight() - 20);
        }
}

/** Handle mouse click on a cell */
private class ClickListener extends MouseAdapter {
        @Override
        public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
                if (token == ' ' && myTurn) {
                        setToken(myToken); // Set the player's token in the cell
                        myTurn = false;
                        rowSelected = row;
                        columnSelected = column;
                        jlblStatus.setText("Waiting for the other player to move");
                        waiting = false; // Just completed a successful move
                }
        }
}

public void main() {
        // Main method
}

The server can serve any number of sessions simultaneously. Each session takes care of two players. The client can be a Java applet or a Java application. To run a client as a Java applet from a Web browser, the server must run from a Web server. Figures 33.16 and 33.17 show sample runs of the server and the clients.

**Figure 33.16** TicTacToeServer accepts connection requests and creates sessions to serve pairs of players.
The `TicTacToeConstants` interface defines the constants shared by all the classes in the project. Each class that uses the constants needs to implement the interface. Centrally defining constants in an interface is a common practice in Java. For example, all the constants shared by Swing classes are defined in `java.swing.SwingConstants`.

Once a session is established, the server receives moves from the players in alternation. Upon receiving a move from a player, the server determines the status of the game. If the game is not finished, the server sends the status (`CONTINUE`) and the player’s move to the other player. If the game is won or a draw, the server sends the status (`PLAYER1_WON`, `PLAYER2_WON`, or `DRAW`) to both players.

The implementation of Java network programs at the socket level is tightly synchronized. An operation to send data from one machine requires an operation to receive data from the other machine. As shown in this example, the server and the client are tightly synchronized to send or receive data.

### 33.12 Will the program work if lines 48-49 in Listing 33.12 `TicTacToeClient.java`

```java
@Override
/** Initialize UI */
public void init() {
    is changed to

public TicTacToeClient() {
```

### 33.13 If a player does not have the turn, but clicks on an empty cell, will the code in line 254 in Listing 33.12 be executed and will the code in line 255 be executed?

**Chapter Summary**

1. Java supports stream sockets and datagram sockets. *Stream sockets* use TCP (Transmission Control Protocol) for data transmission, whereas *datagram sockets* use UDP (User Datagram Protocol). Since TCP can detect lost transmissions and resubmit them, transmissions are lossless and reliable. UDP, in contrast, cannot guarantee lossless transmission.

2. To create a server, you must first obtain a server socket, using `new ServerSocket(port)`. After a server socket is created, the server can start to listen for connections, using the `accept()` method on the server socket. The client requests a connection to a server by using `new Socket(serverName, port)` to create a client socket.
3. Stream socket communication is very much like input/output stream communication after the connection between a server and a client is established. You can obtain an input stream using the `getInputStream()` method and an output stream using the `getOutputStream()` method on the socket.

4. A server must often work with multiple clients at the same time. You can use threads to handle the server’s multiple clients simultaneously by creating a thread for each connection.

5. Applets are good for deploying multiple clients. They can run anywhere with a single copy of the program. However, because of security restrictions, an applet client can connect only to the server where the applet is loaded.

**Test Questions**

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

**Programming Exercises**

Section 33.2

*33.1 (Loan server) Write a server for a client. The client sends loan information (annual interest rate, number of years, and loan amount) to the server (see Figure 33.18a). The server computes monthly payment and total payment and sends them back to the client (see Figure 33.18b). Name the client Exercise33_1Client and the server Exercise33_1Server.

33.2 (Network I/O using `Scanner` and `PrintWriter`) Rewrite the server and client programs in Listings 33.1 and 33.2 using a `Scanner` for input and a `PrintWriter` for output. Name the server Exercise33_2Server and the client Exercise33_2Client.

Sections 33.3–33.4

*33.3 (Loan server for multiple clients) Revise Exercise 33.1 to write a server for multiple clients.
Section 33.5

33.4 (Web visit count) Section 33.5, Applet Clients, created an applet that shows the number of visits made to a Web page. The count is stored in a file on the server side. Every time the page is visited or reloaded, the applet sends a request to the server, and the server increases the count and sends it to the applet. The count is stored using a random-access file. When the applet is loaded, the server reads the count from the file, increases it, and saves it back to the file. Rewrite the program to improve its performance. Read the count from the file when the server starts, and save the count to the file when the server stops, using the Stop button, as shown in Figure 33.19. When the server is alive, use a variable to store the count. Name the client Exercise33_4Client and the server Exercise33_4Server. The client program should be the same as in Listing 33.6. Rewrite the server as a GUI application with a Stop button that exits the server.

![Figure 33.19](image1.png)

*Figure 33.19* The applet displays how many times this Web page has been accessed. The server stores the count.

33.5 (Create a stock ticker in an applet) Write an applet like the one in Programming Exercise 18.16. Assume that the applet gets the stock index from a file named Ticker.txt stored on the Web server. Enable the applet to run as a standalone.

Section 33.6

33.6 (Display and add addresses) Develop a client/server application to view and add addresses, as shown in Figure 33.20.

- Define an Address class to hold the name, street, city, state, and zip in an object.
- The user can use the buttons First, Next, Previous, and Last to view an address, and the Add button to add a new address.
- Limit the concurrent connections to two clients.

Name the client Exercise33_6Client and the server Exercise33_6Server.

![Figure 33.20](image2.png)

*Figure 33.20* You can view and add an address in this applet.
**33.7** *(Transfer last 100 numbers in an array)* Programming Exercise 24.12 retrieves the last 100 prime numbers from a file `PrimeNumbers.dat`. Write a client program that requests the server to send the last 100 prime numbers in an array. Name the server program `Exercise33_7Server` and the client program `Exercise33_7Client`. Assume that the numbers of the `long` type are stored in `PrimeNumbers.dat` in binary format.

**33.8** *(Transfer last 100 numbers in an ArrayList)* Programming Exercise 24.12 retrieves the last 100 prime numbers from a file `PrimeNumbers.dat`. Write a client program that requests the server to send the last 100 prime numbers in an `ArrayList`. Name the server program `Exercise33_8Server` and the client program `Exercise33_8Client`. Assume that the numbers of the `long` type are stored in `PrimeNumbers.dat` in binary format.

**Section 33.7**

**33.9** *(Chat)* Write a program that enables two users to chat. Implement one user as the server (Figure 33.21a) and the other as the client (Figure 33.21b). The server has two text areas: one for entering text and the other (noneditable) for displaying text received from the client. When the user presses the `Enter` key, the current line is sent to the client. The client has two text areas: one (non-editable) for receiving text from the server, and the other for entering text. When the user presses the `Enter` key, the current line is sent to the server. Name the client `Exercise33_9Client` and the server `Exercise33_9Server`.

**33.10** *(Multiple client chat)* Write a program that enables any number of clients to chat. Implement one server that serves all the clients, as shown in Figure 33.22. Name the client `Exercise33_10Client` and the server `Exercise33_10Server`.

---

**Figure 33.21** The server and client send text to and receive text from each other.

**Figure 33.22** The server starts in (a) with three clients in (b), (c), and (d).
Objectives

- To understand the concepts of databases and database management systems (§34.2).
- To understand the relational data model: relational data structures, constraints, and languages (§34.2).
- To use SQL to create and drop tables and to retrieve and modify data (§34.3).
- To learn how to load a driver, connect to a database, execute statements, and process result sets using JDBC (§34.4).
- To use prepared statements to execute precompiled SQL statements (§34.5).
- To use callable statements to execute stored SQL procedures and functions (§34.6).
- To explore database metadata using the DatabaseMetaData and ResultSetMetaData interfaces (§34.7).
34.1 Introduction

*Java provides the API for developing database applications that works with any relational database systems.*

You may have heard a lot about database systems. Database systems are everywhere. Your social security information is stored in a database by the government. If you shop online, your purchase information is stored in a database by the company. If you attend a university, your academic information is stored in a database by the university. Database systems not only store data, they also provide means of accessing, updating, manipulating, and analyzing data. Your social security information is updated periodically, and you can register for courses online. Database systems play an important role in society and in commerce.

This chapter introduces database systems, the SQL language, and how to develop database applications using Java. If you already know SQL, you can skip Sections 34.2 and 34.3.

34.2 Relational Database Systems

*SQL is the standard database language for defining and accessing databases.*

A *database system* consists of a database, the software that stores and manages data in the database, and the application programs that present data and enable the user to interact with the database system, as shown in Figure 34.1.

![Figure 34.1](image)

**Figure 34.1** A database system consists of data, database management software, and application programs.

A *database* is a repository of data that form information. When you purchase a database system—such as MySQL, Oracle, IBM’s DB2 and Informix, Microsoft SQL Server, or Sybase—from a software vendor, you actually purchase the software comprising a *database management system* (DBMS). Database management systems are designed for use by professional programmers and are not suitable for ordinary customers. Application programs are built on top of the DBMS for customers to access and update the database. Thus, application programs can be viewed as the *interfaces* between the database system and its users. Application programs may be standalone GUI applications or Web applications, and may access several different database systems in the network, as shown in Figure 34.2.

Most of today’s database systems are *relational database systems*. They are based on the relational data model, which has three key components: structure, integrity, and language.
34.2 Relational Database Systems

Structure defines the representation of the data. Integrity imposes constraints on the data. Language provides the means for accessing and manipulating data.

34.2.1 Relational Structures

The relational model is built around a simple and natural structure. A relation is actually a table that consists of nonduplicate rows. Tables are easy to understand and easy to use. The relational model provides a simple yet powerful way to represent data.

A row of a table represents a record, and a column of a table represents the value of a single attribute of the record. In relational database theory, a row is called a tuple and a column is called an attribute. Figure 34.3 shows a sample table that stores information about the courses offered by a university. The table has eight tuples, and each tuple has five attributes.

Tables describe the relationship among data. Each row in a table represents a record of related data. For example, “11111”, “CSCI”, “1301”, “Introduction to Java I”, and “4” are related to form a record (the first row in Figure 34.3) in the Course table. Just as data in the same row are related, so too data in different tables may be related through common attributes. Suppose the database has two other tables, Student and Enrollment, as shown in
Figures 34.4 and 34.5. The Course table and the Enrollment table are related through their common attribute courseId, and the Enrollment table and the Student table are related through ssn.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ssn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 34.4** A Student table stores student information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enrollment Table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ssn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444111118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 34.5** An Enrollment table stores student enrollment information.

### 34.2.2 Integrity Constraints

An *integrity constraint* imposes a condition that all the legal values in a table must satisfy. Figure 34.6 shows an example of some integrity constraints in the Subject and Course tables.

In general, there are three types of constraints: domain constraints, primary key constraints, and foreign key constraints. *Domain constraints* and *primary key constraints* are known as *intrarelational constraints*, meaning that a constraint involves only one relation. The *foreign key constraint* is *interrelational*, meaning that a constraint involves more than one relation.
Domain Constraints
Domain constraints specify the permissible values for an attribute. Domains can be specified using standard data types, such as integers, floating-point numbers, fixed-length strings, and variant-length strings. The standard data type specifies a broad range of values. Additional constraints can be specified to narrow the ranges. For example, you can specify that the `numOfCredits` attribute (in the `Course` table) must be greater than 0 and less than 5. You can also specify whether an attribute can be null, which is a special value in a database meaning unknown or not applicable. As shown in the `Student` table, `birthDate` may be null.

Primary Key Constraints
To understand primary keys, it is helpful to know superkeys, keys, and candidate keys. A superkey is an attribute or a set of attributes that uniquely identifies the relation. That is, no two tuples have the same values on a superkey. By definition, a relation consists of a set of distinct tuples. The set of all attributes in the relation forms a superkey.

A key $K$ is a minimal superkey, meaning that any proper subset of $K$ is not a superkey. A relation can have several keys. In this case, each of the keys is called a candidate key. The primary key is one of the candidate keys designated by the database designer. The primary key is often used to identify tuples in a relation. As shown in Figure 34.6, `courseId` is the primary key in the `Course` table.

Foreign Key Constraints
In a relational database, data are related. Tuples in a relation are related, and tuples in different relations are related through their common attributes. Informally speaking, the common attributes are foreign keys. The foreign key constraints define the relationships among relations.

Formally, a set of attributes $FK$ is a foreign key in a relation $R$ that references relation $T$ if it satisfies the following two rules:

- The attributes in $FK$ have the same domain as the primary key in $T$.
- A nonnull value on $FK$ in $R$ must match a primary key value in $T$. 

![Figure 34.6](enrollment_table_course_table.png)

**Figure 34.6** The Enrollment table and the Course table have integrity constraints.
As shown in Figure 34.6, courseId is the foreign key in Enrollment that references the primary key courseId in Course. Every courseId value must match a courseId value in Course.

Enforcing Integrity Constraints

The database management system enforces integrity constraints and rejects operations that would violate them. For example, if you attempted to insert the new record (‘11115’, ‘CSCI’, ‘2490’, ‘C++ Programming’, 0) into the Course table, it would fail because the credit hours must be greater than 0; if you attempted to insert a record with the same primary key as an existing record in the table, the DBMS would report an error and reject the operation; if you attempted to delete a record from the Course table whose primary key value is referenced by the records in the Enrollment table, the DBMS would reject this operation.

Note
All relational database systems support primary key constraints and foreign key constraints, but not all database systems support domain constraints. In the Microsoft Access database, for example, you cannot specify the constraint that numOfCredits is greater than 0 and less than 5.

34.1 What are superkeys, candidate keys, and primary keys?
34.2 What is a foreign key?
34.3 Can a relation have more than one primary key or foreign key?
34.4 Does a foreign key need to be a primary key in the same relation?
34.5 Does a foreign key need to have the same name as its referenced primary key?
34.6 Can a foreign key value be null?

34.3 SQL

Structured Query Language (SQL) is the language for defining tables and integrity constraints and for accessing and manipulating data.

SQL (pronounced “S-Q-L” or “sequel”) is the universal language for accessing relational database systems. Application programs may allow users to access a database without directly using SQL, but these applications themselves must use SQL to access the database. This section introduces some basic SQL commands.

Note
There are many relational database management systems. They share the common SQL language but do not all support every feature of SQL. Some systems have their own extensions to SQL. This section introduces standard SQL supported by all systems.

SQL can be used on MySQL, Oracle, Sybase, IBM DB2, IBM Informix, Borland InterBase, MS Access, or any other relational database system. This chapter uses MySQL to demonstrate SQL and uses MySQL, Access, and Oracle to demonstrate Java database programming. The Companion Web site contains the following supplements on how to install and use three popular databases: MySQL, Oracle, and Access:

MySQL Tutorial
  - Supplement IV.B: Tutorial for MySQL
Oracle Tutorial
  - Supplement IV.C: Tutorial for Oracle
Access Tutorial
  - Supplement IV.D: Tutorial for Microsoft Access
34.3.1 Creating a User Account on MySQL

Assume that you have installed MySQL 5 with the default configuration. To match all the examples in this book, you should create a user named `scott` with the password `tiger`. You can perform the administrative tasks using the MySQL Workbench or using the command line. MySQL Workbench is a GUI tool for managing MySQL databases. Here are the steps to create a user from the command line:

1. From the DOS command prompt, type
   ```
   mysql -uroot -p
   ```
   You will be prompted to enter the root password, as shown in Figure 34.7.

2. At the mysql prompt, enter
   ```
   use mysql;
   ```

3. To create user `scott` with password `tiger`, enter
   ```
   create user 'scott'@'localhost' identified by 'tiger';
   ```

4. To grant privileges to `scott`, enter
   ```
   grant select, insert, update, delete, create, create view, drop, 
   execute, references on *.* to 'scott'@'localhost';
   ```
   - If you want to enable remote access of the account from any IP address, enter
     ```
     grant all privileges on *.* to 'scott'@'%'
     identified by 'tiger';
     ```
   - If you want to restrict the account’s remote access to just one particular IP address, enter
     ```
     grant all privileges on *.* to 'scott'@'ipAddress'
     identified by 'tiger';
     ```

5. Enter
   ```
   exit;
   ```
   to exit the MySQL console.

![Command Prompt - mysql -uroot -p](image)

**Figure 34.7** You can access a MySQL database server from the command window.
On Windows, your MySQL database server starts every time your computer starts. You can stop it by typing the command `net stop mysql` and restart it by typing the command `net start mysql`.

By default, the server contains two databases named `mysql` and `test`. The `mysql` database contains the tables that store information about the server and its users. This database is intended for the server administrator to use. For example, the administrator can use it to create users and grant or revoke user privileges. Since you are the owner of the server installed on your system, you have full access to the mysql database. However, you should not create user tables in the mysql database. You can use the `test` database to store data or create new databases. You can also create a new database using the command `create database databasename` or delete an existing database using the command `drop database databasename`.

### 34.3.2 Creating a Database

To match the examples in the book, you should create a database named `javabook`. Here are the steps to create it:

1. From the DOS command prompt, type
   ```
   mysql -uscott -ptiger
   ```
   to login to mysql, as shown in Figure 34.8.
2. At the mysql prompt, enter
   ```
   create database javabook;
   ```

![Figure 34.8](image)

For your convenience, the SQL statements for creating and initializing tables used in the book are provided in Supplement IV.A. You can download the script for MySQL and save it to `script.sql`. To execute the script, first switch to the `javabook` database using the following command:

```
use javabook;
```

and then type

```source script.sql;
```

as shown in Figure 34.9.
Note
You can populate the javabook database using the script from Supplement IV.A.

34.3.3 Creating and Dropping Tables

Tables are the essential objects in a database. To create a table, use the `create table` statement to specify a table name, attributes, and types, as in the following example:

```sql
create table Course (  
courseId char(5),  
subjectId char(4) not null,  
courseNumber integer,  
title varchar(50) not null,  
numOfCredits integer,  
primary key (courseId)
);
```

This statement creates the `Course` table with attributes `courseId`, `subjectId`, `courseNumber`, `title`, and `numOfCredits`. Each attribute has a data type that specifies the type of data stored in the attribute. `char(5)` specifies that `courseId` consists of five characters. `varchar(50)` specifies that `title` is a variant-length string with a maximum of 50 characters. `integer` specifies that `courseNumber` is an integer. The primary key is `courseId`.

The tables `Student` and `Enrollment` can be created as follows:

```sql
create table Student (  
ssn char(9),  
firstName varchar(25),  
mi char(1),  
lastName varchar(25),  
birthDate date,  
street varchar(25),  
phone char(11),  
zipCode char(5),  
deptId char(4),  
primary key (ssn)
);

create table Enrollment (  
ssn char(9),  
courseId char(5),  
dateRegistered date,  
grade char(1),  
primary key (ssn, courseId),  
foreign key (ssn) references Student(ssn),  
foreign key (courseId) references Course(courseId)
);
```

Note
SQL keywords are not case sensitive. This book adopts the following naming conventions:
- Tables are named in the same way as Java classes, and attributes are named in the same way as Java variables.
- SQL keywords are named in the same way as Java keywords.
If a table is no longer needed, it can be dropped permanently using the `drop table` command. For example, the following statement drops the `Course` table:

```sql
drop table Course;
```

If a table to be dropped is referenced by other tables, you have to drop the other tables first. For example, if you have created the tables `Course`, `Student`, and `Enrollment` and want to drop `Course`, you have to first drop `Enrollment`, because `Course` is referenced by `Enrollment`.

Figure 34.10 shows how to enter the `create table` statement from the MySQL console.

![Figure 34.10](image)

**Figure 34.10** A table is created using the `create table` statement.

If you make typing errors, you have to retype the whole command. To avoid retyping, you can save the command in a file, and then run the command from the file. To do so, create a text file to contain commands, named, for example, `test.sql`. You can create the text file using any text editor, such as Notepad, as shown in Figure 34.11a. To comment a line, precede it with two dashes. You can now run the script file by typing `source test.sql` from the SQL command prompt, as shown in Figure 34.11b.

![Figure 34.11](image)

**Figure 34.11** (a) You can use Notepad to create a text file for SQL commands. (b) You can run the SQL commands in a script file from MySQL.

### 34.3.4 Simple Insert, Update, and Delete

Once a table is created, you can insert data into it. You can also update and delete records. This section introduces simple insert, update, and delete statements.

The syntax to insert a record into a table is:

```sql
insert into tableName [(column1, column2, ..., column)]
values (value1, value2, ..., valuen);
```
For example, the following statement inserts a record into the Course table. The new record has the courseId ‘11113’, subjectId ‘CSCI’, courseNumber ‘3720’, title ‘Database Systems’, and creditHours 3.

\[
\text{insert into Course (courseId, subjectId, courseNumber, title, numOfCredits) values ('11113', 'CSCI', '3720', 'Database Systems', 3);}
\]

The column names are optional. If they are omitted, all the column values for the record must be entered, even though the columns have default values. String values are case sensitive and enclosed inside single quotation marks in SQL.

The syntax to update a table is:

\[
\text{update tableName set column1 = newValue1 [, column2 = newValue2, ...] [where condition];}
\]

For example, the following statement changes the numOfCredits for the course whose title is Database Systems to 4.

\[
\text{update Course set numOfCredits = 4 where title = 'Database Systems';}
\]

The syntax to delete records from a table is:

\[
\text{delete [from] tableName [where condition];}
\]

For example, the following statement deletes the Database Systems course from the Course table:

\[
\text{delete Course where title = 'Database Systems';}
\]

The following statement deletes all the records from the Course table:

\[
\text{delete Course;}
\]

34.3.5 Simple Queries

To retrieve information from tables, use a select statement with the following syntax:

\[
\text{select column-list from table-list [where condition];}
\]

The select clause lists the columns to be selected. The from clause refers to the tables involved in the query. The optional where clause specifies the conditions for the selected rows.

Query 1: Select all the students in the CS department, as shown in Figure 34.12.

\[
\text{select firstName, mi, lastName from Student where deptId = 'CS';}
\]
34.3.6 Comparison and Boolean Operators

SQL has six comparison operators, as shown in Table 34.1, and three Boolean operators, as shown in Table 34.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 34.1 Comparison Operators</th>
<th>Table 34.2 Boolean Operators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Description</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&gt; or !=</td>
<td>Not equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>Less than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>Less than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>Greater than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Description</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
<td>Logical negation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>Logical conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>Logical disjunction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note**
The comparison and Boolean operators in SQL have the same meanings as in Java. In SQL the equal to operator is =, but in Java it is ==. In SQL the not equal to operator is <> or !=, but in Java it is !=. The not, and, and or operators are !, && (&), and || (|) in Java.

**Query 2:** Get the names of the students who are in the CS dept and live in the ZIP code 31411.

```sql
select firstName, mi, lastName
from Student
where deptId = 'CS' and zipCode = '31411';
```

**Note**
To select all the attributes from a table, you don’t have to list all the attribute names in the select clause. Instead, you can just use an asterisk (*), which stands for all the attributes. For example, the following query displays all the attributes of the students who are in the CS dept and live in ZIP code 31411:

```sql
select *
from Student
where deptId = 'CS' and zipCode = '31411';
```
34.3.7 The **like**, **between-and**, and **is null** Operators

SQL has a **like** operator that can be used for pattern matching. The syntax to check whether a string *s* has a pattern *p* is

\[ s \text{ like } p \text{ or } s \text{ not like } p \]

You can use the wildcard characters % (percent symbol) and _ (underline symbol) in the pattern *p*. % matches zero or more characters, and _ matches any single character in *s*. For example, lastName like '_mi%' matches any string whose second and third letters are m and i. lastName not like '_mi%' excludes any string whose second and third letters are m and i.

**Note**

In earlier versions of MS Access, the wildcard character is *, and the character ? matches any single character.

The **between-and** operator checks whether a value *v* is between two other values, *v1* and *v2*, using the following syntax:

\[ v \text{ between } v1 \text{ and } v2 \text{ or } v \text{ not between } v1 \text{ and } v2 \]

\[ v \text{ between } v1 \text{ and } v2 \] is equivalent to \[ v \geq v1 \text{ and } v \leq v2 \], and \[ v \text{ not between } v1 \text{ and } v2 \] is equivalent to \[ v < v1 \text{ or } v > v2 \].

The **is null** operator checks whether a value *v* is **null** using the following syntax:

\[ v \text{ is null } \text{ or } v \text{ is not null} \]

**Query 3**: Get the Social Security numbers of the students whose grades are between ‘C’ and ‘A’.

```sql
select ssn
from Enrollment
where grade between 'C' and 'A';
```

34.3.8 Column Alias

When a query result is displayed, SQL uses the column names as column headings. Usually the user gives abbreviated names for the columns, and the columns cannot have spaces when the table is created. Sometimes it is desirable to give more descriptive names in the result heading. You can use the column aliases with the following syntax:

```sql
select columnName [as] alias
```

**Query 4**: Get the last name and ZIP code of the students in the CS department. Display the column headings as “Last Name” for lastName and “Zip Code” for zipCode. The query result is shown in Figure 34.13.

```sql
mysql> select lastName as "Last Name", zipCode as "Zip Code"
    -> from Student
    -> where deptId = 'CS';
```

**Figure 34.13** You can use a column alias in the display.
Chapter 34 Java Database Programming

```sql
select lastName as "Last Name", zipCode as "Zip Code"
from Student
where deptId = 'CS';
```

**Note**
The `as` keyword is optional in MySQL and Oracle, but it is required in MS Access.

### 34.3.9 The Arithmetic Operators

You can use the arithmetic operators `*` (multiplication), `/` (division), `+` (addition), and `-` (subtraction) in SQL.

**Query 5:** Assume that a credit hour is 50 minutes of lectures, and get the total minutes for each course with the subject CSCI. The query result is shown in Figure 34.14.

```sql
select title, 50 * numOfCredits as "Lecture Minutes Per Week"
from Course
where subjectId = 'CSCI';
```

![Figure 34.14](image)

You can use arithmetic operators in SQL.

### 34.3.10 Displaying Distinct Tuples

SQL provides the `distinct` keyword, which can be used to eliminate duplicate tuples in the result. Figure 34.15 displays all the subject IDs used by the courses and Figure 34.15b displays all the distinct subject IDs used by the courses using the following statement.

```sql
select distinct subjectId as "Subject ID"
from Course;
```

![Figure 34.15](image)

(a) The duplicate tuples are displayed. (b) The distinct tuples are displayed.
When there is more than one column in the `select` clause, the `distinct` keyword applies to the whole tuple in the result. For example, the following statement displays all tuples with distinct `subjectId` and `title`, as shown in Figure 34.16. Note that some tuples may have the same `subjectId`, but different `title`. These tuples are distinct.

```
select distinct subjectId, title
from Course;
```

![Image of SQL query result](image)

**Figure 34.16** The keyword `distinct` applies to the entire tuple.

### 34.3.11 Displaying Sorted Tuples

SQL provides the `order by` clause to sort the output using the following syntax:

```
select column-list
from table-list
[where condition]
[order by columns-to-be-sorted];
```

In the syntax, `columns-to-be-sorted` specifies a column or a list of columns to be sorted. By default, the order is ascending. To sort in descending order, append the `desc` keyword. You could also append the `asc` keyword after `columns-to-be-sorted`, but it is not necessary. When multiple columns are specified, the rows are sorted based on the first column, then the rows with the same values on the first column are sorted based on the second column, and so on.

**Query 6**: List the full names of the students in the CS department, ordered primarily on their last names in descending order and secondarily on their first names in ascending order. The query result is shown in Figure 34.17.

```
SELECT lastName, firstName, deptId
FROM Student
WHERE deptId = 'CS'
ORDER BY lastName desc, firstName asc;
```

![Image of SQL query result](image)

**Figure 34.17** You can sort results using the `order by` clause.
34.3.12 Joining Tables

Often you need to get information from multiple tables, as demonstrated in the next query.

Query 7: List the courses taken by student Jacob Smith. To solve this query, you need to join tables `Student` and `Enrollment`, as shown in Figure 34.18.

```
select distinct lastName, firstName, courseId
from Student, Enrollment
where Student.ssn = Enrollment.ssn and lastName = 'Smith' and firstName = 'Jacob';
```

You can write the query in SQL:

```
select distinct lastName, firstName, courseId
from Student, Enrollment
where Student.ssn = Enrollment.ssn and lastName = 'Smith' and firstName = 'Jacob';
```

The tables `Student` and `Enrollment` are listed in the `from` clause. The query examines every pair of rows, each made of one item from `Student` and another from `Enrollment`, and selects the pairs that satisfy the condition in the `where` clause. The rows in `Student` have the last name, Smith, and the first name, Jacob, and both rows from `Student` and `Enrollment` have the same `ssn` values. For each pair selected, `lastName` and `firstName` from `Student` and `courseId` from `Enrollment` are used to produce the result, as shown in Figure 34.19. `Student` and `Enrollment` have the same attribute `ssn`. To distinguish them in a query, use `Student.ssn` and `Enrollment.ssn`.

```
mysql> select distinct lastName, firstName, courseId
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>return</th>
<th>intent</th>
<th>type</th>
<th>input</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Jacob</td>
<td>Smith</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3 rows in set (0.06 sec)
```

Figure 34.18 Student and Enrollment are joined on ssn.
34.7 Create the tables Course, Student, and Enrollment using the create table statements in Section 34.3.3, Creating and Dropping Tables. Insert rows into the Course, Student, and Enrollment tables using the data in Figures 34.3, 34.4, and 34.5.

34.8 List all CSCI courses with at least four credit hours.
34.9 List all students whose last names contain the letter e two times.
34.10 List all students whose birthdays are null.
34.11 List all students who take Math courses.
34.12 List the number of courses in each subject.
34.13 Assume that each credit hour is 50 minutes of lectures. Get the total minutes for the courses that each student takes.

34.4 JDBC

JDBC is the Java API for accessing relational database.

The Java API for developing Java database applications is called JDBC. JDBC is the trademarked name of a Java API that supports Java programs that access relational databases. JDBC is not an acronym, but it is often thought to stand for Java Database Connectivity.

JDBC provides Java programmers with a uniform interface for accessing and manipulating a wide range of relational databases. Using the JDBC API, applications written in the Java programming language can execute SQL statements, retrieve results, present data in a user-friendly interface, and propagate changes back to the database. The JDBC API can also be used to interact with multiple data sources in a distributed, heterogeneous environment.

The relationships between Java programs, JDBC API, JDBC drivers, and relational databases are shown in Figure 34.20. The JDBC API is a set of Java interfaces and classes used to write Java programs for accessing and manipulating relational databases. Since a JDBC driver serves as the interface to facilitate communications between JDBC and a proprietary database, JDBC drivers are database specific and are normally provided by the database vendors. You need MySQL JDBC drivers to access the MySQL database, and Oracle JDBC drivers to...
access the Oracle database. For the Access database, use the JDBC-ODBC bridge driver included in the JDK. ODBC is a technology developed by Microsoft for accessing databases on the Windows platform. An ODBC driver is preinstalled on Windows. The JDBC-ODBC bridge driver allows a Java program to access any ODBC data source.

### 34.4.1 Developing Database Applications Using JDBC

The JDBC API is a Java application program interface to generic SQL databases that enables Java developers to develop DBMS-independent Java applications using a uniform interface.

The JDBC API consists of classes and interfaces for establishing connections with databases, sending SQL statements to databases, processing the results of SQL statements, and obtaining database metadata. Four key interfaces are needed to develop any database application using Java: `Driver`, `Connection`, `Statement`, and `ResultSet`. These interfaces define a framework for generic SQL database access. The JDBC API defines these interfaces, and the JDBC driver vendors provide the implementation for the interfaces. Programmers use these interfaces.

The relationship of these interfaces is shown in Figure 34.21. A JDBC application loads an appropriate driver using the `Driver` interface, connects to the database using the `Connection` interface, creates and executes SQL statements using the `Statement` interface, and processes the result using the `ResultSet` interface if the statements return results. Note that some statements, such as SQL data definition statements and SQL data modification statements, do not return results.

![Figure 34.21](image)

**Figure 34.21** JDBC classes enable Java programs to connect to the database, send SQL statements, and process results.

The JDBC interfaces and classes are the building blocks in the development of Java database programs. A typical Java program takes the following steps to access a database.

1. Loading drivers.

An appropriate driver must be loaded using the statement shown below before connecting to a database.

```java
Class.forName("JDBCDriverClass");
```

A driver is a concrete class that implements the `java.sql.Driver` interface. The drivers for Access, MySQL, and Oracle are listed in Table 34.3. If your program accesses several different databases, all their respective drivers must be loaded.

you have to add `mysqljdbc.jar` and `ojdbc6.jar` in the classpath using the following DOS command on Windows:

\[
\text{set classpath}=%\text{classpath}%;\text{c:\book\mysqljdbc.jar;e:\book\ojdbc6.jar}
\]

If you use an IDE such as Eclipse or NetBeans, you need to add these jar files into the library in the IDE.

**Note**

`com.mysql.jdbc.Driver` is a class in `mysqljdbc.jar`, and `oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver` is a class in `ojdbc6.jar`. `mysqljdbc.jar` and `ojdbc6.jar` contain many classes to support the driver. These classes are used by JDBC, but not directly by JDBC programmers. When you use a class explicitly in the program, it is automatically loaded by the JVM. The driver classes, however, are not used explicitly in the program, so you have to write the code to tell the JVM to load them.

**Note**

Java 6 supports automatic driver discovery, so you don’t have to load the driver explicitly. At the time of this writing, however, this feature is not supported for all database drivers. To be safe, load the driver explicitly.

2. Establishing connections.

To connect to a database, use the static method `getConnection(databaseURL)` in the `DriverManager` class, as follows:

```java
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection(databaseURL);
```

where `databaseURL` is the unique identifier of the database on the Internet. Table 34.4 lists the URL patterns for the Access, MySQL, and Oracle databases.

### Table 34.4 JDBC URLs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Database</th>
<th>URL Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td><code>jdbc:odbc: datasource</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MySQL</td>
<td><code>jdbc:mysql://hostname/dbname</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oracle</td>
<td><code>jdbc:oracle:thin:@hostname:port#;oracleDBSID</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For an ODBC data source, the `databaseURL` is `jdbc:odbc: datasource`. An ODBC data source can be created using the ODBC Data Source Administrator on Windows. See Supplement IV.D, Tutorial for Microsoft Access, on how to create an ODBC data source for an Access database.
Suppose a data source named ExampleMDBDataSource has been created for an Access database. The following statement creates a `Connection` object:

```java
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:odbc:ExampleMDBDataSource");
```

The `databaseURL` for a MySQL database specifies the host name and database name to locate a database. For example, the following statement creates a `Connection` object for the local MySQL database `javabook` with username `scott` and password `tiger`:

```java
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
```

Recall that by default MySQL contains two databases named `mysql` and `test`. Section 34.3.2, Creating a Database, created a custom database named `javabook`. We will use `javabook` in the examples.

The `databaseURL` for an Oracle database specifies the `hostname`, the `port#` where the database listens for incoming connection requests, and the `oracleDBSID` database name to locate a database. For example, the following statement creates a `Connection` object for the Oracle database on `liang.armstrong.edu` with the username `scott` and password `tiger`:

```java
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl", "scott", "tiger");
```

3. Creating statements.

If a `Connection` object can be envisioned as a cable linking your program to a database, an object of `Statement` can be viewed as a cart that delivers SQL statements for execution by the database and brings the result back to the program. Once a `Connection` object is created, you can create statements for executing SQL statements as follows:

```java
Statement statement = connection.createStatement();
```

4. Executing statements.

SQL data definition language (DDL) and update statements can be executed using `executeUpdate(String sql)`, and an SQL query statement can be executed using `executeQuery(String sql)`. The result of the query is returned in `ResultSet`. For example, the following code executes the SQL statement `create table Temp (col1 char(5), col2 char(5))`:

```java
statement.executeUpdate("create table Temp (col1 char(5), col2 char(5))");
```

This next code executes the SQL query `select firstName, mi, lastName from Student where lastName = 'Smith'`:

```java
// Select the columns from the Student table
ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery("select firstName, mi, lastName from Student where lastName = 'Smith'");
```

5. Processing `ResultSet`.

The `ResultSet` maintains a table whose current row can be retrieved. The initial row position is `null`. You can use the `next` method to move to the next row and the various `get` methods to retrieve values from a current row. For example, the following code displays all the results from the preceding SQL query.
// Iterate through the result and print the student names
   while (resultSet.next())
      System.out.println(resultSet.getString(1) + " " +
                       resultSet.getString(2) + " " + resultSet.getString(3));

   The **getString(1)**, **getString(2)**, and **getString(3)** methods retrieve the column values for **firstName**, **mi**, and **lastName**, respectively. Alternatively, you can use **getString("firstName")**, **getString("mi")**, and **getString("lastName")** to retrieve the same three column values. The first execution of the **next()** method sets the current row to the first row in the result set, and subsequent invocations of the **next()** method set the current row to the second row, third row, and so on, to the last row.

Listing 34.1 is a complete example that demonstrates connecting to a database, executing a simple query, and processing the query result with JDBC. The program connects to a local MySQL database and displays the students whose last name is **Smith**.

**LISTING 34.1  SimpleJDBC.java**

```java
import java.sql.*;

public class SimpleJdbc {
   public static void main(String[] args)
      throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
      // Load the JDBC driver
   Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
   System.out.println("Driver loaded");

   // Connect to a database
   Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection
      ("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
   System.out.println("Database connected");

   // Create a statement
   Statement statement = connection.createStatement();

   // Execute a statement
   ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery
      ("select firstName, mi, lastName from Student where lastName "
      + " = 'Smith'");

   // Iterate through the result and print the student names
   while (resultSet.next())
      System.out.println(resultSet.getString(1) + "	" +
                         resultSet.getString(2) + "	" + resultSet.getString(3));

   // Close the connection
   connection.close();
 }
```

The statement in line 7 loads a JDBC driver for MySQL, and the statement in lines 11–13 connects to a local MySQL database. You can change them to connect to an Access or Oracle database. The program creates a **Statement** object (line 16), executes an SQL statement and returns a **ResultSet** object (lines 19–21), and retrieves the query result from the **ResultSet** object (lines 24–26). The last statement (line 29) closes the connection and releases resources related to the connection.

**Note**

If you run this program from the DOS prompt, specify the appropriate driver in the classpath, as shown in Figure 34.22.

run from DOS prompt
The classpath directory and jar files are separated by commas. The period (.) represents the current directory. For convenience, the driver files are placed under the lib directory.

**Caution**
Do not use a semicolon (;) to end the Oracle SQL command in a Java program. The semicolon may not work with the Oracle JDBC drivers. It does work, however, with the other drivers used in the book.

**Note**
The Connection interface handles transactions and specifies how they are processed. By default, a new connection is in autocommit mode, and all its SQL statements are executed and committed as individual transactions. The commit occurs when the statement completes or the next execute occurs, whichever comes first. In the case of statements returning a result set, the statement completes when the last row of the result set has been retrieved or the result set has been closed. If a single statement returns multiple results, the commit occurs when all the results have been retrieved. You can use the setAutoCommit(false) method to disable autocommit, so that all SQL statements are grouped into one transaction that is terminated by a call to either the commit() or the rollback() method. The rollback() method undoes all the changes made by the transaction.

### 34.4.2 Accessing a Database from a Java Applet

If you are using the JDBC-ODBC bridge driver, your program cannot run as an applet from a Web browser because the ODBC driver contains non-Java native code. The JDBC drivers for MySQL and Oracle are written in Java and can run from the JVM in a Web browser. This section gives an example that demonstrates connecting to a database from a Java applet. The applet lets the user enter the SSN and the course ID to find a student’s grade, as shown in Figure 34.23. The code in Listing 34.2 uses the MySQL database on the localhost.

**Figure 34.22** You must include the driver file to run Java database programs.

**Figure 34.23** A Java applet can access the database on the server.
LISTING 34.2 FindGrade.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.sql.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class FindGrade extends JApplet {

    private JTextField jtfSSN = new JTextField(9);
    private JTextField jtfCourseId = new JTextField(5);
    private JButton jbtShowGrade = new JButton("Show Grade");

    public void init() {
        // Initialize database connection and create a Statement object
        initializeDB();

        jbtShowGrade.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                jbtShowGrade_actionPerformed(e);
            }
        });

        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("SSN"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfSSN);
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Course ID"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfCourseId);
        jPanel1.add(jbtShowGrade);

        add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    }

    private void initializeDB() {
        try {
            // Load the JDBC driver
            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
            // Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver");
            System.out.println("Driver loaded");

            // Establish a connection
            Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
            // ("jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl", "scott", "tiger");
            System.out.println("Database connected");

            // Create a statement
            stmt = connection.createStatement();
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }

    private void jbtShowGrade_actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
```

---

43.4 JDBC  
1233
String ssn = jtfSSN.getText();
String courseId = jtfCourseId.getText();

try {
    String queryString = "select firstName, mi, " +
                        "lastName, title, grade from Student, Enrollment, Course " +
                        "where Student.ssn = '" + ssn + "' and Enrollment.courseId " +
                        "= '" + courseId + 
                        "' and Enrollment.courseId = Course.courseId " +
                        " and Enrollment.ssn = Student.ssn";

    ResultSet rset = stmt.executeQuery(queryString);

    if (rset.next()) {
        String firstName = rset.getString(1);
        String mi = rset.getString(2);
        String lastName = rset.getString(3);
        String title = rset.getString(4);
        String grade = rset.getString(5);

        // Display result in a dialog box
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, firstName + " " + mi + 
                                   " " + lastName + "'s grade on course " + title + " is " +
                                   grade);
    } else {
        // Display result in a dialog box
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Not found");
    }
} catch (SQLException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
}

The initializeDB() method (lines 36–56) loads the MySQL driver (line 39), connects to the MySQL database on host liang.armstrong.edu (lines 44–45) and creates a statement (line 51).

You can run the applet as a standalone from the main method (note that the listing for the main method is omitted for all the applets in the book for brevity) or test the applet using the appletviewer utility, as shown in Figure 34.23. If this applet is deployed on the server where the database is located, any client on the Internet can run it from a Web browser. Since the client may not have a MySQL driver, you should specify the driver in the archive attribute in the applet tag, as follows:

```xml
<applet
    code = "FindGrade"
    archive = "FindGrade.jar, lib/mysqljdbc.jar"
    width = 380
    height = 80
/>
</applet>
```

For information on how to create an archive file, see Supplement III.Q, Packaging and Deploying Java Projects. The FindGrade.jar file can be created using the following command:

```
c:\book>jar -cf FindGrade.jar FindGrade.class
    FindGrade$1.class
```
Note
To access the database from an applet, security restrictions make it necessary for the applet to be downloaded from the server where the database is located. Therefore, you have to deploy the applet on the server.

Note
There is a security hole in this program. If you enter 1' or true or '1 in the SSN field, you will get the first student's score, because the query string now becomes

```sql
SELECT firstName, mi, lastName, title, grade
FROM Student, Enrollment, Course
WHERE Student.ssn = 1' or true or '1
  AND Enrollment.courseId = ''
  AND Enrollment.courseId = Course.courseId
AND Enrollment.ssn = Student.ssn;
```

You can avoid this problem by using the PreparedStatement interface, which is discussed in the next section.

34.14 What are the advantages of developing database applications using Java?
34.15 Describe the following JDBC interfaces: Driver, Connection, Statement, and ResultSet.
34.16 How do you load a JDBC driver? What are the driver classes for MySQL, Access, and Oracle?
34.17 How do you create a database connection? What are the URLs for MySQL, Access, and Oracle?
34.18 How do you create a Statement and execute an SQL statement?
34.19 How do you retrieve values in a ResultSet?
34.20 Does JDBC automatically commit a transaction? How do you set autocommit to false?

34.5 PreparedStatement

**PreparedStatement** enables you to create parameterized SQL statements.

Once a connection to a particular database is established, it can be used to send SQL statements from your program to the database. The **Statement** interface is used to execute static SQL statements that don’t contain any parameters. The **PreparedStatement** interface, extending **Statement**, is used to execute a precompiled SQL statement with or without parameters. Since the SQL statements are precompiled, they are efficient for repeated executions.

A **PreparedStatement** object is created using the **preparedStatement** method in the **Connection** interface. For example, the following code creates a **PreparedStatement** for an SQL insert statement:

```java
Statement preparedStatement = connection.prepareStatement("insert into Student (firstName, mi, lastName) 
values (?, ?, ?)");
```

This **insert** statement has three question marks as placeholders for parameters representing values for **firstName**, **mi**, and **lastName** in a record of the **Student** table.

As a subinterface of **Statement**, the **PreparedStatement** interface inherits all the methods defined in **Statement**. It also provides the methods for setting parameters in the object of **PreparedStatement**. These methods are used to set the values for the parameters...
before executing statements or procedures. In general, the set methods have the following name and signature:

```java
setX(int parameterIndex, X value);
```

where \( X \) is the type of the parameter, and \( \text{parameterIndex} \) is the index of the parameter in the statement. The index starts from 1. For example, the method \( \text{setString(int parameterIndex, String value)} \) sets a \( \text{String} \) value to the specified parameter.

The following statements pass the parameters "Jack", "A", and "Ryan" to the placeholders for \( \text{firstName} \), \( \text{mi} \), and \( \text{lastName} \) in \( \text{preparedStatement} \):

```java
preparedStatement.setString(1, "Jack");
preparedStatement.setString(2, "A");
preparedStatement.setString(3, "Ryan");
```

After setting the parameters, you can execute the prepared statement by invoking \( \text{executeQuery()} \) for a SELECT statement and \( \text{executeUpdate()} \) for a DDL or update statement.

The \( \text{executeQuery()} \) and \( \text{executeUpdate()} \) methods are similar to the ones defined in the \( \text{Statement} \) interface except that they don’t have any parameters, because the SQL statements are already specified in the \( \text{preparedStatement} \) method when the object of \( \text{PreparedStatement} \) is created.

Using a prepared SQL statement, Listing 34.2 can be improved as in Listing 34.3.

**LISTING 34.3  FindGradeUsingPreparedStatement.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.sql.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class FindGradeUsingPreparedStatement extends JApplet {
    private JTextField jtfSSN = new JTextField(9);
    private JTextField jtfCourseId = new JTextField(5);
    private JButton jbtShowGrade = new JButton("Show Grade");

    // PreparedStatement for executing queries
    private PreparedStatement preparedStatement;

    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        // Initialize database connection and create a Statement object
        initializeDB();

        jbtShowGrade.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                jbtShowGrade_actionPerformed(e);
            }
        });

        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("SSN"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfSSN);
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Course ID"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfCourseId);
        jPanel1.add(jbtShowGrade);
    }

    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jbtShowGrade_actionPerformed(e);
    }
}
```
34.5 PreparedStatement 1237

    add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.NORTH);

private void initializeDB() {
    try {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection(
            "jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

        String queryString = "select firstName, mi, " +
            "lastName, title, grade from Student, Enrollment, Course " +
            "where Student.ssn = ? and Enrollment.courseId = ? " +
            "and Enrollment.courseId = Course.courseId";

        PreparedStatement preparedStatement = connection.prepareStatement(queryString);

        if (rset.next()) {
            String lastName = rset.getString(1);
            String mi = rset.getString(2);
            String firstName = rset.getString(3);
            String title = rset.getString(4);
            String grade = rset.getString(5);

            JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, firstName + " " + mi +
                " " + lastName + "'s grade on course " + title + " is " +
                grade);
        }
    }
}
This example does exactly the same thing as Listing 34.2 except that it uses the prepared statement to dynamically set the parameters. The code in this example is almost the same as in the preceding example. The new code is highlighted.

A prepared query string is defined in lines 50–53 with `ssn` and `courseId` as parameters. An SQL prepared statement is obtained in line 56. Before executing the query, the actual values of `ssn` and `courseId` are set to the parameters in lines 67–68. Line 69 executes the prepared statement.


34.22 What are the benefits of using prepared statements?

### 34.6 CallableStatement

`CallableStatement` enables you to execute SQL stored procedures.

The `CallableStatement` interface is designed to execute SQL-stored procedures. The procedures may have IN, OUT or IN OUT parameters. An IN parameter receives a value passed to the procedure when it is called. An OUT parameter returns a value after the procedure is completed, but it doesn’t contain any value when the procedure is called. An IN OUT parameter contains a value passed to the procedure when it is called, and returns a value after it is completed. For example, the following procedure in Oracle PL/SQL has IN parameter `p1`, OUT parameter `p2`, and IN OUT parameter `p3`.

```sql
CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE sampleProcedure
    (p1 IN VARCHAR, p2 OUT NUMBER, p3 IN OUT INTEGER)
IS

BEGIN
    /* do something */
END sampleProcedure;
/
```

**Note**

The syntax of stored procedures is vendor specific. We use both Oracle and MySQL for demonstrations of stored procedures in this book.

A `CallableStatement` object can be created using the `prepareCall(String call)` method in the `Connection` interface. For example, the following code creates a `CallableStatement` `cstmt` on `Connection connection` for the procedure `sampleProcedure`.

```java
CallableStatement callableStatement = connection.prepareCall("{call sampleProcedure(?,?,?)}");
```

`{call sampleProcedure(?,?,?)}` is referred to as the SQL escape syntax, which signals the driver that the code within it should be handled differently. The driver parses the escape syntax and translates it into code that the database understands. In this example, `sampleProcedure` is an Oracle procedure. The call is translated to the string `begin sampleProcedure(?,?,?); end` and passed to an Oracle database for execution.

You can call procedures as well as functions. The syntax to create an SQL callable statement for a function is:

```sql
{? = call functionName(? , ? , ...)}
```
CallableStatement inherits PreparedStatement. Additionally, the CallableStatement interface provides methods for registering the OUT parameters and for getting values from the OUT parameters.

Before calling an SQL procedure, you need to use appropriate set methods to pass values to IN and IN OUT parameters, and use registerOutParameter to register OUT and IN OUT parameters. For example, before calling procedure sampleProcedure, the following statements pass values to parameters p1 (IN) and p3 (IN OUT) and register parameters p2 (OUT) and p3 (IN OUT):

```java
callableStatement.setString(1, "Dallas"); // Set Dallas to p1
callableStatement.setLong(3, 1); // Set 1 to p3
// Register OUT parameters
callableStatement.registerOutParameter(2, java.sql.Types.DOUBLE);
callableStatement.registerOutParameter(3, java.sql.Types.INTEGER);
```

You can use execute() or executeUpdate() to execute the procedure depending on the type of SQL statement, then use get methods to retrieve values from the OUT parameters. For example, the next statements retrieve the values from parameters p2 and p3.

```java
double d = callableStatement.getDouble(2);int i = callableStatement.getInt(3);
```

Let us define a MySQL function that returns the number of the records in the table that match the specified firstName and lastName in the Student table.

```sql
/* For the callable statement example. Use MySQL version 5 */
drop function if exists studentFound;

delimiter //
create function studentFound(first varchar(20), last varchar(20))
returns int
begin
declare result int;

select count(*) into result
from Student
where Student.firstName = first and
  Student.lastName = last;

return result;
end;
//

delimiter ;
/* Please note that there is a space between delimiter and ; */
```

If you use an Oracle database, the function can be defined as follows:

```sql
create or replace function studentFound
(first varchar2, last varchar2)
returns number is
  numberOfSelectedRows number := 0;
begin
  select count(*) into numberOfSelectedRows
  from Student
```
where Student.firstName = first and
   Student.lastName = last;

   return numberOfSelectedRows;
end studentFound;
/

Suppose the function studentFound is already created in the database. Listing 34.4 gives an example that tests this function using callable statements.

**Listing 34.4 TestCallableStatement.java**

```java
import java.sql.*;

public class TestCallableStatement {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
        Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

        CallableStatement callableStatement = connection.prepareCall(
                "{? = call studentFound(?, ?)}");

        java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(System.in);
        System.out.print("Enter student's first name: ");
        String firstName = input.nextLine();
        System.out.print("Enter student's last name: ");
        String lastName = input.nextLine();

        callableStatement.setString(2, firstName);
        callableStatement.setString(3, lastName);
        callableStatement.registerOutParameter(1, Types.INTEGER);
        callableStatement.execute();

        if (callableStatement.getInt(1) >= 1)
            System.out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + 
                            " is in the database");
        else
            System.out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + 
                            " is not in the database");
    }
}
```

Enter student's first name: Jacob
Enter student's last name: Smith
Jacob Smith is in the database

Enter student's first name: John
Enter student's last name: Smith
John Smith is not in the database
The program loads a MySQL driver (line 6), connects to a MySQL database (lines 7–9), and creates a callable statement for executing the function `studentFound` (lines 15–16).

The function’s first parameter is the return value; its second and third parameters correspond to the first and last names. Before executing the callable statement, the program sets the first name and last name (lines 24–25) and registers the `OUT` parameter (line 26). The statement is executed in line 27.

The function’s return value is obtained in line 29. If the value is greater than or equal to 1, the student with the specified first and last name is found in the table.

34.23 Describe callable statements. How do you create instances of `CallableStatement`? How do you execute a `CallableStatement`? How do you register `OUT` parameters in a `CallableStatement`?

34.7 Retrieving Metadata

The database metadata such as database URL, username, JDBC driver name can be obtained using the `DatabaseMetaData` interface and result set metadata such as table column count and column names can be obtained using the `ResultSetMetaData` interface.

JDBC provides the `DatabaseMetaData` interface for obtaining database-wide information, and the `ResultSetMetaData` interface for obtaining information on the specific `ResultSet`.

34.7.1 Database Metadata

The `Connection` interface establishes a connection to a database. It is within the context of a connection that SQL statements are executed and results are returned. A connection also provides access to database metadata information that describes the capabilities of the database, supported SQL grammar, stored procedures, and so on. To obtain an instance of `DatabaseMetaData` for a database, use the `getMetaData` method on a `Connection` object like this:

```java
DatabaseMetaData dbMetaData = connection.getMetaData();
```

If your program connects to a local MySQL database, the program in Listing 34.5 displays the database information statements shown in Figure 34.24.

**Listing 34.5 TestDatabaseMetaData.java**

```java
import java.sql.*;

public class TestDatabaseMetaData {
    public static void main(String[] args) throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Connect to a database
        Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        DatabaseMetaData dbMetaData = connection.getMetaData();
        System.out.println("database URL: " + dbMetaData.getURL());
        System.out.println("database username: " + dbMetaData.getUser());
        System.out.println("database database name: " + dbMetaData.getDatabaseName());
    }
}
```
18  
19      System.out.println("database product name: " + 
20          dbMetaData.getDatabaseProductName());
21      System.out.println("database product version: " + 
22          dbMetaData.getDatabaseProductVersion());
23      System.out.println("JDBC driver name: " + 
24          dbMetaData.getDriverName());
25      System.out.println("JDBC driver version: " + 
26          dbMetaData.getDriverVersion());
27      System.out.println("JDBC driver major version: " + 
28          dbMetaData.getDriverMajorVersion());
29      System.out.println("JDBC driver minor version: " + 
30          dbMetaData.getDriverMinorVersion());
31      System.out.println("Max number of connections: " + 
32          dbMetaData.getMaxConnections());
33      System.out.println("MaxTableNameLength: " + 
34          dbMetaData.getMaxTableNameLength());
35      System.out.println("MaxColumnsInTable: " + 
36          dbMetaData.getMaxColumnsInTable());
37
38      // Close the connection
39      connection.close();
40  }
41

FIGURE 34.24 The DatabaseMetaData interface enables you to obtain database information.

34.7.2 Obtaining Database Tables

You can identify the tables in the database through database metadata using the getTables method. Listing 34.6 displays all the user tables in the test database on a local MySQL database. Figure 34.25 shows a sample output of the program.

LISTING 34.6 FindUserTables.java

1  import java.sql.*;
2  
3  public class FindUserTables {
4      public static void main(String[] args) 
5        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException 
6        // Load the JDBC driver
7            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
System.out.println("Driver loaded");

// Connect to a database
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
System.out.println("Database connected");

DatabaseMetaData dbMetaData = connection.getMetaData();

ResultSet rsTables = dbMetaData.getTables(null, null, null, new String[] {"TABLE"});
System.out.print("User tables: ");
while (rsTables.next())

    System.out.print(rsTables.getString("TABLE_NAME") + " ");

// Close the connection
close();
}

Listing 34.7 FindUserTables.java

```java
import java.sql.*;

public class TestResultSetMetaData {
    public static void main(String[] args)
        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Connect to a database
        Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        DatabaseMetaData dbMetaData = connection.getMetaData();

        ResultSet rsTables = dbMetaData.getTables(null, null, null, new String[] {"TABLE"});
        System.out.print("User tables: ");
        while (rsTables.next())

            System.out.print(rsTables.getString("TABLE_NAME") + " ");

        // Close the connection
close();
    }
```

Figure 34.25 You can find all the tables in the database.

Line 17 obtains table information in a result set using the getTables method. One of the columns in the result set is TABLE_NAME. Line 21 retrieves the table name from this result set column.

34.7.3 Result Set Metadata

The ResultSetMetaData interface describes information pertaining to the result set. A ResultSetMetaData object can be used to find the types and properties of the columns in a ResultSet. To obtain an instance of ResultSetMetaData, use the getMetaData method on a result set like this:

```
ResultSetMetaData rsMetaData = resultSet.getMetaData();
```

You can use the getColumnCount() method to find the number of columns in the result and the getColumnName(int) method to get the column names. For example, Listing 34.7 displays all the column names and contents resulting from the SQL SELECT statement `select * from Enrollment`. The output is shown in Figure 34.26.

Listing 34.7 TestResultSetMetaData.java

```java
import java.sql.*;

public class TestResultSetMetaData {
    public static void main(String[] args)
        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");
```
// Connect to a database
Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection
("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
System.out.println("Database connected");

// Create a statement
Statement statement = connection.createStatement();

// Execute a statement
ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery
("select * from Enrollment");

ResultSetMetaData rsMetaData = resultSet.getMetaData();
for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
    System.out.printf("%-12s	", rsMetaData.getColumnName(i));
System.out.println();

// Iterate through the result and print the students' names
while (resultSet.next()) {
    for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
        System.out.printf("%-12s	", resultSet.getObject(i));
    System.out.println();
}

// Close the connection
connection.close();

FIGURE 34.26  The ResultSetMetaData interface enables you to obtain result set information.

What is DatabaseMetaData for? Describe the methods in DatabaseMetaData. How do you get an instance of DatabaseMetaData?

What is ResultSetMetaData for? Describe the methods in ResultSetMetaData. How do you get an instance of ResultSetMetaData?

How do you find the number of columns in a result set? How do you find the column names in a result set?

KEY TERMS

database system  1212
domain constraint  1215
foreign key constraint  1215
integrity constraint  1214
primary key constraint  1215
relational database  1215
Structured Query Language (SQL)  1216
CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. This chapter introduced the concepts of database systems, relational databases, relational data models, data integrity, and SQL. You learned how to develop database applications using Java.

2. The Java API for developing Java database applications is called JDBC. JDBC provides Java programmers with a uniform interface for accessing and manipulating a wide range of relational databases.

3. The JDBC API consists of classes and interfaces for establishing connections with databases, sending SQL statements to databases, processing the results of SQL statements, and obtaining database metadata.

4. Since a JDBC driver serves as the interface to facilitate communications between JDBC and a proprietary database, JDBC drivers are database specific. A JDBC-ODBC bridge driver is included in JDK to support Java programs that access databases through ODBC drivers. If you use a driver other than the JDBC-ODBC bridge driver, make sure it is in the classpath before running the program.

5. Four key interfaces are needed to develop any database application using Java: Driver, Connection, Statement, and ResultSet. These interfaces define a framework for generic SQL database access. The JDBC driver vendors provide implementation for them.

6. A JDBC application loads an appropriate driver using the Driver interface, connects to the database using the Connection interface, creates and executes SQL statements using the Statement interface, and processes the result using the ResultSet interface if the statements return results.

7. The PreparedStatement interface is designed to execute dynamic SQL statements with parameters. These SQL statements are precompiled for efficient use when repeatedly executed.

8. Database metadata is information that describes the database itself. JDBC provides the DatabaseMetaData interface for obtaining database-wide information and the ResultSetMetaData interface for obtaining information on the specific ResultSet.

TEST QUESTIONS

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

PROGRAMMING EXERCISES

*34.1 (Access and update a Staff table) Write a Java applet that views, inserts, and updates staff information stored in a database, as shown in Figure 34.27a. The View button displays a record with a specified ID. The Staff table is created as follows:

create table Staff ( id char(9) not null,
34.2 (Visualize data) Write a program that displays the number of students in each department in a pie chart and a bar chart, as shown in Figure 34.27b. The number of students for each department can be obtained from the Student table (see Figure 34.4) using the following SQL statement:

```
select deptId, count(*)
from Student
where deptId is not null
group by deptId;
```

34.3 (Connection dialog) Develop a class named DBConnectionPanel that enables the user to select or enter a JDBC driver and a URL and to enter a username and password, as shown in Figure 34.28. When the OK button is clicked, a Connection object for the database is stored in the connection property. You can then use the getConnection() method to return the connection.

**34.2** (Visualize data) Write a program that displays the number of students in each department in a pie chart and a bar chart, as shown in Figure 34.27b. The number of students for each department can be obtained from the Student table (see Figure 34.4) using the following SQL statement:

```
select deptId, count(*)
from Student
where deptId is not null
group by deptId;
```

*34.3 (Connection dialog) Develop a class named DBConnectionPanel that enables the user to select or enter a JDBC driver and a URL and to enter a username and password, as shown in Figure 34.28. When the OK button is clicked, a Connection object for the database is stored in the connection property. You can then use the getConnection() method to return the connection.
**34.4** *(Find grades)* Listing 34.2, FindGrade.java, presented an applet that finds a student’s grade for a specified course. Rewrite the program to find all the grades for a specified student, as shown in Figure 34.29.

![Figure 34.29](image)

The program displays the grades for the courses for a specified student.

**34.5** *(Display table contents)* Write a program that displays the content for a given table. As shown in Figure 34.30a, you enter a table and click the *Show Contents* button to display the table contents in the text area.

![Figure 34.30](image)

(a) Enter a table name to display the table contents. (b) Select a table name from the combo box to display its contents.

**34.6** *(Find tables and showing their contents)* Write a program that fills in table names in a combo box, as shown in Figure 34.30b. You can select a table from the combo box to display its contents in the text area.

**34.7** *(Populate Quiz table)* Create a table named *Quiz* as follows:

```java
create table Quiz(
    questionId int,
    question varchar(4000),
    choicea varchar(1000),
    choiceb varchar(1000),
    choiced varchar(1000),
    answer varchar(5));
```

The *Quiz* table stores multiple-choice questions. Suppose the multiple-choice questions are stored in a text file accessible from *www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Quiz.txt* in the following format:

```
1. question1
   a. choice a
   b. choice b
```
Write a program that reads the data from the file and populate it into the Quiz table.

*34.8 (Populate Salary table) Create a table named Salary as follows:

```sql
create table Salary(
    firstName varchar(100),
    lastName varchar(100),
    rank varchar(15),
    salary float);
```

Obtain the data for salary from http://cs.armstrong.edu/liang/data/Salary.txt and populate it into the Salary table in the database.

*34.9 (Copy table) Suppose the database contains a student table defined as follows:

```sql
create table Student1 (username varchar(50) not null, password varchar(50) not null, fullname varchar(200) not null, constraint pkStudent primary key (username));
```

Create a new table named Student2 as follows:

```sql
create table Student2 (username varchar(50) not null, password varchar(50) not null, firstname varchar(100), lastname varchar(100), constraint pkStudent primary key (username));
```

A full name is in the form of firstname mi lastname or firstname lastname. For example, John K Smith is a full name. Write a program that copies table Student1 into Student2. Your task is to split a full name into firstname, mi, and lastname for each record in Student1 and store a new record into Student2.

*34.10 (Record unsubmitted exercises) The following three tables store information on students, assigned exercises, and exercise submission in LiveLab. LiveLab is an automatic grading system for grading programming exercises.

```sql
create table AGSStudent (username varchar(50) not null, password varchar(50) not null, fullname varchar(200) not null, instructorEmail varchar(100) not null,
```
constraint pkAGSStudent primary key (username);
);

create table ExerciseAssigned (  
instructorEmail varchar(100),  
exerciseName varchar(100),  
maxscore double default 10,  
constraint pkCustomExercise primary key  
(instructorEmail, exerciseName)
);

create table AGSLog (  
username varchar(50), /* This is the student's user name */  
exerciseName varchar(100), /* This is the exercise assigned */  
score double default null,  
submitted bit default 0,  
constraint pkLog primary key (username, exerciseName)
);

The AGSStudent table stores the student information. The ExerciseAssigned table assigns the exercises by an instructor. The AGSLog table stores the grading results. When a student submits an exercise, a record is stored in the AGSLog table. However, there is no record in AGSLog if a student did not submit the exercise.

Write a program that adds a new record for each student and an assigned exercise to the student in the AGSLog table if a student has not submitted the exercise. The record should have the default values on score and submitted. For example, if the tables contain the following data in AGSLog before you run this program, the AGSLog table now contains the new records after the program runs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGSStudent</th>
<th>ExerciseAssigned</th>
<th>AGSLog after the program runs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>username</td>
<td>password</td>
<td>fullname</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abc</td>
<td>p1</td>
<td>John Roo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cde</td>
<td>p2</td>
<td>Yao Mi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wbc</td>
<td>p3</td>
<td>F3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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CHAPTER 35

Internationalization

Objectives

- To describe Java's internationalization features ($35.1$).
- To construct a locale with language, country, and variant ($35.2$).
- To display date and time based on locale ($35.3$).
- To display numbers, currencies, and percentages based on locale ($35.4$).
- To develop applications for international audiences using resource bundles ($35.5$).
- To specify encoding schemes for text I/O ($35.6$).
35.1 Introduction

Many Web sites maintain several versions of Web pages so that readers can choose one written in a language they understand. Because there are so many languages in the world, it would be highly problematic to create and maintain enough different versions to meet the needs of all clients everywhere. Java comes to the rescue. Java is the first language designed from the ground up to support internationalization. In consequence, it allows your programs to be customized for any number of countries or languages without requiring cumbersome changes in the code.

Here are the major Java features that support internationalization:

- **Unicode**: Java characters use Unicode, a 16-bit encoding scheme established by the Unicode Consortium to support the interchange, processing, and display of written texts in the world’s diverse languages. The use of Unicode encoding makes it easy to write Java programs that can manipulate strings in any international language. (To see all the Unicode characters, visit mindprod.com/jgloss/reuters.html.)

- **Locale class**: Java provides the Locale class to encapsulate information about a specific locale. A Locale object determines how locale-sensitive information, such as date, time, and number, is displayed, and how locale-sensitive operations, such as sorting strings, are performed. The classes for formatting date, time, and numbers, and for sorting strings are grouped in the java.text package.

- **ResourceBundle**: Java uses the ResourceBundle class to separate locale-specific information, such as status messages and GUI component labels, from the program. The information is stored outside the source code and can be accessed and loaded dynamically at runtime from a ResourceBundle, rather than hard-coded into the program.

In this chapter, you will learn how to format dates, numbers, currencies, and percentages for different regions, countries, and languages. You will also learn how to use resource bundles to define which images and strings are used by a component, depending on the user’s locale and preferences.

35.2 The Locale Class

A Locale object represents a geographical, political, or cultural region in which a specific language or custom is used. For example, Americans speak English, and the Chinese speak Chinese. The conventions for formatting dates, numbers, currencies, and percentages may differ from one country to another. The Chinese, for instance, use year/month/day to represent the date, while Americans use month/day/year. It is important to realize that locale is not defined only by country. For example, Canadians speak either Canadian English or Canadian French, depending on which region of Canada they reside in.

**NOTE**

- **locale property in Component**: Every Swing user-interface class has a locale property inherited from the Component class.

To create a Locale object, use one of the three constructors with a specified language and optional country and variant, as shown in Figure 35.1.
java.util.Locale

+Locale(language: String)
+Locale(language: String, country: String)
+Locale(language: String, country: String, variant: String)
+getCountry(): String
+getLanguage(): String
+getVariant(): String
+getDefault(): Locale
+getDisplayCountry(): String
+getDisplayLanguage(): String
+getDisplayName(): String
+getDisplayVariant(): String
+getAvailableLocales(): Locale[]

Constructs a locale from a language code.
Constructs a locale from language and country codes.
Constructs a locale from language, country, and variant codes.
Returns the country/region code for this locale.
Returns the language code for this locale.
Returns the variant code for this locale.
Gets the default locale on the machine.
Returns the name of the country as expressed in the current locale.
Returns the name of the language as expressed in the current locale.
Returns the name for the locale. For example, the name is Chinese (China) for the locale Locale.CHINA.
Returns the name for the locale’s variant if it exists.
Returns the available locales in an array.

Figure 35.1
The Locale class encapsulates a locale.

<margin note: language>
The language should be a valid language code—that is, one of the lowercase two-letter codes defined by ISO-639. For example, zh stands for Chinese, da for Danish, en for English, de for German, and ko for Korean. Table 35.1 lists the language codes.

<margin note: country>
The country should be a valid ISO country code—that is, one of the uppercase, two-letter codes defined by ISO-3166. For example, CA stands for Canada, CN for China, DK for Denmark, DE for Germany, and US for the United States. Table 35.2 lists the country codes.

Table 35.1 Common Language Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>da</td>
<td>Danish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>el</td>
<td>Greek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>es</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fi</td>
<td>Finnish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fr</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ja</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nl</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>Norwegian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pt</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sv</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tr</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zh</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 35.2 Common Country Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Austria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CN</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GB</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GR</td>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HK</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KR</td>
<td>Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>Norway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TR</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TW</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<margin note: variant>
The argument variant is rarely used and is needed only for exceptional or system-dependent situations to designate information specific to a browser or vendor. For example, the Norwegian language has two sets of spelling rules, a
traditional one called bokmål and a new one called nynorsk. The locale for traditional spelling would be created as follows:

```java
new Locale("no", "NO", "B");
```

For convenience, the `Locale` class contains many predefined locale constants. `Locale.CANADA` is for the country Canada and language English; `Locale.CANADA_FRENCH` is for the country Canada and language French. Several other common constants are:

- `Locale.US`
- `Locale.UK`
- `Locale.FRANCE`
- `Locale.GERMANY`
- `Locale.ITALY`
- `Locale.CHINA`
- `Locale.KOREA`
- `Locale.JAPAN`

The `Locale` class also provides the following constants based on language:

- `Locale.CHINESE`
- `Locale.ENGLISH`
- `Locale.FRENCH`
- `Locale.GERMAN`
- `Locale.ITALIAN`
- `Locale.JAPANESE`
- `Locale.KOREAN`
- `Locale.SIMPLIFIED_CHINESE`
- `Locale.TRADITIONAL_CHINESE`

**TIP:**
You can invoke the static method `getAvailableLocales()` in the `Locale` class to obtain all the available locales supported in the system. For example,

```java
Locale[] availableLocales = Calendar.getAvailableLocales();
```

returns all the locales in an array.

**TIP:**
Your machine has a default locale. You may override it by supplying the language and region parameters when you run the program, as follows:

```java
java -Duser.language=zh -Duser.region=CN MainClass
```

An operation that requires a `Locale` to perform its task is called locale sensitive. Displaying a number such as a date or time, for example, is a locale-sensitive operation; the number should be formatted according to the customs and conventions of the user's locale. The sections that follow introduce locale-sensitive operations.

35.3 Displaying Date and Time

Applications often need to obtain date and time. Java provides a system-independent encapsulation of date and time in the `java.util.Date` class; it also provides `java.util.TimeZone` for dealing with time zones, and `java.util.Calendar` for extracting detailed information from `Date`. Different locales have different conventions for displaying date and time. Should the year, month, or day be displayed first? Should slashes, periods, or colons be used to separate fields of the date? What are the names of the months in the language? The `java.text.DateFormat` class can be used to format date and time in a locale-sensitive way for display to the user. The `Date` class was introduced in §8.6.1, "The `Date` Class," and the `Calendar` class and its subclass `GregorianCalendar` were introduced in §15.4, "Case Study: `Calendar` and `GregorianCalendar`."
35.3.1 The TimeZone Class

TimeZone represents a time zone offset and also figures out daylight savings. To get a TimeZone object for a specified time zone ID, use TimeZone.getTimeZone(id). To set a time zone in a Calendar object, use the setTimeZone method with a time zone ID. For example, 
cal.setTimeZone(TimeZone.getTimeZone("CST")) sets the time zone to Central Standard Time. To find all the available time zones supported in Java, use the static method getAvailableIDs() in the TimeZone class. In general, the international time zone ID is a string in the form of continent/city like Europe/Berlin, Asia/Taipei, and America/Washington. You can also use the static method getDefault() in the TimeZone class to obtain the default time zone on the host machine.

35.3.2 The DateFormat Class

The DateFormat class can be used to format date and time in a number of styles. The DateFormat class supports several standard formatting styles. To format date and time, simply create an instance of DateFormat using one of the three static methods getDateInstance, getTimeInstance, and getDateTimeInstance and apply the format(Date) method on the instance, as shown in Figure 35.2.

```java
java.text.DateFormat
+format(date: Date): String
+getDateTimeInstance(): DateFormat
+getDateTimeInstance(dateStyle: int, timeStyle: int): DateFormat
+getDateTimeInstance(dateStyle: int, timeStyle: int, aLocale: Locale): DateFormat
+getInstance(): DateFormat

Formats a date into a date/time string.
Gets the date formatter with the default formatting style for the default locale.
Gets the date formatter with the given formatting style for the default locale.
Gets the date formatter with the given formatting style for the given locale.
Gets a default date and time formatter that uses the SHORT style for both the
date and the time.
```

Figure 35.2

The DateFormat class formats date and time.

The dateStyle and timeStyle are one of the following constants: DateFormat.SHORT, DateFormat.MEDIUM, DateFormat.LONG, DateFormat.FULL. The exact result depends on the locale, but generally,

- **SHORT** is completely numeric, such as 7/24/98 (for date) and 4:49 PM (for time).
- **MEDIUM** is longer, such as 24-Jul-98 (for date) and 4:52:09 PM (for time).
- **LONG** is even longer, such as July 24, 1998 (for date) and 4:53:16 PM EST (for time).
- **FULL** is completely specified, such as Friday, July 24, 1998 (for date) and 4:54:13 o’clock PM EST (for time).

The statements given below display current time with a specified time zone (CST), formatting style (full date and full time), and locale (US).

```java
GregorianCalendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar();
```
DateFormat formatter = DateFormat.getDateTimeInstance(
    DateFormat.FULL, DateFormat.FULL, Locale.US);
TimeZone timeZone = TimeZone.getTimeZone("CST");
formatter.setTimeZone(timeZone);
System.out.println("The local time is " +
    formatter.format(calendar.getTime()));

35.3.3 The SimpleDateFormat Class

The date and time formatting subclass, SimpleDateFormat, enables you to choose
any user-defined pattern for date and time formatting. The constructor shown
below can be used to create a SimpleDateFormat object, and the object can be
used to convert a Date object into a string with the desired format.

    public SimpleDateFormat(String pattern)

The parameter pattern is a string consisting of characters with special
meanings. For example, y means year, M means month, d means day of the month,
G is for era designator, h means hour, m means minute of the hour, s means
second of the minute, and z means time zone. Therefore, the following code
will display a string like "Current time is 1997.11.12 AD at 04:10:18 PST"
because the pattern is "yyyy.MM.dd G 'at' hh:mm:ss z".

    SimpleDateFormat formatter
    = new SimpleDateFormat("yyyy.MM.dd G 'at' hh:mm:ss z");
date currentTime = new Date();
String dateString = formatter.format(currentTime);
System.out.println("Current time is " + dateString);

35.3.4 The DateFormatSymbols Class

The DateFormatSymbols class encapsulates localizable date-time formatting
data, such as the names of the months and the names of the days of the week,
as shown in Figure 35.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>java.text.DateFormatSymbols</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+DateFormatSymbols()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+DateFormatSymbols(Locale locale)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getAmPmStrings(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getEras(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getMonths(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setMonths(newMonths: String[]): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getShortMonths(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setShortMonths(newShortMonths: String[]): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getWeekdays(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setWeekdays(newWeekdays: String[]): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+getShotWeekdays(): String[]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+setShortWeekdays(newWeekdays: String[]): void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Constructs a DateFormatSymbols object for the default locale.
Constructs a DateFormatSymbols object by for the given locale.
Gets AM/PM strings. For example: "AM" and "PM".
Gets era strings. For example: "AD" and "BC".
Gets month strings. For example: "January", "February", etc.
Sets month strings for this locale.
Gets short month strings. For example: "Jan", "Feb", etc.
Sets short month strings for this locale.
Gets weekday strings. For example: "Sunday", "Monday", etc.
Sets weekday strings.
Gets short weekday strings. For example: "Sun", "Mon", etc.
Sets short weekday strings. For example: "Sun", "Mon", etc.

Figure 35.3

The DateFormatSymbols class encapsulates localizable date-time formatting
data.

For example, the following statement displays the month names and weekday
names for the default locale.
DateFormatSymbols symbols = new DateFormatSymbols();
String[] monthNames = symbols.getMonths();
for (int i = 0; i < monthNames.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(monthNames[i]); // Display January, ...
}

String[] weekdayNames = symbols.getWeekdays();
for (int i = 0; i < weekdayNames.length; i++) {
    System.out.println(weekdayNames[i]); // Display Sunday, Monday, ...
}

The following two examples demonstrate how to display date, time, and calendar based on locale. The first example creates a clock and displays date and time in locale-sensitive format. The second example displays several different calendars with the names of the days shown in the appropriate local language.

35.3.5 Example: Displaying an International Clock
Write a program that displays a clock to show the current time based on the specified locale and time zone. The locale and time zone are selected from the combo boxes that contain the available locales and time zones in the system, as shown in Figure 35.4.

![Figure 35.4](image)

The program displays a clock that shows the current time with the specified locale and time zone.

Here are the major steps in the program:
1. Create a subclass of JPanel named WorldClock (Listing 35.1) to contain an instance of the StillClock class (developed in Listing 13.10, StillClock.java), and place it in the center. Create a JLabel to display the digit time, and place it in the south. Use the GregorianCalendar class to obtain the current time for a specific locale and time zone.
2. Create a subclass of JPanel named WorldClockControl (Listing 35.2) to contain an instance of WorldClock and two instances of JComboBox for selecting locales and time zones.
3. Create an applet named WorldClockApp (Listing 35.3) to contain an instance of WorldClockControl and enable the applet to run standalone. The relationship among these classes is shown in Figure 35.5.
Figure 35.5
WorldClockApp contains WorldClockControl, and WorldClockControl contains WorldClock.

Listing 35.1 WorldClock.java
<margin note line 11: create timer>
margin note line 12: create clock>
margin note line 26: timer listener class>

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.util.Calendar;
import java.util.TimeZone;
import java.util.GregorianCalendar;
import java.text.*;

public class WorldClock extends JPanel {
    private TimeZone timeZone = TimeZone.getTimeZone("EST");
    private Timer timer = new Timer(1000, new TimerListener());
    private StillClock clock = new StillClock();
    private JLabel jlblDigitTime = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);

    public WorldClock() {
        setLayout(new BorderLayout());
        add(clock, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(jlblDigitTime, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        timer.start();
    }

    public void setTimeZone(TimeZone timeZone) {
        this.timeZone = timeZone;
    }

    private class TimerListener implements ActionListener {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar(timeZone, getLocale());
            clock.setHour(calendar.get(Calendar.HOUR));
            clock.setMinute(calendar.get(Calendar.MINUTE));
            clock.setSecond(calendar.get(Calendar.SECOND));

            // Display digit time on the label
            DateFormat formatter = DateFormat.getDateTimeInstance
```
Listing 35.2 WorldClockControl.java

import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.util.*;

public class WorldClockControl extends JPanel {

    // Obtain all available locales and time zone ids
    private Locale[] availableLocales = Locale.getAvailableLocales();
    private String[] availableTimeZones = TimeZone.getAvailableIDs();

    // Comboxes to display available locales and time zones
    private JComboBox jcbLocales = new JComboBox();
    private JComboBox jcbTimeZones = new JComboBox();

    // Create a clock
    private WorldClock clock = new WorldClock();

    public WorldClockControl() {
        // Initialize jcbLocales with all available locales
        setAvailableLocales();

        // Initialize jcbTimeZones with all available time zones
        setAvailableTimeZones();

        // Initialize locale and time zone
        clock.setLocale(availableLocales[jcbLocales.getSelectedIndex()]);
        clock.setTimeZone(TimeZone.getTimeZone(availableTimeZones[jcbTimeZones.getSelectedIndex()]);

        JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
        panel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
        panel1.add(new JLabel("Locale"));
        JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
        panel2.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
        panel2.add(jcbLocales, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        panel2.add(jcbTimeZones, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        JPanel panel3 = new JPanel();
        panel3.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
```java
public class WorldClockApp extends JApplet {

    /** Construct the applet */
    public WorldClockApp() {
        add(new WorldClockControl());
    }
}
```

The `WorldClock` class uses `GregorianCalendar` to obtain a `Calendar` object for the specified locale and time zone (line 28). Since `WorldClock` extends `JPanel`, and every GUI component has the `locale` property, the locale for the calendar is obtained from the `WorldClock` using `getLocale()` (line 28).
An instance of *StillClock* is created (line 12) and placed in the panel (line 17). The clock time is updated every one second using the current *Calendar* object in lines 28–35.

An instance of *DateFormat* is created (lines 34–35) and is used to format the date in accordance with the locale (line 37).

The *WorldClockControl* class contains an instance of *WorldClock* and two combo boxes. The combo boxes store all the available locales and time zones (lines 64–77). The newly selected locale and time zone are set in the clock (lines 50–61) and used to display a new time based on the current locale and time zone.

### 35.3.6 Example: Displaying a Calendar

Write a program that displays a calendar based on the specified locale, as shown in Figure 35.6. The user can specify a locale from a combo box that consists of a list of all the available locales supported by the system. When the program starts, the calendar for the current month of the year is displayed. The user can use the Prior and Next buttons to browse the calendar.

**Figure 35.6**

The calendar applet displays a calendar with a specified locale.

Here are the major steps in the program:
1. Create a subclass of *JPanel* named *CalendarPanel* (Listing 35.4) to display the calendar for the given year and month based on the specified locale and time zone.
2. Create an applet named *CalendarApp* (Listing 35.5). Create a panel to hold an instance of *CalendarPanel* and two buttons, Prior and Next. Place the panel in the center of the applet. Create a combo box and place it in the south of the applet. The relationships among these classes are shown in Figure 35.7.
Figure 35.7
CalendarApp contains CalendarPanel.

Listing 35.4 CalendarPanel.java
<margin note line 9: label for header>
<margin note line 12: labels for days>
<margin note line 14: calendar>
<margin note line 15: month>
<margin note line 16: year>
<margin note line 19: panel for days>
<margin note line 23: create labels>
<margin note line 32: place header>
<margin note line 33: place day>
<margin note line 36: get current calendar>
<margin note line 39: update calendar>
<margin note line 42: show header>
<margin note line 43: show days>
<margin note line 47: show header>
<margin note line 51: new header>
<margin note line 57: get day names>
<margin note line 69: empty.jpDays panel>
<margin note line 71: display day names>
<margin note line 82: days before this month>
<margin note line 92: days in this month>
<margin note line 101: days after this month>
<margin note line 108: repaint.jpDays>
<margin note line 113: update calendar>
<margin note line 125: set new month>
<margin note line 138: set new year>
<margin note line 146: set new locale>

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.LineBorder;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.*;

public class CalendarPanel extends JPanel {

    // The header label
    private JLabel jlblHeader = new JLabel(" ", JLabel.CENTER);

    // Maximum number of labels to display day names and days
    private JLabel[] jlblDay = new JLabel[49];

```

```
```java
private java.util.Calendar calendar;
private int month; // The specified month
private int year; // The specified year

// Panel jpDays to hold day names and days
private JPanel jpDays = new JPanel(new GridLayout(0, 7));

public CalendarPanel() {
    // Create labels for displaying days
    for (int i = 0; i < 49; i++) {
        JLabel jlblDay[i] = new JLabel();
        jlblDay[i].setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black, 1));
        jlblDay[i].setHorizontalAlignment(JLabel.RIGHT);
        jlblDay[i].setVerticalAlignment(JLabel.TOP);
    }

    // Place header and calendar body in the panel
    this.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    this.add(jlblHeader, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    this.add(jpDays, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Set current month and year
    calendar = new GregorianCalendar();
    month = calendar.get(Calendar.MONTH);
    year = calendar.get(Calendar.YEAR);
    updateCalendar();

    // Show calendar
    showHeader();
    showDays();
}

/** Update the header based on locale */
private void showHeader() {
    SimpleDateFormat sdf = new SimpleDateFormat("MMMM yyyy", getLocale());
    String header = sdf.format(calendar.getTime());
    jlblHeader.setText(header);
}

/** Update the day names based on locale */
private void showDayNames() {
    DateFormatSymbols dfs = new DateFormatSymbols(getLocale());
    String dayNames[] = dfs.getWeekdays();
    for (int i = 0; i < 7; i++) {
        JLabel jlblDay[i] = jlblDay[i];
        jlblDay[i].setHorizontalAlignment(JLabel.CENTER);
        jpDays.add(jlblDay[i]); // Add to jpDays
    }
}

/** Display days */
public void showDays() {
    jpDays.removeAll(); // Remove all labels from jpDays
```

showDayNames(); // Display day names

// Get the day of the first day in a month
int startingDayOfMonth = calendar.get(Calendar.DAY_OF_WEEK);

// Fill the calendar with the days before this month
Calendar cloneCalendar = (Calendar)calendar.clone();
cloneCalendar.add(Calendar.DATE, -1); // Becomes preceding month
int daysInPrecedingMonth = cloneCalendar.getActualMaximum(
    Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH);

for (int i = 0; i < startingDayOfMonth - 1; i++) {
    jlblDay[i + 7].setForeground(Color.LIGHT_GRAY);
    jlblDay[i + 7].setText(daysInPrecedingMonth -
        startingDayOfMonth + 2 + i + "");
    jpDays.add(jlblDay[i + 7]); // Add to jpDays
}

// Display days of this month
int daysInCurrentMonth = calendar.getActualMaximum(
    Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH);
for (int i = 1; i <= daysInCurrentMonth; i++) {
    jlblDay[i - 2 + startingDayOfMonth + 7].
        setForeground(Color.black);
    jlblDay[i - 2 + startingDayOfMonth + 7].setText(i + "");
    jpDays.add(jlblDay[i - 2 + startingDayOfMonth + 7]);
}

// Fill the calendar with the days after this month
int j = 1;
for (int i = daysInCurrentMonth - 1 + startingDayOfMonth + 7;
    i % 7 != 0; i++) {
    jlblDay[i].setForeground(Color.LIGHT_GRAY);
    jlblDay[i].setText(j++ + "");
    jpDays.add(jlblDay[i]); // Add to jpDays
}
jpDays.repaint(); // Repaint the labels in jpDays

/** Set the calendar to the first day of the
 * specified month and year */
private void updateCalendar() {
    calendar.set(Calendar.YEAR, year);
    calendar.set(Calendar.MONTH, month);
    calendar.set(Calendar.DATE, 1);
}

/** Return month */
public int getMonth() {
    return month;
}

/** Set a new month */
public void setMonth(int newMonth) {
    month = newMonth;
    updateCalendar();
    showHeader();
/** Return year */
public int getYear() {
    return year;
}

/** Set a new year */
public void setYear(int newYear) {
    year = newYear;
    updateCalendar();
    showHeader();
    showDays();
}

/** Set a new locale */
public void changeLocale(Locale newLocale) {
    setLocale(newLocale);
    showHeader();
    showDays();
}

CalendarPanel is created to control and display the calendar. It displays the month and year in the header, and the day names and days in the calendar body. The header and day names are locale sensitive.

The showHeader method (lines 47–52) displays the calendar title in a form like "MMMM yyyy". The SimpleDateFormat class used in the showHeader method is a subclass of DateFormat. SimpleDateFormat allows you to customize the date format to display the date in various nonstandard styles.

The showDayNames method (lines 55–65) displays the day names in the calendar. The DateFormatSymbols class used in the showDayNames method is a class for encapsulating localizable date-time formatting data, such as the names of the months, the names of the days of the week, and the time-zone data. The getWeekdays method is used to get an array of day names.

The showDays method (lines 68–109) displays the days for the specified month of the year. As you can see in Figure 35.6, the labels before the current month are filled with the last few days of the preceding month, and the labels after the current month are filled with the first few days of the next month. To fill the calendar with the days before the current month, a clone of calendar, named cloneCalendar, is created to obtain the days for the preceding month (line 77). cloneCalendar is a copy of calendar with separate memory space. Thus you can change the properties of cloneCalendar without corrupting the calendar object. The clone() method is defined in the Object class, which was introduced in §15.7, "The Cloneable Interface." You can clone any object as long as its defining class implements the Cloneable interface. The Calendar class implements Cloneable.

The cloneCalendar.getActualMaximum(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH) method (lines 90–91) returns the number of days in the month for the specified calendar.

Listing 35.5 CalendarApp.java
```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.util.*;

public class CalendarApp extends JApplet {
    // Create a CalendarPanel for showing calendars
    private CalendarPanel calendarPanel = new CalendarPanel();

    // Combo box for selecting available locales
    private JComboBox jcboLocale = new JComboBox();

    // Declare locales to store available locales
    private Locale locales[] = Calendar.getAvailableLocales();

    // Buttons Prior and Next for displaying prior and next month
    private JButton jbtPrior = new JButton("Prior");
    private JButton jbtNext = new JButton("Next");

    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        // Panel jpLocale to hold the combo box for selecting locales
        JPanel jpLocale = new JPanel(new FlowLayout());
        jpLocale.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Choose a locale"));
        jpLocale.add(jcboLocale);

        // Initialize the combo box to add locale names
        for (int i = 0; i < locales.length; i++)
            jcboLocale.addItem(locales[i].getDisplayName());

        // Panel jpButtons to hold buttons
        JPanel jpButtons = new JPanel(new FlowLayout());
        jpButtons.add(jbtPrior);
        jpButtons.add(jbtNext);

        // Panel jpCalendar to hold calendarPanel and buttons
        JPanel jpCalendar = new JPanel(new BorderLayout());
        jpCalendar.add(calendarPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        jpCalendar.add(jpButtons, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

        // Place jpCalendar and jpLocale to the applet
        add(jpCalendar, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(jpLocale, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

        // Register listeners
        jcboLocale.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                // Implement event handling logic here
            }
        });
    }
}
```
```java
if (e.getSource() == jcboLocale)
    calendarPanel.changeLocale(
        locales[jcboLocale.getSelectedIndex()]));

btPrior.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        int currentMonth = calendarPanel.getMonth();
        if (currentMonth == 0) // The previous month is 11 for Dec
            calendarPanel.setYear(calendarPanel.getYear() - 1);
            calendarPanel.setMonth((currentMonth - 1) % 12);
    }});

btNext.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        int currentMonth = calendarPanel.getMonth();
        if (currentMonth == 11) // The next month is 0 for Jan
            calendarPanel.setYear(calendarPanel.getYear() + 1);
            calendarPanel.setMonth((currentMonth + 1) % 12);
    }});

CalendarApp creates the user interface and handles the button actions and
combo box item selections for locales. The Calendar.getAvailableLocales() method (line 15) is used to find all the available locales that have
calendars. Its getDisplayName() method returns the name of each locale and
adds the name to the combo box (line 30). When the user selects a locale name
in the combo box, a new locale is passed to calendarPanel, and a new calendar
is displayed based on the new locale (lines 72-73).

35.4 Formatting Numbers
Formatting numbers is highly locale dependent. For example, number 5000.555 is
displayed as 5,000.555 in the United States, but as 5 000,555 in France and as
5.000,555 in Germany.

Numbers are formatted using the java.text.NumberFormat class, an abstract base
class that provides the methods for formatting and parsing numbers, as shown
in Figure 35.8.
```
The `NumberFormat` class provides the methods for formatting and parsing numbers.

With `NumberFormat`, you can format and parse numbers for any locale. Your code will be completely independent of locale conventions for decimal points, thousands-separators, currency format, and percentage formats.

### 35.4.1 Plain Number Format

You can get an instance of `NumberFormat` for the current locale using `NumberFormat.getInstance()` or `NumberFormat.getNumberInstance()` and for the specified locale using `NumberFormat.getInstance(Locale)` or `NumberFormat.getNumberInstance(Locale)`. You can then invoke `format(number)` on the `NumberFormat` instance to return a formatted number as a string.

For example, to display number 5000.555 in France, use the following code:

```java
NumberFormat numberFormat = NumberFormat.getInstance(Locale.FRANCE);
System.out.println(numberFormat.format(5000.555));
```
You can control the display of numbers with such methods as `setMaximumFractionDigits` and `setMinimumFractionDigits`. For example, 5000.555 will be displayed as 5000.6 if you use `numberFormat.setMaximumFractionDigits(1).

35.4.2 Currency Format
To format a number as a currency value, use `NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance()` to get the currency number format for the current locale or `NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale)` to get the currency number for the specified locale.

For example, to display number `5000.555` as currency in the United States, use the following code:

```java
NumberFormat currencyFormat =
   NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.US);
System.out.println(currencyFormat.format(5000.555));
```
5000.555 is formatted into $5,000,56. If the locale is set to France, the number will be formatted into 5 000,56 €.

35.4.3 Percent Format
To format a number in a percent, use `NumberFormat.getPercentInstance()` or `NumberFormat.getPercentInstance(Locale)` to get the percent number format for the current locale or the specified locale.

For example, to display number 0.555367 as a percent in the United States, use the following code:

```java
NumberFormat percentFormat =
   NumberFormat.getPercentInstance(Locale.US);
System.out.println(percentFormat.format(0.555367));
```
0.555367 is formatted into 56%. By default, the format truncates the fraction part in a percent number. If you want to keep three digits after the decimal point, use `percentFormat.setMinimumFractionDigits(3)`. So 0.555367 would be displayed as 55.537%.

35.4.4 Parsing Numbers
You can format a number into a string using the `format(numericalValue)` method. You can also use the `parse(String)` method to convert a formatted plain number, currency value, or percent number with the conventions of a certain locale into an instance of `java.lang.Number`. The `parse` method throws a `java.text.ParseException` if parsing fails. For example, U.S. $5,000.56 can be parsed into a number using the following statements:

```java
NumberFormat currencyFormat =
   NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(Locale.US);
   try {
      Number number = currencyFormat.parse("$5,000.56");
      System.out.println(number.doubleValue());
   } catch (java.text.ParseException ex) {
      System.out.println("Parse failed");
   }
```

35.4.5 The DecimalFormat Class
If you want even more control over the format or parsing, cast the `NumberFormat` you get from the factory methods to a `java.text.DecimalFormat`, which is a subclass of `NumberFormat`. You can then use the `applyPattern(String pattern)` method of the `DecimalFormat` class to specify the patterns for displaying the number.

A pattern can specify the minimum number of digits before the decimal point and the maximum number of digits after the decimal point. The characters '0' and '#' are used to specify a required digit and an optional digit, respectively. The optional digit is not displayed if it is zero. For example, the pattern "00.0##" indicates minimum two digits before the decimal point and maximum three digits after the decimal point. If there are more actual digits before the decimal point, all of them are displayed. If there are more than three digits after the decimal point, the number of digits is rounded.

Applying the pattern "00.0##", number 111.2226 is formatted to 111.223, number 1111.2226 to 1111.223, number 1.22 to 01.22, and number 1 to 01.0. Here is the code:

```java
NumberFormat numberFormat = NumberFormat.getInstance(Locale.US);
DecimalFormat decimalFormat = (DecimalFormat)numberFormat;
decimalFormat.applyPattern("00.0##");
System.out.println(decimalFormat.format(111.2226));
System.out.println(decimalFormat.format(1111.2226));
System.out.println(decimalFormat.format(1.22));
System.out.println(decimalFormat.format(1));
```

The character '%' can be put at the end of a pattern to indicate that a number is formatted as a percentage. This causes the number to be multiplied by 100 and appends a percent sign '%'.

35.4.5 Example: Formatting Numbers

Create a loan calculator for computing loans. The calculator allows the user to choose locales, and displays numbers in accordance with locale-sensitive format. As shown in Figure 35.9, the user enters interest rate, number of years, and loan amount, then clicks the Compute button to display the interest rate in percentage format, the number of years in normal number format, and the loan amount, total payment, and monthly payment in currency format. Listing 35.6 gives the solution to the problem.

![Loan Calculator Screenshot]

**Figure 35.9**
The locale determines the format of the numbers displayed in the loan calculator.

**Listing 35.6 NumberFormatDemo.java**

<margin note line 10: UI components>
```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.NumberFormat;

public class NumberFormatDemo extends JApplet {

    // Combo box for selecting available locales
    private JComboBox jcboLocale = new JComboBox();

    // Text fields for interest rate, year, and loan amount
    private JTextField jtfInterestRate = new JTextField("6.75");
    private JTextField jtfNumberOfYears = new JTextField("15");
    private JTextField jtfLoanAmount = new JTextField("107000");
    private JTextField jtfFormattedInterestRate = new JTextField(10);
    private JTextField jtfFormattedNumberOfYears = new JTextField(10);
    private JTextField jtfFormattedLoanAmount = new JTextField(10);

    // Text fields for monthly payment and total payment
    private JTextField jtfTotalPayment = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfMonthlyPayment = new JTextField();

    // Compute button
    private JButton jbtCompute = new JButton("Compute");

    // Current locale
    private Locale locale = Locale.getDefault();

    // Declare locales to store available locales
    private Locale locales[] = Calendar.getAvailableLocales();

    /** Initialize the combo box */
    public void initializeComboBox() {
        // Add locale names to the combo box
        for (int i = 0; i < locales.length; i++)
            jcboLocale.addItem(locales[i].getDisplayName());
    }

    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        // Panel p1 to hold the combo box for selecting locales
        JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
        p1.setLayout(new FlowLayout());
        p1.add(jcboLocale);
        initializeComboBox();
        p1.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Choose a Locale"));

        // Panel p2 to hold the input
        JPanel p2 = new JPanel();
    }
}
```
p2.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 3));
p2.add(new JLabel("Interest Rate"));
p2.add(jtfInterestRate);
p2.add(new JLabel("Number of Years"));
p2.add(jtfNumberOfYears);
p2.add(new JLabel("Loan Amount"));
p2.add(jtfLoanAmount);
p2.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Enter Annual Interest Rate, " + "Number of Years, and Loan Amount"));

// Panel p3 to hold the result
JPanel p3 = new JPanel();
p3.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
p3.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Payment"));
p3.add(new JLabel("Monthly Payment"));
p3.add(jtfMonthlyPayment);
p3.add(new JLabel("Total Payment"));
p3.add(jtfTotalPayment);

// Set text field alignment
jtfFormattedInterestRate.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
jtfFormattedNumberOfYears.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
jtfFormattedLoanAmount.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
jtfTotalPayment.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
jtfMonthlyPayment.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);

// Set editable false
jtfFormattedInterestRate.setEditable(false);
jtfFormattedNumberOfYears.setEditable(false);
jtfFormattedLoanAmount.setEditable(false);
jtfTotalPayment.setEditable(false);
jtfMonthlyPayment.setEditable(false);

// Panel p4 to hold result payments and a button
JPanel p4 = new JPanel();
p4.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
p4.add(p3, BorderLayout.CENTER);
p4.add(jbtCompute, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Place panels to the applet
add(p1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(p2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(p4, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listeners
jcboLocale.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        locale = locales[jcboLocale.getSelectedIndex()];
        computeLoan();
    }
});

jbtCompute.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        locale = locales[jcboLocale.getSelectedIndex()];
        computeLoan();
    }
});
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    computeLoan();
}

/** Compute payments and display results locale-sensitive format */
private void computeLoan() {
    // Retrieve input from user
    double loan = new Double(jtfLoanAmount.getText()).doubleValue();
    double interestRate = new Double(jtfInterestRate.getText()).doubleValue() / 1200;
    int numberOfYears = new Integer(jtfNumberOfYears.getText()).intValue();

    // Calculate payments
    double monthlyPayment = loan * interestRate / (1 - (Math.pow(1 / (1 + interestRate), numberOfYears * 12)));
    double totalPayment = monthlyPayment * numberOfYears * 12;

    // Get formatters
    NumberFormat percentFormatter = NumberFormat.getPercentInstance(locale);
    NumberFormat currencyForm = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(locale);
    NumberFormat numberForm = NumberFormat.getNumberInstance(locale);
    percentFormatter.setMinimumFractionDigits(2);

    // Display formatted input
    jtfFormattedInterestRate.setText(percentFormatter.format(interestRate * 12));
    jtfFormattedNumberOfYears.setText(numberForm.format(numberOfYears));
    jtfFormattedLoanAmount.setText(currencyForm.format(loan));

    // Display results in currency format
    jtfMonthlyPayment.setText(currencyForm.format(monthlyPayment));
    jtfTotalPayment.setText(currencyForm.format(totalPayment));
}

The **computeLoan** method (lines 114-145) gets the input on interest rate, number of years, and loan amount from the user, computes monthly payment and total payment, and displays annual interest rate in percentage format, number of years in normal number format, and loan amount, monthly payment, and total payment in locale-sensitive format.

The statement `percentFormatter.setMinimumFractionDigits(2)` (line 133) sets the minimum number of fractional parts to 2. Without this statement, 0.075 would be displayed as 7% rather than 7.5%.

35.5 Resource Bundles
The **NumberFormatDemo** in the preceding example displays the numbers, currencies, and percentages in local customs, but displays all the message strings, titles, and button labels in English. In this section, you will learn how to use resource bundles to localize message strings, titles, button labels, and so on.
A resource bundle is a Java class file or text file that provides locale-specific information. This information can be accessed by Java programs dynamically. When a locale-specific resource is needed—a message string, for example—your program can load it from the resource bundle appropriate for the desired locale. In this way, you can write program code that is largely independent of the user's locale, isolating most, if not all, of the locale-specific information in resource bundles.

With resource bundles, you can write programs that separate the locale-sensitive part of your code from the locale-independent part. The programs can easily handle multiple locales, and can easily be modified later to support even more locales.

The resources are placed inside the classes that extend the ResourceBundle class or a subclass of ResourceBundle. Resource bundles contain key/value pairs. Each key uniquely identifies a locale-specific object in the bundle. You can use the key to retrieve the object. ListResourceBundle is a convenient subclass of ResourceBundle that is often used to simplify the creation of resource bundles. Here is an example of a resource bundle that contains four keys using ListResourceBundle:

```java
// MyResource.java: resource file
public class MyResource extends java.util.ListResourceBundle {
    static final Object[][] contents = {
        {"nationalFlag", "us.gif"},
        {"nationalAnthem", "us.au"},
        {"nationalColor", Color.red},
        {"annualGrowthRate", new Double(7.8)}
    };

    public Object[][] getContents() {
        return contents;
    }
}
```

Keys are case-sensitive strings. In this example, the keys are nationalFlag, nationalAnthem, nationalColor, and annualGrowthRate. The values can be any type of Object.

If all the resources are strings, they can be placed in a convenient text file with the extension .properties. A typical property file would look like this:

```
#Wed Jul 01 07:23:24 EST 1998
nationalFlag=us.gif
nationalAnthem=us.au
```

To retrieve values from a ResourceBundle in a program, you first need to create an instance of ResourceBundle using one of the following two static methods:

```java
public static final ResourceBundle getBundle(String baseName)
    throws MissingResourceException

public static final ResourceBundle getBundle
    (String baseName, Locale locale) throws MissingResourceException
```
The first method returns a `ResourceBundle` for the default locale, and the second method returns a `ResourceBundle` for the specified locale. `baseName` is the base name for a set of classes, each of which describes the information for a given locale. These classes are named in Table 35.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 35.3: Resource Bundle Naming Conventions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. BaseName_language_country_variant.class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. BaseName_language_country.class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. BaseName_language.class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. BaseName.class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. BaseName_language_country_variant.properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. BaseName_language_country.properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. BaseName_language.properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. BaseName.properties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, MyResource_en_BR.class stores resources specific to the United Kingdom, MyResource_en_US.class stores resources specific to the United States, and MyResource_en.class stores resources specific to all the English-speaking countries.

The `getBundle` method attempts to load the class that matches the specified locale by language, country, and variant by searching the file names in the order shown in Table 35.3. The files searched in this order form a resource chain. If no file is found in the resource chain, the `getBundle` method raises a `MissingResourceException`, a subclass of `RuntimeException`.

Once a resource bundle object is created, you can use the `getObject` method to retrieve the value according to the key. For example,

```java
ResourceBundle res = ResourceBundle.getBundle("MyResource");
String flagFile = (String)res.getObject("nationalFlag");
String anthemFile = (String)res.getObject("nationalAnthem");
Color color = (Color)res.getObject("nationalColor");
double growthRate = (Double)res.getObject('annualGrowthRate');
```

**TIP**

If the resource value is a string, the convenient `getString` method can be used to replace the `getObject` method. The `getString` method simply casts the value returned by `getObject` to a string.

What happens if a resource object you are looking for is not defined in the resource bundle? Java employs an intelligent look-up scheme that searches the object in the parent file along the resource chain. This search is repeated until the object is found or all the parent files in the resource chain have been searched. A `MissingResourceException` is raised if the search is unsuccessful.

Let us modify the `NumberFormatDemo` program in the preceding example so that it displays messages, title, and button labels in multiple languages, as shown in Figure 35.10.
The program displays the strings in multiple languages.

You need to provide a resource bundle for each language. Suppose the program supports three languages: English (default), Chinese, and French. The resource bundle for the English language, named MyResource.properties, is given as follows:

```
#MyResource.properties for English language
Number_Of_Years=Years
Total_Payment=French Total\ Payment
Enter_Interest_Rate=Enter\ Interest\ Rate,\ Years,\ and\ Loan\ Amount
Payment=Payment
Compute=Compute
Annual_Interest_Rate=Interest\ Rate
Number_Formatting=Number\ Formatting\ Demo
Loan_Amount=Loan\ Amount
Choose_a_Locale=Choose\ a\ Locale
Monthly_Payment=Monthly\ Payment
```

The resource bundle for the Chinese language, named MyResource_zh.properties, is given as follows:

```
#MyResource_zh.properties for Chinese language
Choose_a_Locale     = 選擇國家
Enter_Interest_Rate =輸入利率,年限,貸款總額
Annual_Interest_Rate  =  利率
Number_Of_Years     =  年限
Loan_Amount         =  貸款額度
Payment             =  付
Monthly_Payment     =  月付
Total_Payment       =  總額
Compute             =  計算貸款利
```

The resource bundle for the French language, named MyResource_fr.properties, is given as follows:

```
#MyResource_fr.properties for French language
Number_Of_Years=annees
Annual_Interest_Rate=le taux d'interet
Loan_Amount=Le montant du pret
Enter_Interest_Rate=inscrire le taux d'interet, les annees, et le montant du pret
Payment=paiement
Compute=Calculer l'hypothque
```
The resource-bundle file should be placed in the class directory (e.g., c:\book for the examples in this book). The program is given in Listing 35.7.

```java
public class ResourceBundleDemo extends JApplet {
    public void paint(Graphics g) { // override the paint method
        // Add code to draw the applet here.
    }

    public void init() { // override the init method
        // Add code to initialize the applet here.
    }

    private ResourceBundle res = ResourceBundle.getBundle("MyResource");

    private JComboBox jcboLocale = new JComboBox();
    private JLabel jlblInterestRate = new JLabel(res.getString("Annual_Interest_Rate"));
    private JLabel jlblNumberOfYears = new JLabel(res.getString("Number_Of_Years"));
    private JLabel jlblLoanAmount = new JLabel(res.getString("Loan_Amount"));
    private JLabel jlblMonthlyPayment = new JLabel(res.getString("Monthly_Payment"));
    private JLabel jlblTotalPayment = new JLabel(res.getString("Total_Payment"));

    private TitledBorder comboBoxTitle = new TitledBorder(res.getString("Choose_a_Locale"));
    private TitledBorder inputTitle = new TitledBorder(res.getString("Enter_Interest_Rate"));
    private TitledBorder paymentTitle = new TitledBorder(res.getString("Payment"));

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create the applet
        JApplet applet = new ResourceBundleDemo();
        applet.init();
        applet.addWindowListener(new WindowAdapter() {
            public void windowClosing(WindowEvent e) {
                System.out.println("Applet closed");
            }
        });
        // Add the applet to the frame
        JFrame frame = new JFrame("ResourceBundleDemo");
        frame.add(applet);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }

    // Text fields for interest rate, year, loan amount,
    private JTextField jtfInterestRate = new JTextField("6.75");
    private JTextField jtfNumberOfYears = new JTextField("15");
    private JTextField jtfLoanAmount = new JTextField("107000");
    private JTextField jtfFormattedInterestRate = new JTextField(10);
    private JTextField jtfFormattedNumberOfYears = new JTextField(10);
    private JTextField jtfFormattedLoanAmount = new JTextField(10);

    // Event handlers for the combo box and text fields
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent event) {
        // Handle the action event here
    }
}
```

private JTextField jtfTotalPayment = new JTextField();
private JTextField jtfMonthlyPayment = new JTextField();

private JButton jbtCompute = new JButton(res.getString("Compute"));

private Locale locale = Locale.getDefault();
private Locale locales[] = Calendar.getAvailableLocales();

/** Initialize the combo box */
public void initializeComboBox() {
    // Add locale names to the combo box
    for (int i = 0; i < locales.length; i++)
        jcboLocale.addItem(locales[i].getDisplayName());
}

/** Initialize the applet */
public void init() {
    // Panel p1 to hold the combo box for selecting locales
    JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
    p1.setLayout(new FlowLayout());
    p1.add(jcboLocale);
    initializeComboBox();
    p1.setBorder(comboBoxTitle);

    // Panel p2 to hold the input for annual interest rate,
    // number of years and loan amount
    JPanel p2 = new JPanel();
    p2.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 3));
    p2.add(jlblInterestRate);
    p2.add(jtfInterestRate);
    p2.add(jtfFormattedInterestRate);
    p2.add(jlblNumberOfYears);
    p2.add(jtfNumberOfYears);
    p2.add(jtfFormattedNumberOfYears);
    p2.add(jlblLoanAmount);
    p2.add(jtfLoanAmount);
    p2.add(jtfFormattedLoanAmount);
    p2.setBorder(inputTitle);

    // Panel p3 to hold the payment
    JPanel p3 = new JPanel();
    p3.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
    p3.setBorder(paymentTitle);
    p3.add(jlblMonthlyPayment);
    p3.add(jtfMonthlyPayment);
    p3.add(jlblTotalPayment);
    p3.add(jtfTotalPayment);

    // Set text field alignment
    jtfFormattedInterestRate.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
    jtfFormattedNumberOfYears.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
    jtfFormattedLoanAmount.setHorizontalAlignment(JTextField.RIGHT);
import java.text.NumberFormat;
import java.util.Locale;

public class LoanCalculator {

    private void computeLoan() {
        // Retrieve input from user
        double loan = new Double(jtfLoanAmount.getText()).doubleValue();
        double interestRate = new Double(jtfInterestRate.getText()).doubleValue() / 1200;
        int numberOfYears = new Integer(jtfNumberOfYears.getText()).intValue();

        // Calculate payments
        double monthlyPayment = loan * interestRate / (1 - (Math.pow(1 / (1 + interestRate), numberOfYears * 12)));
        double totalPayment = monthlyPayment * numberOfYears * 12;

        // Get formatters
        NumberFormat percentFormatter = NumberFormat.getPercentInstance(locale);
        NumberFormat currencyFormatter = NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(locale);

        // Display results
        jtfMonthlyPayment.setText(currencyFormatter.format(monthlyPayment));
        jtfTotalPayment.setText(currencyFormatter.format(totalPayment));
    }

    private void updateStrings() {
        // Update strings based on selected locale
    }

    // Additional methods and GUI setup code...
}
NumberFormat.getCurrencyInstance(locale);
NumberFormat numberForm = NumberFormat.getNumberInstance(locale);
percentFormatter.setMinimumFractionDigits(2);

// Display formatted input
jtfFormattedInterestRate.setText(percentFormatter.format(interestRate * 12));
jtfFormattedNumberOfYears.setText(numberForm.format(numberOfYears));
jtfFormattedLoanAmount.setText(currencyForm.format(loan));

// Display results in currency format
jtfMonthlyPayment.setText(currencyForm.format(monthlyPayment));
jtfTotalPayment.setText(currencyForm.format(totalPayment));

/** Update resource strings */
private void updateStrings() {
    res = ResourceBundle.getBundle("MyResource", locale);
    jlblInterestRate.setText(res.getString("Annual_Interest_Rate"));
    jlblNumberOfYears.setText(res.getString("Number_Of_Years"));
    jlblLoanAmount.setText(res.getString("Loan_Amount"));
    jlblTotalPayment.setText(res.getString("Total_Payment"));
    jlblMonthlyPayment.setText(res.getString("Monthly_Payment"));
    jbtCompute.setText(res.getString("Compute"));
    comboBoxTitle.setTitle(res.getString("Choose_a_Locale"));
    inputTitle.setTitle(res.getString("Enter_Interest_Rate"));
    paymentTitle.setTitle(res.getString("Payment"));
    repaint();
}

/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // Create an instance of the applet
    ResourceBundleDemo applet = new ResourceBundleDemo();
    // Create a frame with a resource string
    JFrame frame = new JFrame(
        applet.res.getString("Number_Formatting"));
    // Add the applet instance to the frame
    frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    // Invoke init() and start()
    applet.init();
    applet.start();
    // Display the frame
    frame.setSize(400, 300);
    frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}
Property resource bundles are implemented as text files with a .properties extension, and are placed in the same location as the class files for the application or applet. **ListResourceBundles** are provided as Java class files. Because they are implemented using Java source code, new and modified **ListResourceBundles** need to be recompiled for deployment. With **PropertyResourceBundles**, there is no need for recompilation when translations are modified or added to the application. Nevertheless, **ListResourceBundles** provide considerably better performance than **PropertyResourceBundles**. If the resource bundle is not found or a resource object is not found in the resource bundle, a **MissingResourceException** is raised. Since **MissingResourceException** is a subclass of **RuntimeException**, you do not need to catch the exception explicitly in the code.

This example is the same as Listing 35.6, NumberFormatDemo.java, except that the program contains the code for handling resource strings. The **updateString** method (lines 172–186) is responsible for displaying the locale-sensitive strings. This method is invoked when a new locale is selected in the combo box. Since the variable **res** of the **ResourceBundle** class is an instance variable in **ResourceBundleDemo**, it cannot be directly used in the **main** method, because the **main** method is static. To fix the problem, create **applet** as an instance of **ResourceBundleDemo**, and you will then be able to reference **res** using **applet.res**.

### 35.6 Character Encoding

Java programs use Unicode. When you read a character using text I/O, the Unicode code of the character is returned. The encoding of the character in the file may be different from the Unicode encoding. Java automatically converts it to the Unicode. When you write a character using text I/O, Java automatically converts the Unicode of the character to the encoding specified for the file. This is pictured in Figure 35.11.

![Figure 35.11](http://download.oracle.com/javase/1.5.0/docs/guide/intl/encoding.doc.html and mindprod.com/jgloss/encoding.html). For example, you may use the encoding name **GB18030** for simplified Chinese characters, **Big5** for traditional Chinese.
characters, \texttt{Cp939} for Japanese characters, \texttt{Cp933} for Korean characters, and \texttt{Cp838} for Thai characters.

The following code in Listing 35.8 creates a file using the GB18030 encoding (line 8). You have to read the text using the same encoding (line 12). The output is shown in Figure 35.12a.

\begin{verbatim}
Listing 35.8 EncodingDemo.java
<margin note line 8: specify encoding>
<margin note line 12: specify encoding>

1 import java.util.*;
2 import java.io.*;
3 import javax.swing.*;
4
5 public class EncodingDemo {
6  public static void main(String[] args)
7    throws IOException, FileNotFoundException {
8      PrintWriter output = new PrintWriter("temp.txt", "GB18030");
9      output.print("\u6b22\u8fce Welcome \u03b1\u03b2\u03b3");
10     output.close();
11
12     Scanner input = new Scanner(new File("temp.txt"), "GB18030");
13     JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, input.nextLine());
14   }
15 }
\end{verbatim}

(a) Using GB18030 encoding          (b) Using default encoding

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure35.12.png}
\caption{You can specify an encoding scheme for a text file.}
\end{figure}

If you don’t specify an encoding in lines 8 and 12, the system’s default encoding scheme is used. The US default encoding is ASCII. ASCII code uses 8 bits. Java uses the 16-bit Unicode. If a Unicode is not an ASCII code, the character ‘?’ is written to the file. Thus, when you write \texttt{\u6B22} to an ASCII file, the ‘?’ character is written to the file. When you read it back, you will see the ‘?’ character, as shown in Figure 35.12b.

To find out the default encoding on your system, use

<margin note line 8: get default encoding>
\begin{verbatim}
System.out.println(System.getProperty("file.encoding"));
\end{verbatim}

The default encoding name is \texttt{Cp1252} on Windows, which is a variation of ASCII.

Key Terms
\begin{itemize}
  \item locale 7
  \item resource bundle
  \item file encoding scheme
\end{itemize}
Chapter Summary

1. Java is the first language designed from the ground up to support internationalization. In consequence, it allows your programs to be customized for any number of countries or languages without requiring cumbersome changes in the code.

2. Java characters use Unicode in the program. The use of Unicode encoding makes it easy to write Java programs that can manipulate strings in any international language.

3. Java provides the Locale class to encapsulate information about a specific locale. A Locale object determines how locale-sensitive information, such as date, time, and number, is displayed, and how locale-sensitive operations, such as sorting strings, are performed. The classes for formatting date, time, and numbers, and for sorting strings are grouped in the java.text package.

4. Different locales have different conventions for displaying date and time. The java.text.DateFormat class and its subclasses can be used to format date and time in a locale-sensitive way for display to the user.

5. To format a number for the default or a specified locale, use one of the factory class methods in the NumberFormat class to get a formatter. Use getInstance or getNumberInstance to get the normal number format. Use getCurrencyInstance to get the currency number format. Use getPercentInstance to get a format for displaying percentages.

6. Java uses the ResourceBundle class to separate locale-specific information, such as status messages and GUI component labels, from the program. The information is stored outside the source code and can be accessed and loaded dynamically at runtime from a ResourceBundle, rather than hard-coded into the program.

7. You can specify an encoding for a text file when constructing a PrintWriter or a Scanner.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 35.1-35.2
35.1
How does Java support international characters in languages like Chinese and Arabic?
35.2
How do you construct a Locale object? How do you get all the available locales from a Calendar object?
35.3
How do you set a locale for the French-speaking region of Canada in a Swing JButton? How do you set a locale for the Netherlands in a Swing JLabel?

Section 35.3
35.4
How do you set the time zone "PST" for a Calendar object?
35.5
How do you display current date and time in German?
35.6
How do you use the SimpleDateFormat class to display date and time using the pattern "yyyy.MM.dd hh:mm:ss"?
In line 73 of WorldClockControl.java, `Arrays.sort(availableTimeZones)` is used to sort the available time zones. What happens if you attempt to sort the available locales using `Arrays.sort(availableLocales)`?

**Section 35.4**

35.8 Write the code to format number 12345.678 in the United Kingdom locale. Keep two digits after the decimal point.

35.9 Write the code to format number 12345.678 in U.S. currency.

35.10 Write the code to format number 0.345678 as percentage with at least three digits after the decimal point.

35.11 Write the code to parse 3,456.78 into a number.

35.12 Write the code that uses the `DecimalFormat` class to format number 12345.678 using the pattern "0.0000#".

**Section 35.5**

35.13 How does the `getBundle` method locate a resource bundle?

35.14 How does the `getObject` method locate a resource?

**Section 35.6**

35.15 How do you specify an encoding scheme for a text file?

35.16 What would happen if you wrote a Unicode character to an ASCII text file?

35.17 How do you find the default encoding name on your system?

**Programming Exercises**

**Sections 35.1-35.2**

35.1* *(Unicode viewer)* Develop an applet that displays Unicode characters, as shown in Figure 35.13. The user specifies a Unicode in the text field and presses the Enter key to display a sequence of Unicode characters starting with the specified Unicode. The Unicode characters are displayed in a scrollable text area of 20 lines. Each line contains 16 characters preceded by the Unicode that is the code for the first character on the line.

Figure 35.13

The applet displays the Unicode characters.
(Display date and time) Write a program that displays the current date and time as shown in Figure 35.14. The program enables the user to select a locale, time zone, date style, and time style from the combo boxes.

![Figure 35.14](image1.png)
The program displays the current date and time.

Section 35.3

35.3

(Place the calendar and clock in a panel) Write an applet that displays the current date in a calendar and current time in a clock, as shown in Figure 35.15. Enable the applet to run standalone.

![Figure 35.15](image2.png)
The calendar and clock display the current date and time.

35.4

(Find the available locales and time zone IDs) Write two programs to display the available locales and time zone IDs using buttons, as shown in Figure 35.16.

![Figure 35.16](image3.png)
The program displays available locales and time zones using buttons.

Section 35.4

35.5*

(Compute loan amortization schedule) Rewrite Exercise 4.22 using an applet, as shown in Figure 35.17. The applet allows the user to set the loan amount, loan period, and interest rate, and displays the corresponding interest, principal, and balance in the currency format.
35.6 (Convert dollars to other currencies) Write a program that converts U.S. dollars to Canadian dollars, German marks, and British pounds, as shown in Figure 35.18. The user enters the U.S. dollar amount and the conversion rate, and clicks the Convert button to display the converted amount.

Figure 35.18
The program converts U.S. dollars to Canadian dollars, German marks, and British pounds.

35.7 (Compute loan payments) Rewrite Listing 2.8, ComputeLoan.java, to display the monthly payment and total payment in currency.

35.8 (Use the DecimalFormat class) Rewrite Exercise 5.8 to display at most two digits after the decimal point for the temperature using the DecimalFormat class.

Section 35.5
35.9* (Use resource bundle) Modify the example for displaying a calendar in §35.3.6, "Example: Displaying a Calendar," to localize the labels "Choose a locale" and "Calendar Demo" in French, German, Chinese, or a language of your choice.

35.10** (Flag and anthem) Rewrite Listing 18.13, ImageAudioAnimation.java, to use the resource bundle to retrieve image and audio files.
(Hint: When a new country is selected, set an appropriate locale for it. Have your program look for the flag and audio file from the resource file for the locale.)

Section 35.6
35.11**
(Specify file encodings) Write a program named Exercise35_11Writer that writes 1307 x 16 Chinese Unicode characters starting from \u0E00 to a file named Exercise35_11.gb using the GBK encoding scheme. Output 16 characters per line and separate the characters with spaces. Write a program named Exercise35_11Reader that reads all the characters from a file using a specified encoding. Figure 35.19 displays the file using the GBK encoding scheme.

Figure 35.19
The program displays the file using the specified encoding scheme.
CHAPTER 36

JavaBeans

Objectives

- To describe what a JavaBeans component is (§36.2).
- To explain the similarities and differences between beans and regular objects (§36.2).
- To develop JavaBeans components that follow the naming patterns (§36.3).
- To review the Java event delegation model (§36.4).
- To create custom event classes and listener interfaces (§36.5).
- To develop source components using event sets from the Java API or custom event sets (§36.6).
36.1 Introduction
Every Java user interface class is a JavaBeans component. Understanding JavaBeans will help you to learn GUI components. In Chapter 16, “Event-Driven Programming,” you learned how to handle events fired from source components such as JButton, JTextField, JRadioButton, and JComboBox. In this chapter, you will learn how to create custom events and develop your own source components that can fire events. By developing your own events and source components, you will gain a better understanding of the Java event model and GUI components.

36.2 JavaBeans
JavaBeans is a software component architecture that extends the power of the Java language by enabling well-formed objects to be manipulated visually at design time in a pure Java builder tool, such as NetBeans and Eclipse. Such well-formed objects are referred to as JavaBeans or simply beans. The classes that define the beans, referred to as JavaBeans components or bean components, conform to the JavaBeans component model with the following requirements:

- A bean must be a public class.
- A bean must have a public no-arg constructor, though it can have other constructors if needed. For example, a bean named MyBean must either have a constructor with the signature

  ```java
  public MyBean();
  ```

  or have no constructor if its superclass has a no-arg constructor.
- A bean must implement the java.io.Serializable interface to ensure a persistent state.
- A bean usually has properties with correctly constructed public accessor (get) methods and mutator (set) methods that enable the properties to be seen and updated visually by a builder tool.
- A bean may have events with correctly constructed public registration and deregistration methods that enable it to add and remove listeners. If the bean plays a role as the source of events, it must provide registration methods for registering listeners. For example, you can register a listener for ActionEvent using the addActionListener method of a JButton bean.

The first three requirements must be observed, and therefore are referred to as minimum JavaBeans component requirements. The last two requirements depend on implementations. It is possible to write a bean component without get/set methods and event registration/deregistration methods.

A JavaBeans component is a special kind of Java class. The relationship between JavaBeans components and Java classes is illustrated in Figure 36.1.
Figure 36.1
A JavaBeans component is a serializable public class with a public no-arg constructor.

Every GUI class is a JavaBeans component, because
(1) it is a public class,
(2) it has a public no-arg constructor, and
(3) It is an extension of java.awt.Component, which implements java.io.Serializable.

36.3 Bean Properties
Properties are discrete, named attributes of a Java bean that can affect its appearance or behavior. They are often data fields of a bean. For example, the JButton component has a property named text that represents the text to be displayed on the button. Private data fields are often used to hide specific implementations from the user and prevent the user from accidentally corrupting the properties. Accessor and mutator methods are provided instead to let the user read and write the properties.

36.3.1 Property-Naming Patterns
The bean property-naming pattern is a convention of the JavaBeans component model that simplifies the bean developer's task of presenting properties. A property can be a primitive data type or an object type. The property type dictates the signature of the accessor and mutator methods.

In general, the accessor method is named get<PropertyName>(), which takes no parameters and returns a primitive type value or an object of a type identical to the property type. For example,

```
public String getMessage()
public int getXCoordinate()
public int getYCoordinate()
```

For a property of boolean type, the accessor method should be named is<PropertyName>(), which returns a boolean value. For example,

```
public boolean isCentered()
```

The mutator method should be named set<PropertyName>(dataType p), which takes a single parameter identical to the property type and returns void. For example,

```
public void setProperty(String propertyName)
```

public void setMessage(String s)
public void setXCoordinate(int x)
public void setYCoordinate(int y)
public void setCentered(boolean centered)

NOTE
You may have multiple get and set methods, but there must be one get or set method with a signature conforming to the naming patterns.

36.3.2 Properties and Data Fields
Properties describe the state of the bean. Naturally, data fields are used to store properties. However, a bean property is not necessarily a data field. For example, in the MessagePanel class in Listing 15.7, MessagePanel.java, you may create a new property named messageLength that represents the number of characters in message. The get method for the property may be defined as follows:

```java
public int getMessageLength() {
    return message.length();
}
```

NOTE
A property may be read-only with a get method but no set method, or write-only with a set method but no get method.

36.4 Java Event Model Review
A bean may communicate with other beans. The Java event delegation model provides the foundation for beans to send, receive, and handle events. Let us review the Java event model that was introduced in Chapter 16, “Event-Driven Programming.” The Java event model consists of the following three types of elements, as shown in Figure 16.3:

- The event object
- The source object
- The event listener object

An event is a signal to the program that something has happened. It can be triggered by external user actions, such as mouse movements, mouse button clicks, and keystrokes, or by the operating system, such as a timer. An event object contains the information that describes the event. A source object is where the event originates. When an event occurs on a source object, an event object is created. An object interested in the event handles the event. Such an object is called a listener. Not all objects can handle events. To become a listener, an object must be registered as a listener by the source object. The source object maintains a list of listeners and notifies all the registered listeners by invoking the event-handling method implemented on the listener object. The handlers are defined in event listener interface. Each event class has a corresponding event listener interface. The Java event model is referred to as a delegation-based model, because the source object delegates the event to the listeners for processing.
36.4.1 Event Classes and Event Listener Interfaces

An event object is created using an event class, such as `ActionEvent`, `MouseEvent`, and `ItemEvent`, as shown in Figure 16.2. All the event classes extend `java.util.EventObject`. The event class contains whatever data values and methods are pertinent to the particular event type. For example, the `KeyEvent` class describes the data values related to a key event and contains the methods, such as `getKeyChar()`, for retrieving the key associated with the event.

Every event class is associated with an event listener interface that defines one or more methods referred to as handlers. An event listener interface is a subinterface of `java.util.EventListener`. The handlers are implemented by the listener components. The source component invokes the listeners' handlers when an event is detected.

Since an event class and its listener interface are coexistent, they are often referred to as an event set or event pair. The event listener interface must be named as `XListener` for the `XEvent`. For example, the listener interface for `ActionEvent` is `ActionListener`. The parameter list of a handler always consists of an argument of the event class type. Table 16.2 lists some commonly used events and their listener interfaces. Figure 36.2 shows the pair of `ActionEvent` and `ActionListener`.

![Diagram of event classes and listener interfaces](image)

**Figure 36.2**

`ActionEvent` and `ActionListener` are examples of an event pair.

36.4.2 Source Components

The component on which an event is generated is referred to as an event source. Every Java GUI component is an event source for one or more events. For example, `JButton` is an event source for `ActionEvent`. A `JButton` object fires a `java.awt.event.ActionEvent` when it is clicked. ` JComboBox` is an event source for `ActionEvent` and `ItemEvent`. A ` JComboBox` object fires a `java.awt.event.ActionEvent` and a `java.awt.event.ItemEvent` when a new item is selected in the combo box.

The source component contains the code that detects an external or internal action that triggers the event. Upon detecting the action, the source should fire an event to the listeners by invoking the event handler defined by the listeners. The source component must also contain methods for registering and deregistering listeners, as shown in Figure 36.3.
The source component detects events and processes them by invoking the event listeners' handlers.

36.4.3 Listener Components

A listener component for an event must implement the event listener interface. The object of the listener component cannot receive event notifications from a source component unless the object is registered as a listener of the source.

A listener component may implement any number of listener interfaces to listen to several types of events. A source component may register many listeners. A source component may register itself as a listener.

Listing 36.1 gives an example that creates a source object (line 8) and a listener object (line 14), and registers the listener with the source object (line 17). Figure 36.4 highlights the relationship between the source and the listener. The listener is registered with the source by invoking the addActionListener method. Once the button is clicked, an ActionEvent is generated by the source. The source object then notifies the listener by invoking the listener’s actionPerformed method.

Listing 36.1 TestSourceListener.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class TestSourceListener {
  public static void main(String[] args) {
    JFrame frame = new JFrame("TestSourceListener");
    // Create a source object
    JButton jbt = new JButton("OK");
    frame.add(jbt);
    frame.setSize(200, 200);
    frame.setVisible(true);
    // Create a listener
    MyListener listener = new MyListener();
    // Register a listener
    jbt.addActionListener(listener);
  }
}
```
/** MyListener class */

class MyListener implements ActionListener {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        System.out.println("I will process it!");
    }
}

36.5 Creating Custom Source Components

You have used source components such as JButton. This section demonstrates how to create a custom source component.

A source component must have the appropriate registration and deregistration methods for adding and removing listeners. Events can be unicasted (only one listener object is notified of the event) or multicasted (each object in a list of listeners is notified of the event). The naming pattern for adding a unicast listener is

```
public void addEventListener(<Event>Listener l)
    throws TooManyListenersException;
```

The naming pattern for adding a multicast listener is the same, except that it does not throw the TooManyListenersException.

The naming pattern for removing a listener (either unicast or multicast) is:
public void removeEventListener(EventListener l)

A source component contains the code that creates an event object and passes it to invoke the handler of the listeners. You may use a standard Java event class like `ActionEvent` to create event objects or may define your own event classes if necessary.

The `Course` class in Section 10.8, "Case Study: Designing the `Course` Class," models the courses. Suppose a `Course` object fires an `ActionEvent` when the number of students for the course exceeds a certain enrollment cap. The new class named `CourseWithActionEvent` is shown in Figure 36.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CourseWithActionEvent</th>
<th>The name of the course.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>courseName: String</td>
<td>The students who take the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students: ArrayList&lt;String&gt;</td>
<td>The maximum enrollment (default: 10).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enrollmentCap: int</td>
<td>* CourseWithActionEvent()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* CourseWithActionEvent(courseName: String)</td>
<td>Creates a default course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* CourseWithActionEvent(courseName: String)</td>
<td>Creates a course with the specified name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* getCourseName(): String</td>
<td>Returns the course name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* getStudents(): ArrayList&lt;String&gt;</td>
<td>Returns the students for the course as an array.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* getNumberOfStudents(): int</td>
<td>Returns the number of students for the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* getEnrollmentCap(): int</td>
<td>Sets a new enrollment cap.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* setEnrollmentCap(enrollmentCap: int): void</td>
<td>Adds a new enrollment cap.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 36.5**

The new `CourseWithActionEvent` class can fire an `ActionEvent`.

The source component is responsible for registering listeners, creating events, and notifying listeners by invoking the methods defined in the listeners' interfaces. The `CourseWithActionEvent` component is capable of registering multiple listeners, generating `ActionEvent` objects when the enrollment exceeds the cap, and notifying the listeners by invoking the listeners' `actionPerformed` method. Listing 36.2 implements the new class.

**Listing 36.2 CourseWithActionEvent.java**

```
1 import java.util.*;
2 import java.awt.event.*;
3
```
public class CourseWithActionEvent {
    private String courseName = "default name";
    private ArrayList<String> students = new ArrayList<String>();
    private int enrollmentCap = 10;
    private ArrayList<ActionListener> actionListenerList;

    public CourseWithActionEvent() {
    }

    public CourseWithActionEvent(String courseName) {
        this.courseName = courseName;
    }

    public String getCourseName() {
        return courseName;
    }

    public void addStudent(String student) {
        if (students.size() >= enrollmentCap) // Fire ActionEvent
            processEvent(new ActionEvent(this, ActionEvent.ACTION_PERFORMED, null));
        else
            students.add(student);
    }

    public ArrayList<String> getStudents() {
        return students;
    }

    public int getNumberOfStudents() {
        return students.size();
    }

    public int getEnrollmentCap() {
        return enrollmentCap;
    }

    public void setEnrollmentCap(int enrollmentCap) {
        this.enrollmentCap = enrollmentCap;
    }

    /** Register an action event listener */
    public synchronized void addActionListener (ActionListener listener) {
        if (actionListenerList == null) {
            actionListenerList = new ArrayList<ActionListener>(2);
        }
        if (!actionListenerList.contains(listener)) {
            actionListenerList.add(listener);
        }
    }

    /** Remove an action event listener */
    public synchronized void removeActionListener (ActionListener listener) {
        if (actionListenerList != null && actionListenerList.contains(listener)) {
            actionListenerList.remove(listener);
        }
    }
}
private void processEvent(ActionEvent e) {
    ArrayList<ActionListener> list;
    synchronized (this) {
        if (actionListenerList == null) return;
        list = (ArrayList<ActionListener>)actionListenerList.clone();
    }
    for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++) {
        ActionListener listener = (ActionListener)list.get(i);
        listener.actionPerformed(e);
    }
}

Since the source component is designed for multiple listeners, a java.util.ArrayList instance actionListenerList is used to hold all the listeners for the source component (line 8). The data type of the elements in the array list is ActionListener. To add a listener, listener, to actionListenerList, use

    actionListenerList.add(listener); (line 53)

To remove a listener, listener, from actionListenerList, use

    actionListenerList.remove(listener); (line 62)

The if statement (lines 52–53) ensures that the addActionListener method does not add the listener twice if it is already in the list. The removeActionListener method removes a listener if it is in the list. actionListenerList is an instance of ArrayList, which functions as a flexible array that can grow or shrink dynamically. Initially, actionListenerList is of size 2, but the capacity can be changed dynamically. If more than two listeners are added to actionListenerList, the list size will be automatically increased.

NOTE
<margin note: storing listeners>
Instead of using ArrayList, you can also use javax.swing.EventKit.EventListenerList to store listeners. Using EventListenerList is preferred, since it provides the support for synchronization and is efficient in the case of no listeners.

The addActionListener and removeActionListener methods are synchronized to prevent data corruption on actionListenerList when attempting to register multiple listeners concurrently (lines 46, 58).

The addStudent method (lines 21-27) checks whether the number of students is more than the enrollment cap. If so, it creates an ActionEvent and invokes the processEvent method to process the event (lines 23–24). If not, add a new student to the course (line 26).

The UML diagram for ActionEvent is shown in Figure 36.2. To create an ActionEvent, use the constructor

10
ActionEvent(Object source, int id, String command)

where source specifies the source component, id identifies the event, and command specifies a command associated with the event. Use ActionEvent.ACTION_PERFORMED for the id. If you don’t want to associate a command with the event, use null.

The processEvent method (lines 67–79) is invoked when an ActionEvent is generated. This notifies the listeners in actionListenerList by calling each listener's actionPerformed method to process the event. It is possible that a new listener may be added or an existing listener may be removed when processEvent is running. To avoid corruption on actionListenerList, a clone list of actionListenerList is created for use to notify listeners. To avoid corruption when creating the clone, invoke it in a synchronized block, as in lines 70–73:

```
synchronized (this) {
    if (actionListenerList == null) return;
    list = (ArrayList)actionListenerList.clone();
}
```

Listing 36.3 gives a test program that creates a course using the new class (line 5), sets the enrollment cap to 2 (line 8), registers a listener (line 9), and adds three students to the course (lines 11-13). When line 13 is executed, the addStudent method adds student Tim to the course and fires an ActionEvent because the course exceeds the enrollment cap. The course object invokes the listener’s actionPerformed method to process the event and displays a message Enrollment cap exceeded.

```
Listing 36.3 TestCourseWithActionEvent.java
<margin note line 5: create course>
<margin note line 8: set enrollmentCap>
<margin note line 9: create listener>
<margin note line 10: register listener>
<margin note line 11: add students>

1 import java.awt.event.*;
2
3 public class TestCourseWithActionEvent {
4     CourseWithActionEvent course =
5         new CourseWithActionEvent("Java Programming");
6
7     public TestCourseWithActionEvent() {
8         course.setEnrollmentCap(2);
9         ActionListener listener = new Listener();
10         course.addActionListener(listener);
11         course.addStudent("John");
12         course.addStudent("Jim");
13         course.addStudent("Tim");
14     }
15
16     public static void main(String[] args) {
17         new TestCourseWithActionEvent();
18     }
19
20     private class Listener implements ActionListener {
21         @Override
22```
```java
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    System.out.println("Enrollment cap exceeded");
}
```

The flow of event processing from the source to the listener is shown in Figure 36.6.

---

**Figure 36.6**
The listener is registered with the source course, and the source invokes the listener's handler `actionPerformed` to process the event.

### 36.6 Creating Custom Event Sets

The Java API provides many event sets. You have used the event set `ActionEvent/ActionListener` in the preceding section. A course object fires an `ActionEvent` when the enrollment cap is exceeded. It is convenient to use the existing event sets in the Java API, but they are not always adequate. Sometimes you need to define custom event classes in order to obtain information not available in the existing API event classes. For example, suppose you want to know the enrollment cap and the number of students in the course; an `ActionEvent` object does not provide such information. You have to define your own event class and event listener interface.

A custom event class must extend `java.util.EventObject` or a subclass of `java.util.EventObject`. Additionally, it may provide constructors to create events, data members, and methods to describe events.

A custom event listener interface must extend `java.util.EventListener` or a subinterface of `java.util.EventListener` and define the signature of the handlers for the event. By convention, the listener interface should be named `XListener` for the corresponding event class named `XEvent`. For example, `ActionListener` is the listener interface for `ActionEvent`. 
Let us define `EnrollmentEvent` as the event class for describing the enrollment event and its corresponding listener interface `EnrollmentListener` for defining an `enrollmentExceeded` handler, as shown in Figure 36.7. The `getStudentToEnroll()` method returns the student who attempts to enroll the course.

```java
public class EnrollmentEvent extends java.util.EventObject {
    private String studentToEnroll;
    private int enrollmentCap;

    public EnrollmentEvent(Object source, String studentToEnroll, int enrollmentCap) {
        super(source);
        this.studentToEnroll = studentToEnroll;
        this.enrollmentCap = enrollmentCap;
    }

    public String getStudentToEnroll() {
        return studentToEnroll;
    }

    public long getEnrollmentCap() {
        return enrollmentCap;
    }
}
```

```java
public interface EnrollmentListener extends java.util.EventListener {
    public void enrollmentExceeded(EnrollmentEvent e);
}
```

Figure 36.7

`EnrollmentEvent` and `EnrollmentListener` comprise an event set for enrollment event.

The source code for the enrollment event set is given in Listings 36.4 and 36.5.

Listing 36.4 EnrollmentEvent.java

```java
public class EnrollmentEvent extends java.util.EventObject {
    private String studentToEnroll;
    private int enrollmentCap;

    public EnrollmentEvent(Object source, String studentToEnroll, int enrollmentCap) {
        super(source);
        this.studentToEnroll = studentToEnroll;
        this.enrollmentCap = enrollmentCap;
    }

    public String getStudentToEnroll() {
        return studentToEnroll;
    }

    public long getEnrollmentCap() {
        return enrollmentCap;
    }
}
```

Listing 36.5 EnrollmentListener.java

```java
public interface EnrollmentListener extends java.util.EventListener {
    public void enrollmentExceeded(EnrollmentEvent e);
}
```
An event class is an extension of EventObject. To construct an event, the constructor of EventObject must be invoked by passing a source object as the argument. In the constructor for EnrollmentEvent, super(source) (line 8) invokes the superclass’s constructor with the source object as the argument. EnrollmentEvent contains the information pertaining to the event, such as number of students and enrollment cap.

EnrollmentListener simply extendsEventListener and defines the enrollmentExceeded method for handling enrollment events.

NOTE
<margin note: specifying a source for an event>
An event class does not have a no-arg constructor, because you must always specify a source for the event when creating an event.

Let us revise CourseWithActionEvent in Listing 36.2 to use EnrollmentEvent/EnrollmentListener instead of ActionEvent/ActionListener. The new class named CourseWithEnrollmentEvent in Listing 36.6 is very similar to CourseWithActionEvent in Listing 36.2.

Listing 36.6 CourseWithEnrollmentEvent.java
<margin note line 5: store students>
<margin note line 6: enrollmentCap>
<margin note line 8: store listeners>
<margin note line 10: no-arg constructor>
<margin note line 13: constructor>
<margin note line 22: create event>
<margin note line 45: register listener>
<margin note line 57: remove listener>
<margin note line 66: process event>

1 import java.util.*;
2 public class CourseWithEnrollmentEvent {
3    private String courseName = "default name";
4    private ArrayList<String> students = new ArrayList<String>();
5    private int enrollmentCap = 10;
6    private ArrayList<EnrollmentListener> enrollmentListenerList;
7
8    public CourseWithEnrollmentEvent() {
9    }
10
11    public CourseWithEnrollmentEvent(String courseName) {
12        this.courseName = courseName;
13    }
14
15    public String getCourseName() {
16        return courseName;
17    }
18
19    public void addStudent(String student) {
20        if (students.size() == enrollmentCap) // Fire EnrollmentEvent
21            processEvent(new EnrollmentEvent(this,
22                student, enrollmentCap));
23        else
24            students.add(student);
public ArrayList<String> getStudents() {
    return students;
}

public int getNumberOfStudents() {
    return students.size();
}

public int getEnrollmentCap() {
    return enrollmentCap;
}

public void setEnrollmentCap(int enrollmentCap) {
    this.enrollmentCap = enrollmentCap;
}

/** Register an action event listener */
public synchronized void addEnrollmentListener(EnrollmentListener listener) {
    if (enrollmentListenerList == null) {
        enrollmentListenerList = new ArrayList<EnrollmentListener>(2);
    }
    if (!enrollmentListenerList.contains(listener)) {
        enrollmentListenerList.add(listener);
    }
}

/** Remove an action event listener */
public synchronized void removeEnrollmentListener(EnrollmentListener listener) {
    if (enrollmentListenerList != null && enrollmentListenerList.contains(listener)) {
        enrollmentListenerList.remove(listener);
    }
}

/** Fire EnrollmentEvent */
private void processEvent(EnrollmentEvent e) {
    ArrayList<EnrollmentListener> list;
    synchronized (this) {
        if (enrollmentListenerList == null) return;
        list = (ArrayList<EnrollmentListener>) enrollmentListenerList.clone();
    }
    for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++) {
        EnrollmentListener listener = (EnrollmentListener)list.get(i);
        listener.enrollmentExceeded(e);
    }
}

Line 8 creates a java.util.ArrayList instance enrollmentListenerList for holding all the listeners for the source component. The data type of the elements in the array list is EnrollmentListener. The
registration and deregistration methods for EnrollmentListener are defined in lines 45, 57.

The addStudent method checks whether the number of students is more than the enrollment cap. If so, it creates an EnrollmentEvent and invokes the processEvent method to process the event (lines 22–23). If not, add a new student to the course (line 25).

To create an EnrollmentEvent, use the constructor

   EnrollmentEvent(Object source, String studentToEnroll, int enrollmentCap)

where source specifies the source component.

The processEvent method (lines 66–78) is invoked when an EnrollmentEvent is generated. This notifies the listeners in enrollmentListenerList by calling each listener's enrollmentExceeded method to process the event.

Let us revise the test program in Listing 36.3 to use EnrollmentEvent/EnrollmentListener instead of ActionEvent/ActionListener. The new program, given in Listing 36.7, creates a course using CourseWithEnrollmentEvent (line 3), sets the enrollment cap to 2 (line 6), creates an enrollment listener (line 7), registers it (line 8), and adds three students to the course (lines 9–11). When line 11 is executed, the addStudent method adds student Tim to the course and fires an EnrollmentEvent because the course exceeds the enrollment cap. The course object invokes the listener’s enrollmentExceeded method to process the event and displays the number of students in the course and the enrollment cap.

Listing 36.7 TestCourseWithEnrollmentEvent.java

   public class TestCourseWithEnrollmentEvent {
     CourseWithEnrollmentEvent course =
         new CourseWithEnrollmentEvent("Java Programming");

     public TestCourseWithEnrollmentEvent() {
       course.setEnrollmentCap(2);
       EnrollmentListener listener = new NewListener();
       course.addEnrollmentListener(listener);
       course.addStudent("John Smith");
       course.addStudent("Jim Peterson");
       course.addStudent("Tim Johnson");
     }

     public static void main(String[] args) {
       new TestCourseWithEnrollmentEvent();
     }
   }

   private class NewListener implements EnrollmentListener {
     public void enrollmentExceeded(EnrollmentEvent e) {
       System.out.println(e.getStudentToEnroll() + " attempted to enroll. The enrollment cap is " + e.getEnrollmentCap());
     }
   }
Tim Johnson attempted to enroll
The enrollment cap is 2

The flow of event processing from the source to the listener is shown in Figure 36.8.

**Figure 36.8**
The listener is registered with the source course, and the source invokes the listener’s handler enrollmentExceeded to process the event.

**TIP**
*margin note: ActionEvent*
Using the `ActionEvent/ActionListener` event set is sufficient in most cases. Normally, the information about the event can be obtained from the source. For example, the number of students in the course and the enrollment can all be obtained from a course object. The source can be obtained by invoking `e.getSource()` for any event `e`.

**NOTE**
*margin note: inheriting features*
The `EnrollmentEvent` component is created from scratch. If you build a new component that extends a component capable of generating events, the new component inherits the ability to generate the same type of events. For example, since `JButton` is a subclass of `java.awt.Component` that can fire `MouseEvent`, `JButton` can also detect and generate mouse events. You don’t need to
write the code to generate these events and register listeners for them, since the code is already given in the superclass. However, you still need to write the code to make your component capable of firing events not supported in the superclass.

Key Terms

- event set
- JavaBeans component
- JavaBeans events
- JavaBeans properties

Chapter Summary

1. JavaBeans is a software component architecture that extends the power of the Java language for building reusable software components. JavaBeans properties describe the state of the bean. Naturally, data fields are used to store properties. However, a bean property is not necessarily a data field.

2. A source component must have the appropriate registration and deregistration methods for adding and removing listeners. Events can be unicasted (only one listener object is notified of the event) or multicasted (each object in a list of listeners is notified of the event).

3. An event object is created using an event class, such as `ActionEvent`, `MouseEvent`, and `ItemEvent`. All event classes extend `java.util.EventObject`. Every event class is associated with an event listener interface that defines one or more methods referred to as handlers. An event listener interface is a subinterface of `java.util.EventListener`. Since an event class and its listener interface are coexistent, they are often referred to as an event set or event pair.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

Review Questions

**Sections 36.1-36.4**

36.1 What is a JavaBeans component? Is every GUI class a JavaBeans component? Is every GUI user interface component a JavaBeans component? Is it true that a JavaBeans component must be a GUI user interface component?

36.2 Describe the naming conventions for accessor and mutator methods in a JavaBeans component.

36.3 Describe the naming conventions for JavaBeans registration and deregistration methods.

36.4 What is an event pair? How do you define an event class? How do you define an event listener interface?

Programming Exercises

**Sections 36.1-36.6**

36.1*
(Enable MessagePanel to fire ActionEvent) The MessagePanel class in Listing 15.7 is a subclass of JPanel; it can fire a MouseEvent, KeyEvent, and ComponentEvent, but not an ActionEvent. Modify the MessagePanel class so that it can fire an ActionEvent when an instance of the MessagePanel class is clicked. Name the new class MessagePanelWithActionEvent. Test it with a Java applet that displays the current time in a message panel whenever the message panel is clicked, as shown in Figure 36.9.

![Figure 36.9](image)
The current time is displayed whenever you click on the message panel.

36.2*

(Create custom event sets and source components) Develop a project that meets the following requirements:

- Create a source component named MemoryWatch for monitoring memory. The component generates a MemoryEvent when the free memory space exceeds a specified highLimit or is below a specified lowLimit. The highLimit and lowLimit are customizable properties in MemoryWatch.
- Create an event set named MemoryEvent and MemoryListener. The MemoryEvent simply extends java.util.EventObject and contains two methods, `freeMemory` and `totalMemory`, which return the free memory and total memory of the system. The MemoryListener interface contains two handlers, `sufficientMemory` and `insufficientMemory`. The `sufficientMemory` method is invoked when the free memory space exceeds the specified high limit, and `insufficientMemory` is invoked when the free memory space is less than the specified low limit. The free memory and total memory in the system can be obtained using

```java
Runtime runtime = Runtime.getRuntime();
runtime.freeMemory();
runtime.totalMemory();
```

- Develop a listener component that displays free memory, total memory, and whether the memory is sufficient or insufficient when a MemoryEvent occurs. Make the listener an applet with a `main` method to run standalone.

36.3**

(The Hurricane source component) Create a class named Hurricane with properties name and category and its accessor methods. The Hurricane component generates an ActionEvent whenever its category property is changed. Write a listener that displays the hurricane category. If the category is 2 or greater, a message “Hurricane Warning!!!” is displayed, as shown in Figure 36.10.

![Figure 36.10](image)
Whenever the hurricane category is changed, an appropriate message is displayed in the message panel.

36.4**
(The Clock source component) Create a JavaBeans component for displaying an analog clock. This bean allows the user to customize a clock through the properties, as shown in Figure 36.11. Write a test program that displays four clocks, as shown in Figure 36.12.

```
import java.util.Date;
import java.util.TimeZone;
import java.awt.Color;
import java.awt.HeadlessException;
import java.awt.event.ActionEvent;
import javax.swing.Timer;

public class Clock {
    // Data style for the digital date and time string.
    public int dateStyle;

    // Color of the digital date and time string.
    public Color digitalDateTimeColor;

    // Clock header string.
    public String header;

    // Color of the clock header string.
    public Color headerColor;

    // Color of the hour hand.
    public Color hourHandColor;

    // Color of the minute hand.
    public Color minuteHandColor;

    // True if the clock is running.
    public boolean running;

    // True if the second hand is running.
    public boolean secondHandColor;

    // Color of the second hand.
    public Color secondHandColor;

    // True if the digital date and time string is displayed.
    public boolean showingDigitalDateTime;

    // True if the clock header is displayed.
    public boolean showingHeader;

    // Time style for the digital date and time string.
    public int timeStyle;

    // A string for the time zone ID.
    public String timeZoneID;

    // Time zone offset.
    public int timeZoneOffset;

    // An instance of the TimeZone class.
    public TimeZone timeZone;

    // True if time zone id is used.
    public boolean usingTimeZoneID;

    // Constructs a clock with the default time zone.
    public Clock()
    {
        timeZone = TimeZone.getDefault();
        timeZoneOffset = timeZone.getRawOffset();
        timeStyle = DateSTYLE.SHORT;
        showingDigitalDateTime = true;
    }

    // Constructs a clock with the specified time zone.
    public Clock(String timeZoneID)
    {
        TimeZone timeZone = TimeZone.getTimeZone(timeZoneID);
        timeZoneOffset = timeZone.getRawOffset();
        timeStyle = DateSTYLE.SHORT;
        showingDigitalDateTime = true;
    }

    // Starts the clock.
    public void start()
    {
        new Timer(1000, new ActionListener()
        {
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e)
            {
                String dt = new SimpleDateFormat(timeStyle).format(new Date());
                String fullHeader = header + timeZoneID + timeZoneOffset;
                repaint();
            }
        }).start();
    }

    // Stops the clock.
    public void stop()
    {
        repaint();
    }
}
```

Figure 36.11
The Clock component displays an analog clock.

Figure 36.12
The program displays six clocks using the Clock component.

36.5*
(Create ClockWithAlarm from Clock) Create an alarm clock, named ClockWithAlarm, which extends the Clock component built in the preceding exercise, as shown in Figure 36.13. This component contains two new properties, alarmDate and alarmTime. alarmDate is a string consisting of year, month, and day, separated by commas. For example, 1998,5,13 represents the year 1998, month 5, and day 13. alarmTime is a string consisting of hour, minute, and second, separated by commas. For example, 10,45,2 represents 10 o’clock, 45 minutes, and 2 seconds. When the clock time matches the alarm time, ClockWithAlarm fires an ActionEvent. Write a test program that displays the alert
message “You have an appointment now” on a dialog box at a specified time (e.g., date: 2004,1,1 and time: 10,30,0).

![UML Diagram](image)

**Figure 36.13**  
The *ClockWithAlarm* component extends *Clock* with alarm functions.

36.6***

(The **Tick source component**) Create a custom source component that is capable of generating tick events at variant time intervals, as shown in Figure 36.14. The **Tick** component is similar to *javax.swing.Timer*. The **Timer** class generates a timer at fixed time intervals. This **Tick** component can generate tick events at variant as well as at fixed time intervals.

![UML Diagram](image)

**Figure 36.14**  
The **Tick** component is capable of registering multiple listeners, generating **TickEvent** objects at variant time intervals, and notifying the listeners by invoking the listeners' **handleTick** method. The UML diagram for **TickEvent** and **TickListener** is shown in Figure 36.15.
Create an applet named **DisplayMovingMessage**, and create a panel named **MovingMessage** to display the message. Place an instance of the panel in the applet. To enable the message to move rightward, redraw the message with a new incremental x-coordinate. Use a **Tick** object to generate a tick event and invoke the **repaint** method to redraw the message when a tick event occurs. To move the message at a decreasing pace, use a positive step (e.g., 10) when constructing a **Tick** object.

---

**Figure 36.15**

**TickEvent** and **TickListener** comprise an event set for a tick event.
CHAPTER 37

Containers, Layout Managers, and Borders

Objectives

- To explore the internal structures of the Swing container (§37.2).
- To explain how a layout manager works in Java (§37.3).
- To use CardLayout and BoxLayout (§§37.3.1-37.3.2).
- To use the absolute layout manager to place components in the fixed position (§37.3.3).
- To create custom layout managers (§37.4).
- To use JScrollPane to create scroll panes (§37.5).
- To use JTabbedPane to create tabbed panes (§37.6).
- To use JSplitPane to create split panes (§37.7).
- To use various borders for Swing components (§37.8).
37.1 Introduction

Chapter 12, “GUI Basics,” introduced the concept of containers and the role of layout managers. You learned how to add components into a container and how to use `FlowLayout`, `BorderLayout`, and `GridLayout` to arrange components in a container. A container is an object that holds and groups components. A layout manager is a special object used to place components in a container. Containers and layout managers play a crucial role in creating user interfaces. This chapter presents a conceptual overview of containers, reviews the layout managers in Java, and introduces several new containers and layout managers. You will also learn how to create custom layout managers and use various borders.

37.2 Swing Container Structures

User interface components like `JButton` cannot be displayed without being placed in a container. A container is a component that holds other components. You do not display a user interface component; you place it in a container, and the container displays the components it contains.

The base class for all containers is `java.awt.Container`, which is a subclass of `java.awt.Component`. The `Container` class has the following essential functions:

- It adds and removes components using various `add` and `remove` methods.
- It maintains a layout property for specifying a layout manager that is used to lay out components in the container. Every container has a default layout manager.
- It provides registration methods for the `java.awt.event.ContainerEvent`.

In AWT programming, the `java.awt.Frame` class is used as a top-level container for Java applications, the `java.awt.Applet` class is used for all Java applets, and `java.awt.Dialog` is used for dialog windows. These classes do not work properly with Swing lightweight components. Special versions of `Frame`, `Applet`, and `Dialog` named `JFrame`, `JApplet`, and `JDialog` have been developed to accommodate Swing components. `JFrame` is a subclass of `Frame`, `JApplet` is a subclass of `Applet`, and `JDialog` is a subclass of `Dialog`. `JFrame` and `JApplet` inherit all the functions of their heavyweight counterparts, but they have a more complex internal structure with several layered panes, as shown in Figure 37.1.
Swing top-level containers use layers of panes to group lightweight components and make them work properly.

`javax.swing.JRootPane` is a lightweight container used behind the scenes by Swing's top-level containers, such as `JFrame`, `JApplet`, and `JDialog`. `javax.swing.JLayeredPane` is a container that manages the optional menu bar and the content pane. The content pane is an instance of `Container`. By default, it is a `JPanel` with `BorderLayout`. This is the container where the user interface components are added. To obtain the content pane in a `JFrame` or in a `JApplet`, use the `getContentPane()` method. If you wish to set an instance of `Container` to be a new content pane, use the `setContentPane` method. The glass pane floats on top of everything. `javax.swing.JGlassPane` is a hidden pane by default. If you make the glass pane visible, then it's like a sheet of glass over all the other parts of the root pane. It's completely transparent, unless you implement the glass pane's `paint` method so that it paints something, and it intercepts input events for the root pane. In general, `JRootPane`, `JLayeredPane`, and `JGlassPane` are not used directly.

Now let us review the three most frequently used Swing containers: `JFrame`, `JApplet`, and `JPanel`.

### 37.2.1 JFrame

`JFrame`, a Swing version of `Frame`, is a top-level container for Java graphics applications. Like `Frame`, `JFrame` is displayed as a standalone window with a title bar and a border. The following properties are often useful in `JFrame`:

- **contentPane** is the content pane of the frame.
- **iconImage** is the image that represents the frame. This image replaces the default Java image on the frame's title bar and is also displayed when the frame is minimized. This property type is `Image`. You can get an image using the `ImageIcon` class, as follows:
  ```java
  Image image = (new ImageIcon(filename)).getImage();
  ```
- **jMenuBar** is the optional menu bar for the frame.
- **Resizable** is a boolean value indicating whether the frame is resizable. The default value is *true*.

- **Title** specifies the title of the frame.

### 37.2.2 JApplet

*JApplet* is a Swing version of *Applet*. Since it is a subclass of *Applet*, it has all the functions required by the Web browser. Here are the four essential methods defined in *Applet*:

```java
public void init()
// Called by the browser when the Web page containing
// this applet is initially loaded

public void start()
// Called by the browser after the init() method and
// every time the Web page is visited.

public void stop()
// Called by the browser when the page containing this
// applet becomes inactive.

public void destroy()
// Called by the browser when the Web browser exits.
```

Additionally, *JApplet* has the `contentPane` and `jMenuBar` properties, among others. As with *JFrame*, you do not place components directly into *JApplet*; instead you place them into the content pane of the applet. The *Applet* class cannot have a menu bar, but the *JApplet* class allows you to set a menu bar using the `setJMenuBar` method.

**NOTE:** When an applet is loaded, the Web browser creates an instance of the applet by invoking the applet’s no-arg constructor. So the constructor is invoked before the `init` method.

### 37.2.3 JPanel

Panels act as subcontainers for grouping user interface components. *javax.swing.JPanel* is different from *JFrame* and *JApplet*. First, *JPanel* is not a top-level container; it must be placed inside another container, and it can be placed inside another *JPanel*. Second, since *JPanel* is a subclass of *JComponent*, it is a lightweight component, but *JFrame* and *JApplet* are heavyweight components.

As a subclass of *JComponent*, *JPanel* can take advantage of *JComponent*, such as double buffering and borders. You should draw figures on *JPanel* rather than *JFrame* or *JApplet*, because *JPanel* supports double buffering, which is the technique for eliminating flickers.

### 37.3 Layout Managers

Every container has a layout manager that is responsible for arranging its components. The container's `setLayout` method can be used to set a layout manager. Certain types of containers have default layout managers. For instance, the content pane of *JFrame* or *JApplet* uses `BorderLayout`, and *JPanel* uses `FlowLayout`. 
The layout manager places the components in accordance with its own rules and property settings, and with the constraints associated with each component. Every layout manager has its own specific set of rules. For example, the FlowLayout manager places components in rows from left to right and starts a new row when the previous row is filled. The BorderLayout manager places components in the north, south, east, west, or center of the container. The GridLayout manager places components in a grid of cells in rows and columns from left to right in order.

Some layout managers have properties that can affect the sizing and location of the components in the container. For example, the BorderLayout has properties called hgap (horizontal gap) and vgap (vertical gap) that determine the distance between components horizontally and vertically. FlowLayout has properties that can be used to specify the alignment (left, center, right) of the components and properties for specifying the horizontal or vertical gap between the components. GridLayout has properties that can be used to specify the horizontal or vertical gap between columns and rows and properties for specifying the number of rows and columns. These properties can be retrieved and set using their accessor and mutator methods.

The size of a component in a container is determined by many factors, such as:

- The type of layout manager used by the container.
- The layout constraints associated with each component.
- The size of the container.
- Certain properties common to all components (such as preferredSize, minimumSize, maximumSize, alignmentX, and alignmentY).

The preferredSize property indicates the ideal size at which the component looks best. Depending on the rules of the particular layout manager, this property may or may not be considered. For example, the preferred size of a component is used in a container with a FlowLayout manager, but ignored if it is placed in a container with a GridLayout manager.

The minimumSize property specifies the minimum size at which the component is useful. For most GUI components, minimumSize is the same as preferredSize. Layout managers generally respect minimumSize more than preferredSize.

The maximumSize property specifies the maximum size needed by a component, so that the layout manager won't wastefully give space to a component that does not need it. For instance, BorderLayout limits the center component's size to its maximum size, and gives the space to edge components.

The alignmentX (alignmentY) property specifies how the component would like to be aligned relative to other components along the x-axis (y-axis). This value should be a number between 0 and 1, where 0 represents alignment along the origin, 1 is aligned the farthest away
from the origin, 0.5 is centered, and so on. These two properties are used in the BoxLayout and OverlayLayout.

Java provides a variety of layout managers. You have learned how to use BorderLayout, FlowLayout, and GridLayout. The sections that follow introduce CardLayout, Null layout, and BoxLayout. GridBagLayout, OverlayLayout, and SpringLayout are presented in Supplement III.S.

TIP: If you set a new layout manager in a container, invoke the container’s validate() method to force the container to again lay out the components. If you change the properties of a layout manager in a JFrame or JApplet, invoke the doLayout() method to force the container to again lay out the components using the new layout properties. If you change the properties of a layout manager in a JPanel, invoke either doLayout() or revalidate() method to force it to again lay out the components using the new layout properties, but it is better to use revalidate(). Note that validate() is a public method defined in java.awt.Container, revalidate() is a public method defined in javax.swing.JComponent, and doLayout() is a public method defined in java.awt.Container.

37.3.1 CardLayout

CardLayout places components in the container as cards. Only one card is visible at a time, and the container acts as a stack of cards. The ordering of cards is determined by the container's own internal ordering of its component objects. You can specify the size of the horizontal and vertical gaps surrounding a stack of components in a CardLayout manager, as shown in Figure 37.2.

Figure 37.2

The CardLayout places components in the container as a stack of cards.

CardLayout defines a set of methods that allow an application to flip through the cards sequentially or to display a specified card directly, as shown in Figure 37.3.
CardLayout contains the methods to flip the card.

To add a component into a container, use the `add(Component c, String name)` method defined in the LayoutManager interface. The `String` parameter, `name`, gives an explicit identity to the component in the container.

Listing 37.1 gives a program that creates two panels in a frame. The first panel uses CardLayout to hold six labels for displaying images. The second panel uses FlowLayout to group four buttons named First, Next, Previous, and Last, and a combo box labeled Image, as shown in Figure 37.4.

These buttons control which image will be shown in the CardLayout panel. When the user clicks the button named First, for example, the first image in the CardLayout panel appears. The combo box enables the user to directly select an image.

Figure 37.4

The program shows images in a panel of CardLayout.

Listing 37.1 ShowCardLayout.java

```java
<margin note line 6: card layout>
<margin note line 13: create UI>
<margin note line 41: register listener>
<margin note line 45: first component>
```
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ShowCardLayout extends JApplet {

    private CardLayout cardLayout = new CardLayout(20, 10);
    private JPanel cardPanel = new JPanel(cardLayout);
    private JButton jbtFirst, jbtNext, jbtPrevious, jbtLast;
    private JComboBox jcboImage;

    private final int NUM_OF_FLAGS = 6;

    public ShowCardLayout() {

        cardPanel.setBorder(new javax.swing.border.LineBorder(Color.red));

        // Add 9 labels for displaying images into cardPanel
        for (int i = 1; i <= NUM_OF_FLAGS; i++) {
            JLabel label = new JLabel(new ImageIcon("image/flag" + i + ".gif"));
            cardPanel.add(label, String.valueOf(i));
        }

        // Panel p to hold buttons and a combo box
        JPanel p = new JPanel();
        p.add(jbtFirst = new JButton("First"));
        p.add(jbtNext = new JButton("Next"));
        p.add(jbtPrevious = new JButton("Previous"));
        p.add(jbtLast = new JButton("Last"));
        p.add(new JLabel("Image"));
        p.add(jcboImage = new JComboBox());

        // Initialize combo box items
        for (int i = 1; i <= NUM_OF_FLAGS; i++)
            jcboImage.addItem(String.valueOf(i));

        // Place panels in the frame
        add(cardPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(p, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

        // Register listeners with the source objects
        jbtFirst.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                // Show the first component in cardPanel
                cardLayout.first(cardPanel);
            }
        });

        jbtNext.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                // Show the next component in cardPanel
                cardLayout.next(cardPanel);
            }
        });
    }
}
An instance of `CardLayout` is created in line 6, and a panel of `CardLayout` is created in line 7. You have already used such statements as `setLayout(new FlowLayout())` to create an anonymous layout object and set the layout for a container, instead of creating a separate instance of the layout manager, as in this program. The `cardLayout` object, however, is useful later in the program to show components in `cardPanel`. You have to use `cardLayout.first(cardPanel)` (line 45), for example, to view the first component in `cardPanel`.

The statement in lines 18–20 adds the image label with the identity `String.valueOf(i)`. Later, when the user selects an image with number `i`, the identity `String.valueOf(i)` is used in the `cardLayout.show()` method (line 73) to view the image with the specified identity.

### 37.3.2 BoxLayout

`javax.swing.BoxLayout` is a Swing layout manager that arranges components in a row or a column. To create a `BoxLayout`, use the following constructor:

```java
public BoxLayout(Container target, int axis)
```

This constructor is different from other layout constructors. It creates a layout manager that is dedicated to the given target container. The `axis` parameter is `BoxLayout.X_AXIS` or `BoxLayout.Y_AXIS`, which specifies whether the components are laid out horizontally or vertically. For example, the following code creates a horizontal `BoxLayout` for panel `p1`:

```java
JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
```
BoxLayout boxLayout = new BoxLayout(p1, BoxLayout.X_AXIS);
p1.setLayout(boxLayout);

You still need to invoke the \texttt{setLayout} method on \texttt{p1} to set the layout manager.

You can use \texttt{BoxLayout} in any container, but it is simpler to use the \texttt{Box} class, which is a container of \texttt{BoxLayout}. To create a \texttt{Box} container, use one of the following two static methods:

\begin{verbatim}
Box box1 = Box.createHorizontalBox();
Box box2 = Box.createVerticalBox();
\end{verbatim}

The former creates a box that contains components horizontally, the latter a box that contains components vertically.

You can add components to a box in the same way that you add them to the containers of \texttt{FlowLayout} or \texttt{GridLayout} using the \texttt{add} method, as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
box1.add(new JButton("A Button"));
\end{verbatim}

You can remove components from a box in the same way that you drop components to a container. The components are laid left to right in a horizontal box, and top to bottom in a vertical box. \texttt{BoxLayout} is similar to \texttt{GridLayout} but has many unique features. First, \texttt{BoxLayout} respects a component's preferred size, maximum size, and minimum size. If the total preferred size of all the components in the box is less than the box size, then the components are expanded up to their maximum size. If the total preferred size of all the components in the box is greater than the box size, then the components are shrunk down to their minimum size. If the components do not fit at their minimum width, some of them will not be shown. In the \texttt{GridLayout}, the container is divided into cells of equal size, and the components are fit in regardless of their preferred maximum or minimum size.

Second, unlike other layout managers, \texttt{BoxLayout} considers the component's \texttt{alignmentX} or \texttt{alignmentY} property. The \texttt{alignmentX} property is used to place the component in a vertical box layout, and the \texttt{alignmentY} property is used to place it in a horizontal box layout. Third, \texttt{BoxLayout} does not have gaps between the components, but you can use fillers to separate components. A filler is an invisible component. There are three kinds of fillers: struts, rigid areas, and glues.

\textit{\textbf{<side remark: strut>}}

A strut simply adds some space between components. The static method \texttt{createHorizontalStrut(int)} in the \texttt{Box} class is used to create a horizontal strut, and the static method \texttt{createVerticalStrut(int)} to create a vertical strut. For example, the code shown below adds a vertical strut of 8 pixels between two buttons in a vertical box.

\begin{verbatim}
box2.add(new JButton("Button 1"));
box2.add(Box.createVerticalStrut(8));
box2.add(new JButton("Button 2"));
\end{verbatim}

\textit{\textbf{<side remark: rigid area>}}

A rigid area is a two-dimensional space that can be created using the static method \texttt{createRigidArea(dimension)} in the \texttt{Box} class. For
example, the next code adds a rigid area 10 pixels wide and 20 pixels high into a box.

    box2.add(Box.createRigidArea(new Dimension(10, 20));

<side remark: glue>
A glue separates components as much as possible. For example, by adding a glue between two components in a horizontal box, you place one component at the left end and the other at the right end. A glue can be created using the `Box.createGlue()` method.

Listing 37.2 shows an example that creates a horizontal box and a vertical box. The horizontal box holds two buttons with print and save icons. The vertical box holds four buttons for selecting flags. When a button in the vertical box is clicked, a corresponding flag icon is displayed in the label centered in the applet, as shown in Figure 37.5.

![Image of a labeled applet showing the components placed in the containers of BoxLayout.]

**Figure 37.5**
The components are placed in the containers of BoxLayout.

**Listing 37.2** ShowBoxLayout.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ShowBoxLayout extends JApplet {
    // Create two box containers
    private Box box1 = Box.createHorizontalBox();
    private Box box2 = Box.createVerticalBox();

    // Create a label to display flags
    private JLabel jlblFlag = new JLabel();

    // Create image icons for flags
    private ImageIcon imageIconUS =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/us.gif");
    private ImageIcon imageIconCanada =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/ca.gif");
    private ImageIcon imageIconNorway =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/norway.gif");
```

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private ImageIcon imageIconGermany =
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/germany.gif"));
private ImageIcon imageIconPrint =
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/print.gif"));
private ImageIcon imageIconSave =
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/save.gif"));

// Create buttons to select images
private JButton jbtUS = new JButton("US");
private JButton jbtCanada = new JButton("Canada");
private JButton jbtNorway = new JButton("Norway");
private JButton jbtGermany = new JButton("Germany");

public ShowBoxLayout() {
    box1.add(new JButton(imageIconPrint));
    box1.add(Box.createHorizontalStrut(20));
    box1.add(new JButton(imageIconSave));
    box2.add(jbtUS);
    box2.add(Box.createVerticalStrut(8));
    box2.add(jbtCanada);
    box2.add(Box.createGlue());
    box2.add(jbtNorway);
    box2.add(Box.createRigidArea(new Dimension(10, 8)));
    box2.add(jbtGermany);
    box1.setBorder(new javax.swing.border.LineBorder(Color.red));
    box2.setBorder(new javax.swing.border.LineBorder(Color.black));
    add(box1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(box2, BorderLayout.EAST);
    add(jlblFlag, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Register listeners
    jbtUS.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlblFlag.setIcon(imageIconUS);
        }
    });
    jbtCanada.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlblFlag.setIcon(imageIconCanada);
        }
    });
    jbtNorway.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlblFlag.setIcon(imageIconNorway);
        }
    });
    jbtGermany.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlblFlag.setIcon(imageIconGermany);
        }
    });
}
Two containers of the Box class are created in lines 7-8 using the convenient static methods createHorizontalBox() and createVerticalBox(). The box containers always use the BoxLayout manager. You cannot reset the layout manager for the box containers.

The image icons are created from image files (lines 14-25) through resource URL, introduced in Section 18.10, “Locating Resource Using the URL Class.”

Two buttons with print and save icons are added into the horizontal box (line 34-36). A horizontal strut with size 20 is added between these two buttons (line 35).

Four buttons with texts US, Canada, Norway, and Germany are added into the vertical box (lines 38-44). A horizontal strut with size 8 is added to separate the US button and the Canada button (line 39). A rigid area is inserted between the Norway button and the Germany button (line 43). A glue is inserted to separate the Canada button and the Norway button as far as possible in the vertical box.

The strut, rigid area, and glue are instances of Component, so they can be added to the box container. In theory, you can add them to a container other than the box container. But they may be ignored and have no effect in other containers.

37.3.3 Using Null Layout Manager

If you have used a Windows-based visual form design tool like Visual Basic, you know that it is easier to create user interfaces with Visual Basic than in Java. This is mainly because in Visual Basic the components are placed in absolute positions and sizes, whereas in Java they are placed in containers using a variety of layout managers. Absolute positions and sizes are fine if the application is developed and deployed on the same platform, but what looks fine on a development system may not look right on a deployment system. To solve this problem, Java provides a set of layout managers that place components in containers in a way that is independent of fonts, screen resolutions, and platform differences.

For convenience, Java also supports an absolute layout, called null layout manager, which enables you to place components at fixed locations. In this case, the component must be placed using the component's instance method setBounds() (defined in java.awt.Component), as follows:

```java
public void setBounds(int x, int y, int width, int height);
```

This sets the location and size for the component, as in the next example:

```java
JButton jbt = new JButton("Help");
jbt.setBounds(10, 10, 40, 20);
```

The upper-left corner of the Help button is placed at (10, 10); the button width is 40, and the height is 20. Here are the steps of adding a button to a container with a null layout manager:
1. Use this statement to specify a null layout manager:

```java
container.setLayout(null);
```

2. Add the component to the container:

```java
JButton jbt = new JButton("Help");
container.add(jbt);
```

3. Specify the location where the component is to be placed, using the `setBounds` method:

```java
jbt.setBounds(10, 10, 40, 20);
```

Listing 37.3 gives a program that places three buttons, as shown in Figure 37.6a.

![Figure 37.6](image)

(a) The components are placed in the frame using a null layout manager. (b) With a null layout manager, the size and positions of the components are fixed.

**Listing 37.3 ShowNoLayout.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ShowNoLayout extends JApplet {

  private JButton jbtRed = new JButton("Red");
  private JButton jbtBlue = new JButton("Blue");
  private JButton jbtGreen = new JButton("Green");

  public ShowNoLayout() {
    // Set foreground color for the buttons
    jbtRed.setForeground(Color.RED);
    jbtBlue.setForeground(Color.BLUE);
    jbtGreen.setForeground(Color.GREEN);

    // Specify no layout manager
    setLayout(null);

    // Add components to container
    add(jbtRed);
  }
}
```
add(jbtBlue);
add(jbtGreen);

// Put components in the right place
jbtRed.setBounds(150, 50, 100, 50);
jbtBlue.setBounds(100, 100, 100, 50);
jbtGreen.setBounds(200, 100, 100, 50);
}

If you run this program on Windows with 1024 x 768 resolution, the layout size is just right. When the program is run on Windows with a higher resolution, the components appear very small and clump together. When it is run on Windows with a lower resolution, they cannot be shown in their entirety.

If you resize the window, you will see that the location and the size of the components are not changed, as shown in Figure 37.6b.

**TIP**

Do not use the null-layout-manager to develop platform-independent applications.

### 37.4 Creating Custom Layout Managers

In addition to the layout managers provided in Java, you can create your own. To do so, you need to understand how a layout manager lays out components. A container's `setLayout` method specifies a layout manager for the container. The layout manager is responsible for laying out the components and displaying them in a desired location with an appropriate size. Every layout manager must directly or indirectly implement the `LayoutManager` interface. For instance, `FlowLayout` directly implements `LayoutManager`, and `BorderLayout` implements `LayoutManager2`, a subclass of `LayoutManager`. The `LayoutManager` interface provides the following methods for laying out components in a container:

- `public void addLayoutComponent(String name, Component comp)`
  Adds the specified component with the specified name to the container.

- `public void layoutContainer(Container parent)`
  Lays out the components in the specified container. In this method, you should provide concrete instructions that specify where the components are to be placed.

- `public Dimension minimumLayoutSize(Container parent)`
  Calculates the minimum size dimensions for the specified panel, given the components in the specified parent container.

- `public Dimension preferredLayoutSize(Container parent)`
  Calculates the preferred size dimensions for the specified panel, given the components in the specified parent container.
• **public void** removeLayoutComponent(Component comp)

Removes the specified component from the layout.

These methods in `LayoutManager` are invoked by the methods in the `java.awt.Container` class through the layout manager in the container. `Container` contains a property named `layout` (an instance of `LayoutManager`) and the methods for adding and removing components from the container. There are five overloading `add` methods defined in `Container` for adding components with various options. The `remove` method removes a component from the container. The `add` method invokes `addImpl`, which then invokes the `addLayoutComponent` method defined in the `LayoutManager` interface. The `layoutContainer` method in the `LayoutManager` interface is indirectly invoked by the `validate()` method through several calls. The `remove` method invokes `removeLayoutComponent` in `LayoutManager`. The `validate` method is invoked to refresh the container after the components it contains have been added to or modified. The relationship of `Container` and `LayoutManager` is shown in Figure 37.7.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 37.7**

The `add`, `remove`, and `validate` methods in `Container` invoke the methods defined in the `LayoutManager` interface.

Let us define a custom layout manager named `DiagonalLayout` that places the components in a diagonal. To test `DiagonalLayout`, the example creates an applet with radio buttons named “FlowLayout,” “GridLayout,” and “DiagonalLayout,” as shown in Figure 37.8. You can dynamically select one of these three layouts in the panel.
The `DiagonalLayout` manager places the components in a diagonal in the container.

`DiagonalLayout` is similar to `FlowLayout`. `DiagonalLayout` arranges components along a diagonal using each component's natural `preferredSize`. It contains three constraints, `gap`, `lastFill`, and `majorDiagonal`, as shown in Figure 37.9. The source code for `DiagonalLayout` is given in Listing 37.4.

**Figure 37.9**

The `DiagonalLayout` manager has three properties with the supporting accessor and mutator methods.

**Listing 37.4 DiagonalLayout.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;

public class DiagonalLayout implements LayoutManager,
        java.io.Serializable {
    /** Vertical gap between the components */
    private int gap = 10;

    /** True if components are placed along the major diagonal */
    private boolean majorDiagonal = true;

    /** True if the last component is stretched to fill the space */
    private boolean lastFill = false;

    public DiagonalLayout() {
    }

    public void addLayoutComponent(String name, Component comp) {
        // No need to implement it for DiagonalLayout
    }

    public void removeLayoutComponent(Component comp) {
        // No need to implement it for DiagonalLayout
    }
```
public Dimension preferredLayoutSize(Container parent) {  
    return minimumLayoutSize(parent);  
}

public Dimension minimumLayoutSize(Container parent) {  
    return new Dimension(0, 0);  
}

public void layoutContainer(Container parent) {  
    Insets insets = parent.getInsets();  
    int w = parent.getSize().width - insets.left - insets.right;  
    int h = parent.getSize().height - insets.bottom - insets.top;  
    if (majorDiagonal) {  
        int x = 10, y = 10;  
        for (int j = 0; j < numberOfComponents; j++) {  
            Component c = parent.getComponent(j);  
            Dimension d = c.getPreferredSize();  
            if (c.isVisible())  
                if (lastFill && (j == numberOfComponents - 1))  
                    c.setBounds(x, y, w - x, h - y);  
                else  
                    c.setBounds(x, y, d.width, d.height);  
            x += d.height + gap;  
            y += d.height + gap;  
        }  
    }  
    else { // It is subdiagonal  
        int x = w - 10, y = 10;  
        for (int j = 0; j < numberOfComponents; j++) {  
            Component c = parent.getComponent(j);  
            Dimension d = c.getPreferredSize();  
            if (c.isVisible())  
                if (lastFill && (j == numberOfComponents - 1))  
                    c.setBounds(0, y, x, h - y);  
                else  
                    c.setBounds(x - d.width, y, d.width, d.height);  
            x -= (d.height + gap);  
            y += d.height + gap;  
        }  
    }  
    public int getGap() {  
        return gap;  
    }  
    public void setGap(int gap) {  
        this.gap = gap;  
    }
```java
public void setMajorDiagonal(boolean newMajorDiagonal) {
    majorDiagonal = newMajorDiagonal;
}

public boolean isMajorDiagonal() {
    return majorDiagonal;
}

public void setLastFill(boolean newLastFill) {
    lastFill = newLastFill;
}

public boolean isLastFill() {
    return lastFill;
}
}
```

The `DiagonalLayout` class implements the `LayoutManager` and `Serializable` interfaces (lines 3-4). The reason to implement `Serializable` is to make it a JavaBeans component.

The `Insets` class describes the size of the borders of a container. It contains the variables `left`, `right`, `bottom`, and `top`, which correspond to the measurements for the `left` border, `right` border, `top` border, and `bottom` border (lines 37-39).

The `Dimension` class used in `DiagonalLayout` encapsulates the width and height of a component in a single object. The class is associated with certain properties of components. Several methods defined by the `Component` class and the `LayoutManager` interface return a `Dimension` object.

Listing 37.5 gives a test program that uses `DiagonalLayout`.

Listing 37.5 ShowDiagonalLayout.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class ShowDiagonalLayout extends JApplet {

    private FlowLayout flowLayout = new FlowLayout();
    private GridLayout gridLayout = new GridLayout(2, 2);
    private DiagonalLayout diagonalLayout = new DiagonalLayout();

    private JButton jbt1 = new JButton("Button 1");
    private JButton jbt2 = new JButton("Button 2");
    private JButton jbt3 = new JButton("Button 3");
    private JButton jbt4 = new JButton("Button 4");
    private JRadioButton jrbFlowLayout =
```
new JRadioButton("FlowLayout");
private JRadioButton jrbGridLayout =
new JRadioButton("GridLayout");
private JRadioButton jrbDiagonalLayout =
new JRadioButton("DiagonalLayout", true);
private JPanel jPanel2 = new JPanel();

public ShowDiagonalLayout() {
    // Set default layout in jPanel2
    jPanel2.setLayout(diagonalLayout);
    jPanel2.add(jbt1);
    jPanel2.add(jbt2);
    jPanel2.add(jbt3);
    jPanel2.add(jbt4);
    jPanel2.setBorder(new LineBorder(Color.black));

    JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
    jPanel1.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Select a Layout Manager");
    jPanel1.add(jrbFlowLayout);
    jPanel1.add(jrbGridLayout);
    jPanel1.add(jrbDiagonalLayout);

    ButtonGroup buttonGroup1 = new ButtonGroup();
    buttonGroup1.add(jrbFlowLayout);
    buttonGroup1.add(jrbGridLayout);
    buttonGroup1.add(jrbDiagonalLayout);

    add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
    add(jPanel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    jrbFlowLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jPanel2.setLayout(flowLayout);
            jPanel2.validate();
        }
    });
    jrbGridLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jPanel2.setLayout(gridLayout);
            jPanel2.validate();
        }
    });
    jrbDiagonalLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jPanel2.setLayout(diagonalLayout);
            jPanel2.validate();
        }
    });
}

The TestDiagonalLayout class enables you to dynamically set the layout in jPanel2. When you select a new layout, the layout manager is set in jPanel2, and the revalidate() method is invoked (lines 52, 59, 66),
which in turn invokes the `layoutContainer` method in the `LayoutManager` interface to display the components in the container.

### 37.5 JScrollPane

Often you need to use a scroll bar to scroll the contents of an object that does not fit completely into the viewing area. `JScrollBar` and `JSlider` can be used for this purpose, but you have to manually write the code to implement scrolling with them. `JScrollPane` is a component that supports automatic scrolling without coding. It was used to scroll the text area in Listing 17.3, `TextAreaDemo.java`, and to scroll a list in Listing 17.5, `ListDemo.java`. In fact, it can be used to scroll any subclass of `JComponent`.

A `JScrollPane` can be viewed as a specialized container with a view port for displaying the contained component. In addition to horizontal and vertical scroll bars, a `JScrollPane` can have a column header, a row header, and corners, as shown in Figure 37.10.

![Figure 37.10](image)

**Figure 37.10**

A `JScrollPane` has a view port, optional horizontal and vertical bars, optional column and row headers, and optional corners.

*<margin note: view port>*

The view port is an instance of `JViewport` through which a scrollable component is displayed. When you add a component to a scroll pane, you are actually placing it in the scroll pane's view port. Figure 37.11 shows the frequently used properties, constructors, and methods in `JScrollPane`. 
Figure 37.11

**JScrollPane** provides methods for displaying and manipulating the components in a scroll pane.

The constructor always creates a view port regardless of whether the viewing component is specified. Normally, you have the component and you want to place it in a scroll pane. A convenient way to create a scroll pane for a component is to use the *JScrollPane(component)* constructor.

The *vsbPolicy* parameter can be one of the following three values:

- ScrollPane.VERTICAL_SCROLLBAR_AS_NEEDED
- ScrollPane.VERTICAL_SCROLLBAR_NEVER
- ScrollPane.VERTICAL_SCROLLBAR_ALWAYS

The *hsbPolicy* parameter can be one of the following three values:

- ScrollPane.HORIZONTAL_SCROLLBAR_AS_NEEDED
- ScrollPane.HORIZONTAL_SCROLLBAR_NEVER
- ScrollPane.HORIZONTAL_SCROLLBAR_ALWAYS
To set a corner component, you can use the `setCorner(String key, Component corner)` method. The legal values for the key are:

- JScrollPane.LOWER_LEFT_CORNER
- JScrollPane.LOWER_RIGHT_CORNER
- JScrollPane.UPPER_LEFT_CORNER
- JScrollPane.UPPER_RIGHT_CORNER

Listing 37.6 shows an example that displays a map in a label and places the label in a scroll pane so that a large map can be scrolled. The program lets you choose a map from a combo box and display it in the scroll pane, as shown in Figure 37.12.

Figure 37.12

The scroll pane can be used to scroll contents automatically.

Listing 37.6 ScrollMap.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class ScrollMap extends JApplet {

private JLabel lblIndianaMap = new JLabel(
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/indianaMap.gif")));

private JLabel lblOhioMap = new JLabel(
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/ohioMap.gif")));

private JScrollPane jspMap = new JScrollPane(lblIndianaMap);

public ScrollMap() {
    // Create a combo box for selecting maps
```
JComboBox jcboMap = new JComboBox(new String[] {"Indiana", "Ohio"]);

// Panel p to hold combo box
JPanel p = new JPanel();
p.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
p.add(jcboMap);
p.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Select a map to display"));

// Set row header, column header and corner header
jspMap.setColumnHeaderView(new JLabel(new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/horizontalRuler.gif"))));
jspMap.setRowHeaderView(new JLabel(new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/verticalRuler.gif"))));
jspMap.setCorner(JScrollPane.UPPER_LEFT_CORNER, new CornerPanel(JScrollPane.UPPER_LEFT_CORNER));
jspMap.setCorner(JScrollPane.UPPER_RIGHT_CORNER, new CornerPanel(JScrollPane.UPPER_RIGHT_CORNER));
jspMap.setCorner(JScrollPane.LOWER_RIGHT_CORNER, new CornerPanel(JScrollPane.LOWER_RIGHT_CORNER));
jspMap.setCorner(JScrollPane.LOWER_LEFT_CORNER, new CornerPanel(JScrollPane.LOWER_LEFT_CORNER));

// Add the scroll pane and combo box panel to the frame
add(jspMap, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(p, BorderLayout.NORTH);

// Register listener
jcboMap.addItemListener(new ItemListener() {
    /** Show the selected map */
    public void itemStateChanged(ItemEvent e) {
        String selectedItem = (String)e.getItem();
        if (selectedItem.equals("Indiana")) {
            // Set a new view in the view port
            jspMap.setViewportView(lblIndianaMap);
        } else if (selectedItem.equals("Ohio")) {
            // Set a new view in the view port
            jspMap.setViewportView(lblOhioMap);
        }

        // Revalidate the scroll pane
        jspMap.revalidate();
    }
});

// A panel displaying a line used for scroll pane corner
class CornerPanel extends JPanel {
    // Line location
    private String location;

    public CornerPanel(String location) {
        this.location = location;
    }

    @Override /** Draw a line depending on the location */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponents(g);
    }
if (location == "UPPER_LEFT_CORNER")
  g.drawLine(0, getHeight(), getWidth(), 0);
else if (location == "UPPER_RIGHT_CORNER")
  g.drawLine(0, 0, getWidth(), getHeight());
else if (location == "LOWER_RIGHT_CORNER")
  g.drawLine(0, getHeight(), getWidth(), 0);
else if (location == "LOWER_LEFT_CORNER")
  g.drawLine(0, 0, getWidth(), getHeight());
}
}
}

The program creates a scroll pane to view image maps. The images are created from image files and displayed in labels (lines 8-11). To view an image, the label that contains the image is placed in the scroll pane's view port (line 14).

The scroll pane has a main view, a header view, a column view, and four corner views. Each view is a subclass of Component. Since ImageIcon is not a subclass of Component, it cannot be directly used as a view in the scroll pane. Instead the program places an ImageIcon to a label and uses the label as a view.

The CornerPanel (lines 66-87) is a subclass of JPanel that is used to display a line. How the line is drawn depends on the location of the corner. The location is a string passed in as a parameter in the CornerPanel's constructor.

Whenever a new map is selected, the label for displaying the map image is set to the scroll pane's view port. The revalidate() method (line 60) must be invoked to cause the new image to be displayed. The revalidate() method causes a container to lay out its subcomponents again after the components it contains have been added to or modified.

37.6 JTabbedPane

JTabbedPane is a useful Swing container that provides a set of mutually exclusive tabs for accessing multiple components, as shown in Figure 37.13.

![Figure 37.13](image)

JTabbedPane displays components through the tabs.

Usually you place the panels inside a JTabbedPane and associate a tab with each panel. JTabbedPane is easy to use, because the selection of the panel is handled automatically by clicking the corresponding tab. You can switch between a group of panels by clicking on a tab with a
given title and/or icon. Figure 37.14 shows the frequently used properties, constructors, and methods in `JTabbedPane`.

```java
javax.swing.JTabbedPane

#tabPlacement: int
#selectedIndex: int
#selectedComponent: Component

+JTabbedPane()
+JTabbedPane(tabPlacement: int)
+getIconAt(index: int): Icon
+setIconAt(index: int, icon: Icon): void
+getTabCount(): int
+getTitleAt(int index) : String
+setTitleAt(index: int, title: String): void
+getToolTipTextAt(index: int): String
+setToolTipTextAt(index: int, toolTipText: String): void
+indexOfComponent(component: Component): void
+indexOfTab(icon: Icon): int
+indexOfTab(title: String): int
```

The tab placement for this tabbed pane. Possible values are: `JTabbedPane.TOP, JTabbedPane.BOTTOM, JTabbedPane.LEFT, and JTabbedPane.RIGHT` (default: `JTabbedPane.TOP`).

The currently selected component for this tabbed pane.

The currently selected index for this tabbed pane.

Constructs a `JTabbedPane` with default tab placement.

Constructs a `JTabbedPane` with the specified tab placement.

Returns the icon at the specified tab index.

Sets the icon at the specified tab index.

Returns the number of tabs in this tabbed pane.

Sets the tab title at the specified tab index.

Returns the tab title at the specified tab index.

Sets the tool tip text at the specified tab index.

Returns the tool tip text at the specified tab index.

Returns the index of the tab for the specified component.

Returns the index of the tab for the specified icon.

Returns the index of the tab for the specified title.

---

**Figure 37.14**

`JTabbedPane` provides methods for displaying and manipulating the components in the tabbed pane.

Listing 37.7 gives an example that uses a tabbed pane with four tabs to display four types of figures: line, rectangle, rounded rectangle, and oval. You can select a figure to display by clicking the corresponding tab, as shown in Figure 37.13. The `FigurePanel` class for displaying a figure was presented in Listing 15.3, `FigurePanel.java`. You can use the `type` property to specify a figure type.

**Listing 37.7 DisplayFigure.java**

```java
<margin note line 5: tabbed pane>
<margin note line 12: set type>
<margin note line 18: add tabs>
<margin note line 23: set tool tips>
<margin note line 28: main method omitted>

1 import java.awt.*;
2 import javax.swing.*;
3
4 public class DisplayFigure extends JApplet {
5    private JTabbedPane jtpFigures = new JTabbedPane();
6    private FigurePanel squarePanel = new FigurePanel();
7    private FigurePanel rectanglePanel = new FigurePanel();
8    private FigurePanel circlePanel = new FigurePanel();
9    private FigurePanel ovalPanel = new FigurePanel();
10
11```
public DisplayFigure() {
    squarePanel.setType(FigurePanel.LINE);
    rectanglePanel.setType(FigurePanel.RECTANGLE);
    circlePanel.setType(FigurePanel.ROUND_RECTANGLE);
    ovalPanel.setType(FigurePanel.OVAL);

    add(jtpFigures, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    jtpFigures.add(squarePanel, "Line");
    jtpFigures.add(rectanglePanel, "Rectangle");
    jtpFigures.add(circlePanel, "Round Rectangle");
    jtpFigures.add(ovalPanel, "Oval");

    jtpFigures.setToolTipTextAt(0, "Square");
    jtpFigures.setToolTipTextAt(1, "Rectangle");
    jtpFigures.setToolTipTextAt(2, "Circle");
    jtpFigures.setToolTipTextAt(3, "Oval");
}

The program creates a tabbed pane to hold four panels, each of which displays a figure. A panel is associated with a tab. The tabs are titled Line, Rectangle, Rounded Rectangle, and Oval.

By default, the tabs are placed at the top of the tabbed pane. You can select a different placement using the tabPlacement property.

37.7 JSplitPane

JSplitPane is a convenient Swing container that contains two components with a separate bar known as a divider, as shown in Figure 37.15.

![JSplitPane](image)

(a) Vertical divider    (b) Horizontal divider

Figure 37.15

JSplitPane divides a container into two parts.

The bar can divide the container horizontally or vertically and can be dragged to change the amount of space occupied by each component. Figure 37.16 shows the frequently used properties, constructors, and methods in JSplitPane.
javax.swing.JSplitPane

#continuousLayout: boolean
A Boolean value indicating whether or not the views are continuously redisplayed while resizing.

#dividerSize: int
Size of the divider.

#lastDividerLocation: int
Previous location of the divider.

#leftComponent: Component
The left or top component.

#oneTouchExpandable: boolean
A Boolean property with the default value false. If the property is true, the divider has an expanding and contracting look, so that it can expand and contract with one touch.

#orientation: int
Specifies whether the container is divided horizontally or vertically. The possible values are JSplitPane.HORIZONTAL_SPLIT and JSplitPane.VERTICAL_SPLIT. The default value is JSplitPane.HORIZONTAL_SPLIT, which divides the container into a left part and a right part.

#rightComponent: Component
The right or bottom component.

+JSplitPane()
Creates a JSplitPane configured to arrange the child components side by side horizontally with no continuous layout.

+JSplitPane(newOrientation: int)
Creates a JSplitPane configured with the specified orientation and no continuous layout.

+JSplitPane(newOrientation: int,
  newContinuousLayout: boolean)
Creates a JSplitPane with the specified orientation and continuous layout.

+JSplitPane(newOrientation: int,
  newContinuousLayout: boolean,
  newLeftComponent: Component,
  newRightComponent: Component)
Creates a JSplitPane with the specified orientation, and the left (top) and right (bottom) components.

+JSplitPane(newOrientation: int,
  newLeftComponent: Component,
  newRightComponent: Component)
Creates a JSplitPane with the specified orientation, and the left (top) and right (bottom) components. No continuous layout.

Figure 37.16

**JSplitPane** provides methods to specify the properties of a split pane and for manipulating the components in a split pane.

Listing 37.8 gives an example that uses radio buttons to let the user select a **FlowLayout**, **GridLayout**, or **BoxLayout** manager dynamically for a panel. The panel contains four buttons, as shown in Figure 37.17. The description of the currently selected layout manager is displayed in a text area. The radio buttons, buttons, and text area are placed in two split panes.

![Figure 37.17](image)

You can adjust the component size in the split panes.

**Listing 37.8 ShowLayout.java**

<margin note line 7: descriptions>
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ShowLayout extends JApplet {

    // Get the url for HTML files
    private String flowLayoutDesc = "FlowLayout arranges components " +
            "according to their preferredSize in " +
            "a left-to-right flow, much like lines of text in a paragraph.";
    private String gridLayoutDesc = "GridLayout arranges ...";
    private String boxLayoutDesc = "BoxLayout arranges ...";

    private JRadioButton jrbFlowLayout =
            new JRadioButton("FlowLayout");
    private JRadioButton jrbGridLayout =
            new JRadioButton("GridLayout", true);
    private JRadioButton jrbBoxLayout =
            new JRadioButton("BoxLayout");

    private JPanel jpComponents = new JPanel();
    private JTextArea jtfDescription = new JTextArea();

    // Create layout managers
    private FlowLayout flowLayout = new FlowLayout();
    private GridLayout gridLayout = new GridLayout(2, 2, 3, 3);
    private BoxLayout boxLayout =
            new BoxLayout(jpComponents, BoxLayout.X_AXIS);

    public ShowLayout() {
        // Create a box to hold radio buttons
        Box jpChooseLayout = Box.createVerticalBox();
        jpChooseLayout.add(jrbFlowLayout);
        jpChooseLayout.add(jrbGridLayout);
        jpChooseLayout.add(jrbBoxLayout);

        // Group radio buttons
        ButtonGroup btg = new ButtonGroup();
        btg.add(jrbFlowLayout);
        btg.add(jrbGridLayout);
        btg.add(jrbBoxLayout);

        // Wrap lines and words
        jtfDescription.setLineWrap(true);
        jtfDescription.setWrapStyleWord(true);

        // Add fours buttons to jpComponents
        jpComponents.add(new JButton("Button 1"));
        jpComponents.add(new JButton("Button 2"));
        jpComponents.add(new JButton("Button 3"));
jpComponents.add(new JButton("Button 4"));

// Create two split panes to hold jpChooseLayout, jpComponents, // and jtfDescription
JSplitPane jSplitPane2 = new JSplitPane(
    JSplitPane.VERTICAL_SPLIT, jpComponents,
    new JScrollPane(jtfDescription));
JSplitPane jSplitPane1 = new JSplitPane(
    JSplitPane.HORIZONTAL_SPLIT, jpChooseLayout, jSplitPane2);

// Set FlowLayout as default
jpComponents.setLayout(flowLayout);
jpComponents.revalidate();
jtfDescription.setText(flowLayoutDesc);

add(jSplitPane1, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Register listeners
jrbFlowLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jpComponents.setLayout(flowLayout);
jtfDescription.setText(flowLayoutDesc);
jpComponents.revalidate();
    }
});
jrbGridLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jpComponents.setLayout(gridLayout);
jtfDescription.setText(gridLayoutDesc);
jpComponents.revalidate();
    }
});
jrbBoxLayout.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jpComponents.setLayout(boxLayout);
jtfDescription.setText(boxLayoutDesc);
jpComponents.revalidate();
    }
});

Split panes can be embedded. Adding a split pane to an existing split pane results in three split panes. The program creates two split panes (lines 54-58) to hold a panel for radio buttons, a panel for buttons, and a scroll pane.

The radio buttons are used to select layout managers. A selected layout manager is used in the panel for laying out the buttons (lines 66-88). The scroll pane contains a JTextArea for displaying the text that describes the selected layout manager (line 56).

37.8 Swing Borders
Swing provides a variety of borders that you can use to decorate components. You learned how to create titled borders and line borders
in §12.9, “Common Features of Swing GUI Components.” This section introduces borders in more detail.

A Swing border is defined in the `Border` interface. Every instance of `JComponent` can set a border through the `border` property defined in `JComponent`. If a border is present, it replaces the inset. The `AbstractBorder` class implements an empty border with no size. This provides a convenient base class from which other border classes can easily be defined. There are eight concrete border classes, `BevelBorder`, `SoftBevelBorder`, `CompoundBorder`, `EmptyBorder`, `EtchedBorder`, `LineBorder`, `MatteBorder`, and `TitledBorder`, as shown in Figure 37.18.

![Diagram of border classes](image)

**Figure 37.18**

The `Border` interface defines Swing borders.

[BL]`BevelBorder` is a 3D-look border that can be lowered or raised. `BevelBorder` has the following constructors, which create a `BevelBorder` with the specified `bevelType` (BevelBorder.LOWERED or BevelBorder.RAISED) and colors:

```
BevelBorder(int bevelType)
BevelBorder(int bevelType, Color highlight, Color shadow)
BevelBorder(int bevelType, Color highlightOuterColor,  
             Color highlightInnerColor,  
             Color shadowOuterColor, Color shadowInnerColor)
```

[BL]`SoftBevelBorder` is a raised or lowered bevel with softened corners. `SoftBevelBorder` has the following constructors:

```
SoftBevelBorder(int bevelType)
SoftBevelBorder(int bevelType, Color highlight, Color shadow)
SoftBevelBorder(int bevelType, Color highlightOuterColor,  
                Color highlightInnerColor,  
                Color shadowOuterColor, Color shadowInnerColor)
```

[BL]`EmptyBorder` is a border with border space but no drawings. `EmptyBorder` has the following constructors:

```
EmptyBorder(Insets borderInsets)
EmptyBorder(int top, int left, int bottom, int right)
```
**EtchedBorder** is an etched border that can be etched-in or etched-out. `EtchedBorder` has the property `etchType` with the value `LOWERED` or `RAISED`. `EtchedBorder` has the following constructors:

```java
EtchedBorder() // Default constructor with a lowered border
EtchedBorder(Color highlight, Color shadow)
EtchedBorder(int etchType)
EtchedBorder(int etchType, Color highlight, Color shadow)
```

**LineBorder** draws a line of arbitrary thickness and a single color around the border. `LineBorder` has the following constructors:

```java
LineBorder(Color color) // Thickness 1
LineBorder(Color color, int thickness)
LineBorder(Color color, int thickness, boolean roundedCorners)
```

**MatteBorder** is a mattelike border padded with the icon images. `MatteBorder` has the following constructors:

```java
MatteBorder(Icon tileIcon)
MatteBorder(Insets borderInsets, Color matteColor)
MatteBorder(Insets borderInsets, Icon tileIcon)
MatteBorder(int top, int left, int bottom,
            int right, Color matteColor)
MatteBorder(int top, int left, int bottom, int right, Icon tileIcon)
```

**CompoundBorder** is used to compose two `Border` objects into a single border by nesting an inside `Border` object within the insets of an outside `Border` object using the following constructor:

```java
CompoundBorder(Border outsideBorder, Border insideBorder)
```

**TitledBorder** is a border with a string title in a specified position. `TitledBorder` can be composed with other borders. `TitledBorder` has the following constructors:

```java
TitledBorder(String title)
TitledBorder(Border border) // Empty title on another border
TitledBorder(Border border, String title)
TitledBorder(Border border, String title,
            int titleJustification, int titlePosition)
TitledBorder(Border border, String title,
            int titleJustification, int titlePosition,
            Font titleFont)
TitledBorder(Border border, String title,
            int titleJustification, int titlePosition,
            Font titleFont, Color titleColor)
```

For convenience, Java also provides the `javax.swing.BorderFactory` class, which contains the static methods for creating borders shown in Figure 37.19.
javax.swing.BorderFactory

+createBevelBorder(type: int): Border
+createBevelBorder(type: int, highlight: Color, shadow: Color): Border
+createBevelBorder(type: int, highlightOuter: Color, highlightInner: Color, shadowOuter: Color, shadowInner: Color): Border
+createCompoundBorder(): CompoundBorder
+createCompoundBorder(outsideBorder: Border, insideBorder: Border): CompoundBorder
+createEmptyBorder(): Border
+createEmptyBorder(top: int, left: int, bottom: int, right: int): Border
+createEtchedBorder(): Border
+createEtchedBorder(highlight: Color, shadow: Color): Border
+createEtchedBorder(type: int): Border
+createEtchedBorder(type: int, highlight: Color, shadow: Color): Border
+createLineBorder(color: Color): Border
+createLineBorder(color: Color, thickness: int): Border
+createLoweredBevelBorder(): Border
+createMatteBorder(top: int, left: int, bottom: int, right: int, color: Color): MatteBorder
+createMatteBorder(top: int, left: int, bottom: int, right: int, tileIcon: Icon): MatteBorder
+createRaisedBevelBorder(): Border
+createTitledBorder(border: Border): TitledBorder
+createTitledBorder(border: Border, title: String): TitledBorder
+createTitledBorder(title: String): TitledBorder

Figure 37.19

BorderFactory contains the static methods for creating various types of borders.

For example, to create an etched border, use the following statement:

    Border border = BorderFactory.createEtchedBorder();

NOTE

All the border classes and interfaces are grouped in the package javax.swing.border except javax.swing.BorderFactory.

NOTE

Borders and icons can be shared. Thus you can create a border or icon and use it to set the border or icon property for any GUI component. For example, the following statements set a border b for two panels p1 and p2:

    p1.setBorder(b);
    p2.setBorder(b);

***End of NOTE
Listing 37.9 gives an example that creates and displays various types of borders. You can select a border with or without a title. For a border without a title, you can choose a border style from Lowered Bevel, Raised Bevel, Etched, Line, Matte, or Empty. For a border with a title, you can specify the title position and justification. You can also embed another border into a titled border. Figure 37.20 displays a sample run of the program.

*Figure 37.20*

The program demonstrates various types of borders.

Here are the major steps in the program:

1. Create the user interface.
   a. Create a `JLabel` object and place it in the center of the frame.
   b. Create a panel named `jpPosition` to group the radio buttons for selecting the border title position. Set the border of this panel in the titled border with the title “Position”.
   c. Create a panel named `jpJustification` to group the radio buttons for selecting the border title justification. Set the border of this panel in the titled border with the title “Justification”.
   d. Create a panel named `jpTitleOptions` to hold the `jpPosition` panel and the `jpJustification` panel.
   e. Create a panel named `jpTitle` to hold a check box named “Titled” and the `jpTitleOptions` panel.
   f. Create a panel named `jpBorderStyle` to group the radio buttons for selecting border styles.
   a. Create a panel named `jpAllChoices` to hold the panels `jpTitle` and `jpBorderStyle`. Place `jpAllChoices` in the south of the frame.

2. Process the event.
Create and register listeners to implement the `actionPerformed` handler to set the border for the label according to the events from the check box, and from all the radio buttons.

**Listing 37.9 BorderDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.ActionListener;
import java.awt.event.ActionEvent;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class BorderDemo extends JApplet {
    // Declare a label for displaying message
    private JLabel jLabel1 = new JLabel("Display the border type", JLabel.CENTER);
    // A check box for selecting a border with or without a title
    private JCheckBox jchkTitled;
    // Radio buttons for border styles
    private JRadioButton jrbLoweredBevel, jrbRaisedBevel,
        jrbEtched, jrbLine, jrbMatte, jrbEmpty;
    // Radio buttons for titled border options
    private JRadioButton jrbAboveBottom, jrbAboveTop, jrbBottom,
        jrbTop, jrbBelowBottom, jrbBelowTop,
        jrbLeft, jrbCenter, jrbRight;
    // TitledBorder for the label
    private TitledBorder jLabel1Border;

    /** Constructor */
    public BorderDemo() {
        // Create a JLabel instance and set colors
        jLabel1.setBackground(Color.yellow);
        jLabel1.setBorder(jLabel1Border);
        // Place title position radio buttons
        JPanel jpPosition = new JPanel();
        jpPosition.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 2));
        jpPosition.add(
            jrbAboveBottom = new JRadioButton("ABOVE_BOTTOM"));
        jpPosition.add(jrbAboveTop = new JRadioButton("ABOVE_TOP"));
        jpPosition.add(jrbBottom = new JRadioButton("BOTTOM"));
        jpPosition.add(jrbTop = new JRadioButton("TOP"));
        jpPosition.add(
            jrbBelowBottom = new JRadioButton("BELOW_BOTTOM"));
```
jpPosition.add(jrbBelowTop = new JRadioButton("BELOW_TOP"));
jpPosition.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Position"));

// Place title justification radio buttons
JPanel jpJustification = new JPanel();
jpJustification.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
jpJustification.add(jrbLeft = new JRadioButton("LEFT"));
jpJustification.add(jrbCenter = new JRadioButton("CENTER"));
jpJustification.add(jrbRight = new JRadioButton("RIGHT"));
jpJustification.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Justification"));

// Create panel jpTitleOptions to hold jpPosition and
// jpJustification
JPanel jpTitleOptions = new JPanel();
jpTitleOptions.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jpTitleOptions.add(jpPosition, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jpTitleOptions.add(jpJustification, BorderLayout.EAST);

// Create Panel jpTitle to hold a check box and title position
// radio buttons, and title justification radio buttons
JPanel jpTitle = new JPanel();
jpTitle.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Border Title"));
jpTitle.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jpTitle.add(jchkTitled = new JCheckBox("Titled"),
BorderLayout.NORTH);
jpTitle.add(jpTitleOptions, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Group radio buttons for title position
ButtonGroup btgTitlePosition = new ButtonGroup();
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbAboveBottom);
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbBottom);
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbBelowBottom);
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbAboveTop);
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbTop);
btgTitlePosition.add(jrbBelowTop);

// Group radio buttons for title justification
ButtonGroup btgTitleJustification = new ButtonGroup();
btgTitleJustification.add(jrbLeft);
btgTitleJustification.add(jrbCenter);
btgTitleJustification.add(jrbRight);

// Create Panel jpBorderStyle to hold border style radio buttons
JPanel jpBorderStyle = new JPanel();
jpBorderStyle.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Border Style"));
jpBorderStyle.setLayout(new GridLayout(6, 1));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbLoweredBevel =
new JRadioButton("Lowered Bevel"));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbRaisedBevel =
new JRadioButton("Raised Bevel"));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbEtched = new JRadioButton("Etched"));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbLine = new JRadioButton("Line"));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbMatte = new JRadioButton("Matte"));
jpBorderStyle.add(jrbEmpty = new JRadioButton("Empty"));

// Group radio buttons for border styles
ButtonGroup btgBorderStyle = new ButtonGroup();
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbLoweredBevel);
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbRaisedBevel);
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbEtched);
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbLine);
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbMatte);
btgBorderStyle.add(jrbEmpty);

// Create Panel jpAllChoices to place jpTitle and jpBorderStyle
JPanel jpAllChoices = new JPanel();
jpAllChoices.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jpAllChoices.add(jpTitle, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jpAllChoices.add(jpBorderStyle, BorderLayout.EAST);

// Place panels in the frame
setLayout(new BorderLayout());
add(jLabel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jpAllChoices, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listeners
ActionListener listener = new EventListener();
jchkTitled.addActionListener(listener);
jrbAboveBottom.addActionListener(listener);
jrbBottom.addActionListener(listener);
jrbBelowBottom.addActionListener(listener);
jrbAboveTop.addActionListener(listener);
jrbTop.addActionListener(listener);
jrbBelowTop.addActionListener(listener);
jrbLeft.addActionListener(listener);
jrbCenter.addActionListener(listener);
jrbRight.addActionListener(listener);
jrbLoweredBevel.addActionListener(listener);
jrbRaisedBevel.addActionListener(listener);
jrbLine.addActionListener(listener);
jrbEtched.addActionListener(listener);
jrbMatte.addActionListener(listener);
jrbEmpty.addActionListener(listener);

private class EventListener implements ActionListener {
  @Override /** Handle ActionEvents on check box and radio buttons */
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    // Get border style
    Border border = new EmptyBorder(2, 2, 2, 2);

    if (jrbLoweredBevel.isSelected()) {
      border = new BevelBorder(BevelBorder.LOWERED);
      jLabel1.setText("Lowered Bevel Style");
    }
    else if (jrbRaisedBevel.isSelected()) {
      border = new BevelBorder(BevelBorder.RAISED);
      jLabel1.setText("Raised Bevel Style");
    }
    else if (jrbEtched.isSelected()) {
      border = new EtchedBorder();
      jLabel1.setText("Etched Style");
    }
    else if (jrbLine.isSelected()) {
      border = new LineBorder(Color.black, 5);
      jLabel1.setText("Line Style");
    }
    else if (jrbMatte.isSelected()) {

border = new MatteBorder(15, 15, 15, 15,
    new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/caIcon.gif")));
jLabel1.setText("Matte Style");
} else if (jrbEmpty.isSelected()) {
    border = new EmptyBorder(2, 2, 2, 2);
jLabel1.setText("Empty Style");
}

if (jchkTitled.isSelected()) {
    // Get the title position and justification
    int titlePosition = TitledBorder.DEFAULT_POSITION;
    int titleJustification = TitledBorder.DEFAULT_JUSTIFICATION;

    if (jrbAboveBottom.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.ABOVE_BOTTOM;
    else if (jrbBottom.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.BOTTOM;
    else if (jrbBelowBottom.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.BELOW_BOTTOM;
    else if (jrbAboveTop.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.ABOVE_TOP;
    else if (jrbTop.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.TOP;
    else if (jrbBelowTop.isSelected())
        titlePosition = TitledBorder.BELOW_TOP;

    if (jrbLeft.isSelected())
        titleJustification = TitledBorder.LEFT;
    else if (jrbCenter.isSelected())
        titleJustification = TitledBorder.CENTER;
    else if (jrbRight.isSelected())
        titleJustification = TitledBorder.RIGHT;

    jLabel1Border = new TitledBorder("A Title");
jLabel1Border.setBorder(border);
jLabel1Border.setTitlePosition(titlePosition);
jLabel1Border.setTitleJustification(titleJustification);
jLabel.set Border (jLabel1Border);
} else {
    jLabel.set Border (border);
}
}

This example uses many panels to group UI components to achieve the desired look. Figure 37.20 illustrates the relationship of the panels. The Border Title panel groups all the options for setting title properties. The position options are grouped in the Position panel. The justification options are grouped in the Justification panel. The Border Style panel groups the radio buttons for choosing Lowered Bevel, Raised Bevel, Etched, Line, Matte, and Empty borders.

The label displays the selected border with or without a title, depending on the selection of the title check box. The label also displays a text indicating which type of border is being used,
depending on the selection of the radio button in the Border Style panel.

The **TitledBorder** can be mixed with other borders. To do so, simply create an instance of **TitledBorder**, and use the `setBorder` method to embed a new border in **TitledBorder**.

The **MatteBorder** can be used to display icons on the border, as shown in Figure 37.20b.

**Chapter Summary**

1. `javax.swing.JRootPane` is a lightweight container used behind the scenes by Swing's top-level containers, such as `JFrame`, `JApplet`, and `JDialog`. `javax.swing.JLayeredPane` is a container that manages the optional menu bar and the content pane. The content pane is an instance of `Container`. By default, it is a `JPanel` with `BorderLayout`. This is the container where the user interface components are added. To obtain the content pane in a `JFrame` or in a `JApplet`, use the `getContentPane()` method. You can set any instance of `Container` to be a new content pane using the `setContentPane` method.

2. Every container has a layout manager that is responsible for arranging its components. The container's `setLayout` method can be used to set a layout manager. Certain types of containers have default layout managers.

3. The layout manager places the components in accordance with its own rules and property settings, and with the constraints associated with each component. Every layout manager has its own specific set of rules. Some layout managers have properties that can affect the sizing and location of the components in the container.

4. Java also supports absolute layout, which enables you to place components at fixed locations. In this case, the component must be placed using the component's instance method `setBounds()` (defined in `java.awt.Component`). Absolute positions and sizes are fine if the application is developed and deployed on the same platform, but what looks fine on a development system may not look right on a deployment system on a different platform. To solve this problem, Java provides a set of layout managers that place components in containers in a way that is independent of fonts, screen resolutions, and operating systems.

5. In addition to the layout managers provided in Java, you can create custom layout managers by implementing the `LayoutManager` interface.

6. Java provides specialized containers `Box`, `JScrollPane`, `JTabbedPane`, and `JSplitPane` with fixed layout managers.

7. A Swing border is defined in the `Border` interface. Every instance of `JComponent` can set a border through the `border` property defined in `JComponent`. If a border is present, it replaces the inset. There are eight concrete border classes: `BevelBorder`, `SoftBevelBorder`, `CompoundBorder`, `EmptyBorder`, `EtchedBorder`, `LineBorder`, `MatteBorder`, and `TitledBorder`. You can use the constructors of these classes or the static methods in `javax.swing.BorderFactory` to create borders.

**Test Questions**
Review Questions

Section 37.2
37.1 Since JButton is a subclass of Container, can you add a button inside a button?

37.2 How do you set an image icon in a JFrame’s title bar? Can you set an image icon in a JApplet’s title bar?

37.3 Which of the following are the properties in JFrame, JApplet, and JPanel?

contentPane, iconImage, jMenuBar, resizable, title

Section 37.3
37.4 How does the layout in Java differ from those in Visual Basic?

37.5 Discuss the factors that determine the size of the components in a container.

37.6 Discuss the properties preferredSize, minimumSize, and maximumSize.

37.7 Discuss the properties alignmentX and alignmentY.

37.8 What is a CardLayout manager? How do you create a CardLayout manager?

37.9 Can you use absolute positioning in Java? How do you use absolute positioning? Why should you avoid using it?

37.10 What is BoxLayout? How do you use BoxLayout? How do you use fillers to separate the components?

Sections 37.4-37.7
37.11 How do you create a custom layout manager?

37.12 What is JScrollPane? How do you use JScrollPane?

37.13 What is JTabbedPane? How do you use JTabbedPane?

37.14 What is JSplitPane? How do you use JSplitPane?

37.15 Can you specify a layout manager in Box, JScrollPane, JTabbedPane, and JSplitPane?

Section 37.8 Swing Borders
37.16 How do you create a titled border, a line border, a bevel border, and an etched border?

37.17 Can you set a border for every Swing GUI component? Can a border object be shared by different GUI components?

37.18 What package contains Border, BevelBorder, CompoundBorder, EmptyBorder, EtchedBorder, LineBorder, MatteBorder, TitledBorder, and BorderFactory?
Programming Exercises

Section 37.3

37.1* (Demonstrate `FlowLayout` properties) Create a program that enables the user to set the properties of a `FlowLayout` manager dynamically, as shown in Figure 37.21. The `FlowLayout` manager is used to place 15 components in a panel. You can set the `alignment`, `hgap`, and `vgap` properties of the `FlowLayout` dynamically.

![Figure 37.21](image)

The program enables you to set the properties of a `FlowLayout` manager dynamically.

37.2* (Demonstrate `GridLayout` properties) Create a program that enables the user to set the properties of a `GridLayout` manager dynamically, as shown in Figure 37.22a. The `GridLayout` manager is used to place 15 components in a panel. You can set the `rows`, `columns`, `hgap`, and `vgap` properties of the `GridLayout` dynamically.

![Figure 37.22](image)

(a) The program enables you to set the properties of a `GridLayout` manager dynamically. (b) The program enables you to set the properties of a `BorderLayout` manager dynamically.

37.3* (Demonstrate `BorderLayout` properties) Create a program that enables the user to set the properties of a `BorderLayout` manager dynamically, as shown in Figure 37.22b. The `BorderLayout` manager is used to place five components in a panel. You can set the `hgap` and `vgap` properties of the `BorderLayout` dynamically.
37.4* (Use CardLayout) Write an applet that does arithmetic on integers and rationals. The program uses two panels in a CardLayout manager, one for integer arithmetic and the other for rational arithmetic. The program provides a combo box with two items Integer and Rational. When the user chooses the Integer item, the integer panel is activated. When the user chooses the Rational item, the rational panel is activated (see Figure 37.23).

CardLayout is used to select panels that perform integer operations and rational number operations.

37.5* (Use null layout) Use absolute layout to lay out a calculator, as shown in Figure 18.18a.

Sections 37.4–37.8
37.6* (Use tabbed panes) Modify Listing 37.7, DisplayFigure.java, to add a panel of radio buttons for specifying the tab placement of the tabbed pane, as shown in Figure 37.24.

The radio buttons let you choose the tab placement of the tabbed pane.

37.7* (Use tabbed pane) Rewrite Exercise 37.4 using tabbed panes instead of CardLayout (see Figure 37.25).

A tabbed pane is used to select panels that perform integer operations and rational number operations.

37.8* (Use JSplitPane) Create a program that displays four figures in split panes, as shown in Figure 37.26. Use the FigurePanel class defined in Listing 15.3, FigurePanel.java.
Four figures are displayed in split panes.

37.9* (Demonstrate `JSplitPane` properties) Create a program that enables the user to set the properties of a split pane dynamically, as shown in Figure 37.27.

The program enables you to set the properties of a split pane dynamically.

37.10* (Demonstrate `DiagonalLayout` properties) Rewrite Listing 37.5 `ShowDiagonalLayout.java` to add a panel that show the properties of a `DiagonalLayout`. The panel disappears when the DiagonalLayout radio button is unchecked, and reappears when the DiagonalLayout radio button is checked, as shown in Figure 37.28.

The program enables you to set the properties of the DiagonalLayout dynamically.
CHAPTER 38
Menus, Toolbars, and Dialogs

Objectives

- To create menus using components JMenuBar, JMenu, JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, and JRadioButtonMenuItem ($38.2).
- To create popup menus using components JPopupMenu, JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, and JRadioButtonMenuItem ($38.3).
- To use JToolBar to create toolbars ($38.4).
- To use Action objects to generalize the code for processing actions ($38.5).
- To create standard dialogs using the JOptionPane class ($38.6).
- To extend the JDialog class to create custom dialogs ($38.7).
- To select colors using JColorChooser ($38.8).
- To use JFileChooser to display Open and Save File dialogs ($38.9).
38.1 Introduction
Java provides a comprehensive solution for building graphical user interfaces. This chapter introduces menus, popup menus, toolbars, and dialogs. You will also learn how to use Action objects to generalize the code for processing actions.

38.2 Menus

<margin note: menu>
Menus make selection easier and are widely used in window applications. Java provides five classes that implement menus: JMenuBar, JMenu, JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, and JRadioButtonMenuItem.

<margin note: menu item>
JMenuBar is a top-level menu component used to hold the menus. A menu consists of menu items that the user can select (or toggle on or off). A menu item can be an instance of JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, or JRadioButtonMenuItem. Menu items can be associated with icons, keyboard mnemonics, and keyboard accelerators. Menu items can be separated using separators.

38.2.1 Creating Menus
The sequence of implementing menus in Java is as follows:

1. Create a menu bar and associate it with a frame or an applet by using the setJMenuBar method. For example, the following code creates a frame and a menu bar, and sets the menu bar in the frame:

```java
JFrame frame = new JFrame();
frame.setSize(300, 200);
frame.setVisible(true);
JMenuBar jmb = new JMenuBar();
frame.setJMenuBar(jmb); // Attach a menu bar to a frame
```

2. Create menus and associate them with the menu bar. You can use the following constructor to create a menu:

```java
public JMenuItem(String label)
Here is an example of creating menus:

JMenu fileMenu = new JMenu("File");
JMenu helpMenu = new JMenu("Help");
```

This creates two menus labeled File and Help, as shown in Figure 38.1(a). The menus will not be seen until they are added to an instance of JMenuBar, as follows:

```java
jmb.add(fileMenu);
jmb.add(helpMenu);
```
3. Create menu items and add them to the menus.

```java
fileMenu.add(new JMenuItem("New"));
fileMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Open"));
fileMenu.addSeparator();
fileMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Print"));
fileMenu.addSeparator();
fileMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Exit"));
```

This code adds the menu items New, Open, a separator bar, Print, another separator bar, and Exit, in this order, to the File menu, as shown in Figure 38.1(b). The `addSeparator()` method adds a separator bar in the menu.

3.1. Creating submenu items.

You can also embed menus inside menus so that the embedded menus become submenus. Here is an example:

```java
JMenu softwareHelpSubMenu = new JMenu("Software");
JMenu hardwareHelpSubMenu = new JMenu("Hardware");
helpMenu.add(hardwareHelpSubMenu);
softwareHelpSubMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Unix"));
softwareHelpSubMenu.add(new JMenuItem("NT"));
softwareHelpSubMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Win95"));
```

This code adds two submenus, `softwareHelpSubMenu` and `hardwareHelpSubMenu`, in `helpMenu`. The menu items Unix, NT, and Win95 are added to `softwareHelpSubMenu` (see Figure 38.1(c)).

3.2. Creating check-box menu items.

You can also add a `JCheckBoxMenuItem` to a `JMenu`. `JCheckBoxMenuItem` is a subclass of `JMenuItem` that adds a Boolean state to the `JMenuItem`, and displays a check when its state is true. You can click a menu item to turn it on or off. For example, the following statement adds the check-box menu item Check it (see Figure 38.2(a)).

```java
helpMenu.add(new JCheckBoxMenuItem("Check it"));
```
3.3. Creating radio-button menu items.
You can also add radio buttons to a menu, using the JRadioButtonMenuItem class. This is often useful when you have a group of mutually exclusive choices in the menu. For example, the following statements add a submenu named Color and a set of radio buttons for choosing a color (see Figure 38.2(b)):

```
JMenu colorHelpSubMenu = new JMenu("Color");
helpMenu.add(colorHelpSubMenu);
JRadioButtonMenuItem jrbmiBlue, jrbmiYellow, jrbmiRed;
colorHelpSubMenu.add(jrbmiBlue = new JRadioButtonMenuItem("Blue"));
colorHelpSubMenu.add(jrbmiYellow = new JRadioButtonMenuItem("Yellow"));
colorHelpSubMenu.add(jrbmiRed = new JRadioButtonMenuItem("Red"));

ButtonGroup btg = new ButtonGroup();
btg.add(jrbmiBlue);
btg.add(jrbmiYellow);
btg.add(jrbmiRed);
```

4. The menu items generate ActionEvent. Your listener class must implement the ActionListener and the actionPerformed handler to respond to the menu selection.

38.2.2 Image Icons, Keyboard Mnemonics, and Keyboard Accelerators
The menu components JMenu, JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, and JRadioButtonMenuItem have the icon and mnemonic properties. For example, using the following code, you can set icons for the New and Open menu items, and set keyboard mnemonics for File, Help, New, and Open:

```
JMenuItem jmiNew, jmiOpen;
fileMenu.add(jmiNew = new JMenuItem("New"));
fileMenu.add(jmiOpen = new JMenuItem("Open"));
jmiNew.setIcon(new ImageIcon("image/new.gif"));
jmiOpen.setIcon(new ImageIcon("image/open.gif"));
helpMenu.setMnemonic(’H’);
fileMenu.setMnemonic(’F’);
jmiNew.setMnemonic(’N’);
jmiOpen.setMnemonic(’O’);
```
The new icons and mnemonics are shown in Figure 38.2(c). You can also use JMenuItem constructors like the ones that follow to construct and set an icon or mnemonic in one statement.

```java
public JMenuItem(String label, Icon icon);
public JMenuItem(String label, int mnemonic);
```

By default, the text is at the right of the icon. Use `setHorizontalTextPosition(SwingConstants.LEFT)` to set the text to the left of the icon.

**<margin note: accelerator>**

To select a menu, press the ALT key and the mnemonic key. For example, press ALT+F to select the File menu, and then press ALT+O to select the Open menu item. Keyboard mnemonics are useful, but they only let you select menu items from the currently open menu. Key accelerators, however, let you select a menu item directly by pressing the CTRL and accelerator keys. For example, by using the following code, you can attach the accelerator key CTRL+O to the Open menu item:

```java
jmiOpen.setAccelerator(KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_O, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
```

The `setAccelerator` method takes a `KeyStroke` object. The static method `getKeyStroke` in the `KeyStroke` class creates an instance of the keystroke. `VK_O` is a constant representing the O key, and `CTRL_MASK` is a constant indicating that the CTRL key is associated with the keystroke.

**NOTE:** As shown in Figure 17.1, `AbstractButton` is the superclass for `JButton` and `JMenuItem`, and `JMenuItem` is a superclass for `JCheckBoxMenuItem`, `JMenu`, and `JRadioButtonMenuItem`. The menu components are very similar to buttons.

### 38.2.3 Example: Using Menus

This section gives an example that creates a user interface to perform arithmetic. The interface contains labels and text fields for Number 1, Number 2, and Result. The Result text field displays the result of the arithmetic operation between Number 1 and Number 2. Figure 38.3 contains a sample run of the program.

![Figure 38.3](image)

**Figure 38.3**

Arithmetic operations can be performed by clicking buttons or by choosing menu items from the Operation menu.

Here are the major steps in the program (Listing 38.1):
1. Create a menu bar and set it in the applet. Create the menus Operation and Exit, and add them to the menu bar. Add the menu items Add, Subtract, Multiply, and Divide under the Operation menu, and add the menu item Close under the Exit menu.

2. Create a panel to hold labels and text fields, and place the panel in the center of the applet.

3. Create a panel to hold the four buttons labeled Add, Subtract, Multiply, and Divide. Place the panel in the south of the applet.

4. Implement the actionPerformed handler to process the events from the menu items and the buttons.

```
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class MenuDemo extends JApplet {

    // Text fields for Number 1, Number 2, and Result
    private JTextField jtfNum1, jtfNum2, jtfResult;

    // Buttons "Add", "Subtract", "Multiply" and "Divide"
    private JButton jbtAdd, jbtSub, jbtMul, jbtDiv;

    // Menu items "Add", "Subtract", "Multiply","Divide" and "Close"
    private JMenuItem jmiAdd, jmiSub, jmiMul, jmiDiv, jmiClose;

    public MenuDemo() {
        // Create menu bar
        JMenuBar jmb = new JMenuBar();

        // Set menu bar to the applet
        setJMenuBar(jmb);

        // Add menu "Operation" to menu bar
        JMenu operationMenu = new JMenu("Operation");
        operationMenu.setMnemonic("O");
        jmb.add(operationMenu);

        // Add menu "Exit" to menu bar
        JMenu exitMenu = new JMenu("Exit");
        exitMenu.setMnemonic("E");
        jmb.add(exitMenu);
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        EventQueue.invokeLater(new Runnable() {
            public void run() {
                MenuDemo frame = new MenuDemo();
                Frame window = new Frame("Menu Demo");
                window.add(frame);
                window.setSize(300, 200);
                window.setVisible(true);
                window.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
            }
        });
    }
}
```
// Add menu items with mnemonics to menu "Operation"
operationMenu.add(jmiAdd = new JMenuItem("Add", 'A'));
operationMenu.add(jmiSub = new JMenuItem("Subtract", 'S'));
operationMenu.add(jmiMul = new JMenuItem("Multiply", 'M'));
operationMenu.add(jmiDiv = new JMenuItem("Divide", 'D'));
exitMenu.add(jmiClose = new JMenuItem("Close", 'C'));

// Set keyboard accelerators
jmiAdd.setAccelerator(KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_A, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
jmiSub.setAccelerator(KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_S, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
jmiMul.setAccelerator(KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_M, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
jmiDiv.setAccelerator(KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_D, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));

// Panel p1 to hold text fields and labels
JPanel p1 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout());
p1.add(new JLabel("Number 1"));
p1.add(jtfNum1 = new JTextField(3));
p1.add(new JLabel("Number 2"));
p1.add(jtfNum2 = new JTextField(3));
p1.add(new JLabel("Result"));
p1.add(jtfResult = new JTextField(4));
jtfResult.setEditable(false);

// Panel p2 to hold buttons
JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout());
p2.add(jbtAdd = new JButton("Add"));
p2.add(jbtSub = new JButton("Subtract"));
p2.add(jbtMul = new JButton("Multiply"));
p2.add(jbtDiv = new JButton("Divide"));

// Add panels to the frame
setLayout(new BorderLayout());
add(p1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(p2, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Register listeners
jbtAdd.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {  
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        calculate('+');
    }
});
jbtSub.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {  
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        calculate('-');
    }
});
jbtMul.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {  
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        calculate('*');
    }
});
jbtDiv.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {  
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        calculate('/');
    }
});
jmiAdd.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {  
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        // Calculate
    }
});
The program creates a menu bar, jmb, which holds two menus: operationMenu and exitMenu (lines 17-30). The operationMenu contains four menu items for doing arithmetic: Add, Subtract, Multiply, and Divide. The exitMenu contains the menu item Close for exiting the program. The menu items in the Operation menu are created with keyboard mnemonics and accelerators.

The user enters two numbers in the number fields. When an operation is chosen from the menu, its result, involving two numbers, is displayed in the Result field. The user can also click the buttons to perform the same operation.
The private method calculate(char operator) (lines 129-148) retrieves operands from the text fields in Number 1 and Number 2, applies the binary operator on the operands, and sets the result in the Result text field.

NOTE:

<margin note: placing menus>

The menu bar is usually attached to the window using the setJMenuBar method. However, like any other component, it can be placed in a container. For instance, you can place a menu bar in the south of the container with BorderLayout.

38.3 Popup Menus

<margin note: popup menu>

A popup menu, also known as a context menu, is like a regular menu, but does not have a menu bar and can float anywhere on the screen. Creating a popup menu is similar to creating a regular menu. First, you create an instance of JPopupMenu, then you can add JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, JRadioButtonMenuItem, and separators to the popup menu. For example, the following code creates a JPopupMenu and adds JMenuItem into it:

```java
JPopupMenu jPopupMenu = new JPopupMenu();
jPopupMenu.add(new JMenuItem("New"));
jPopupMenu.add(new JMenuItem("Open"));
```

A regular menu is always attached to a menu bar using the setJMenuBar method, but a popup menu is associated with a parent component and is displayed using the show method in the JPopupMenu class. You specify the parent component and the location of the popup menu, using the coordinate system of the parent like this:

```java
jPopupMenu.show(component, x, y);
```

<margin note: popup trigger>

Customarily, you display a popup menu by pointing to a GUI component and clicking a certain mouse button, the so-called popup trigger. Popup triggers are system dependent. In Windows, the popup menu is displayed when the right mouse button is released. In Motif, the popup menu is displayed when the third mouse button is pressed and held down.

Listing 38.2 gives an example that creates a text area in a scroll pane. When the mouse points to the text area, clicking a mouse button displays a popup menu, as shown in Figure 38.4.
Figure 38.4  
A popup menu is displayed when the popup trigger is issued on the text area.

Here are the major steps in the program (Listing 38.2):
1. Create a popup menu using JPopupMenu. Create menu items for New, Open, Print, and Exit using JMenuItem. For the menu items with both labels and icons, it is convenient to use the JMenuItem(label, icon) constructor.
2. Add the menu items into the popup menu.
3. Create a scroll pane and add a text area into it. Place the scroll pane in the center of the applet.
4. Implement the actionPerformed handler to process the events from the menu items.
5. Implement the mousePressed and mouseReleased methods to process the events for handling popup triggers.

Listing 38.2 PopupMenuDemo.java
<margin note line 6: popup menu>
<margin note line 17: add menu items>
<margin note line 27: register listener>
<margin note line 33: register listener>
<margin note line 39: register listener>
<margin note line 45: register listener>
<margin note line 54: show popup menu>
<margin note line 59: show popup menu>
<margin note line 69: main method omitted>

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class PopupMenuDemo extends JApplet {

    public PopupMenuDemo() {
        JPopupMenu jPopupMenu1 = new JPopupMenu();
        JMenuItem jmiNew = new JMenuItem("New",
            new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/new.gif")));
        JMenuItem jmiOpen = new JMenuItem("Open",
            new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/open.gif")));
        JMenuItem jmiPrint = new JMenuItem("Print",
            new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/print.gif")));
        JMenuItem jmiExit = new JMenuItem("Exit");
        JTextArea jTextArea1 = new JTextArea();

        jPopupMenu1.add(jmiNew);
        jPopupMenu1.add(jmiOpen);
        jPopupMenu1.addSeparator();
        jPopupMenu1.add(jmiPrint);
        jPopupMenu1.addSeparator();
        jPopupMenu1.add(jmiExit);
        jPopupMenu1.addSeparator();
        jPopupMenu1.addSeparator();
        jPopupMenu1.add(jmiExit);
```
add(new JScrollPane(jTextArea1), BorderLayout.CENTER);

    jmiNew.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println("Process New");
        }
    });

    jmiOpen.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println("Process Open");
        }
    });

    jmiPrint.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.out.println("Process Print");
        }
    });

    jmiExit.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            System.exit(1);
        }
    });

    jTextArea1.addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
        @Override
        public void mousePressed(MouseEvent e) { // For Motif
            showPopup(e);
        }

        @Override
        public void mouseReleased(MouseEvent e) { // For Windows
            showPopup(e);
        }
    });

    /** Display popup menu when triggered */
    private void showPopup(java.awt.event.MouseEvent evt) {
        if (evt.isPopupTrigger())
            jPopupMenu1.show(evt.getComponent(), evt.getX(), evt.getY());
    }

The process of creating popup menus is similar to the process for creating regular menus. To create a popup menu, create a JPopupMenu as the basis (line 6) and add JMenuItem s to it (lines 17-23).

To show a popup menu, use the show method by specifying the parent component and the location for the popup menu (line 61). The show method is invoked when the popup menu is triggered by a particular mouse click on the text area. Popup triggers are system dependent. The listener implements the mouseReleased handler for displaying the popup menu in Windows (lines 52-54) and the mousePressed handler for displaying the popup menu in Motif (lines 48-50).
TIP

<margin note: simplify popup menu>

Java provides a new setComponentPopupMenu(JPopupMenu) method in the JComponent class, which can be used to add a popup menu on a component. This method automatically handles mouse listener registration and popup display. Using this method, you may delete the showPopup method in lines 59–62 and replace the code in lines 47–55 with the following statement:

jTextArea1.setComponentPopupMenu(jPopupMenu1);

***End of TIP

38.4 JToolBar

<margin note: toolbar>

In user interfaces, a toolbar is often used to hold commands that also appear in the menus. Frequently used commands are placed in a toolbar for quick access. Clicking a command in the toolbar is faster than choosing it from the menu.

Swing provides the JToolBar class as the container to hold toolbar components. JToolBar uses BoxLayout to manage components by default. You can set a different layout manager if desired. The components usually appear as icons. Since icons are not components, they cannot be placed into a toolbar directly. Instead you place buttons into the toolbar and set the icons on the buttons. An instance of JToolBar is like a regular container. Often it is placed in the north, west, or east of a container of BorderLayout.

The following properties in the JToolBar class are often useful:

- **orientation** specifies whether the items in the toolbar appear horizontally or vertically. The possible values are JToolBar.HORIZONTAL and JToolBar.VERTICAL. The default value is JToolBar.HORIZONTAL.
- **floatable** is a boolean value that specifies whether the toolbar can be floated. By default, a toolbar is floatable.

Listing 38.3 gives an example that creates a JToolBar to hold three buttons with the icons representing the commands New, Open, and Print, as shown in Figure 38.5.
Figure 38.5
The toolbar contains the icons representing the commands New, Open, and Print.

Listing 38.3 ToolBarDemo.java

```
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class ToolBarDemo extends JApplet {

private JButton jbtNew = new JButton(new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/new.gif")));
private JButton jbtOpen = new JButton(new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/open.gif")));
private JButton jbPrint = new JButton(new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/print.gif")));

public ToolBarDemo() {
    JToolBar jToolBar1 = new JToolBar("My Tool Bar");
jToolBar1.setFloatable(true);
jToolBar1.add(jbtNew);
jToolBar1.add(jbtOpen);
jToolBar1.add(jbPrint);

    jbtNew.setToolTipText("New");
jbtOpen.setToolTipText("Open");
jbPrint.setToolTipText("Print");

    jbtNew.setBorderPainted(false);
jbtOpen.setBorderPainted(false);
jbPrint.setBorderPainted(false);

    add(jToolBar1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
}
}
```

A JToolBar is created in line 13. The toolbar is a container withBoxLayout by default. Using the orientation property, you can specify whether components in the toolbar are organized horizontally or vertically. By default, it is horizontal.

By default, the toolbar is floatable, and a floatable controller is displayed in front of its components. You can drag the floatable controller to move the toolbar to different locations of the window or can show the toolbar in a separate window, as shown in Figure 38.6.
The toolbar buttons are floatable.

You can also set a title for the floatable toolbar, as shown in Figure 38.7(a). To do so, create a toolbar using the JToolBar(String title) constructor. If you set floatable false, the floatable controller is not displayed, as shown in Figure 38.7(b). If you set a border (e.g., a line border), as shown in Figure 38.7(c), the line border is displayed and the floatable controller is not displayed.

![Figure 38.7](image)

The toolbar buttons can be customized in many forms.

TIP: For the floatable feature to work properly, do the following: (1) place a toolbar to one side of the container of BorderLayout and add no components to the other sides; (2) don’t set border on a toolbar. Setting a border would make it non-floatable.

### 38.5 Processing Actions Using the Action Interface

Often menus and toolbars contain some common actions. For example, you can save a file by choosing File, Save, or by clicking the save button in the toolbar. Swing provides the Action interface, which can be used to create action objects for processing actions. Using Action objects, common action processing can be centralized and separated from the other application code.

The Action interface is a subinterface of ActionListener, as shown in Figure 38.8. Additionally, it defines several methods for checking whether the action is enabled, for enabling and disabling the action, and for retrieving and setting the associated action value using a key. The key can be any string, but four keys have predefined meanings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action.NAME</td>
<td>A name for the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action.SMALL_ICON</td>
<td>A small icon for the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action.SHORT_DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>A tool tip for the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action.LONG_DESCRIPTION</td>
<td>A description for online help</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Action interface provides a useful extension to the ActionListener interface in cases where the same functionality may be accessed by several controls. The AbstractAction class provides a default implementation for Action.

AbstractAction is a default implementation of the Action interface, as shown in Figure 38.8. It implements all the methods in the Action interface except the actionPerformed method. Additionally, it defines the getKeys() method.

Since AbstractAction is an abstract class, you cannot create an instance using its constructor. However, you can create a concrete subclass of AbstractAction and implement the actionPerformed method. This subclass can be conveniently defined as an anonymous inner class. For example, the following code creates an Action object for terminating a program.

```java
Action exitAction = new AbstractAction("Exit") {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        System.exit(1);
    }
};
```

Certain containers, such as JMenu and JToolBar, know how to add an Action object. When an Action object is added to such a container, the container automatically creates an appropriate component for the Action object and registers a listener with the Action object. Here is an example of adding an Action object to a menu and a toolbar:

```java
jMenu.add(exitAction);
jToolBar.add(exitAction);
```

Several Swing components, such as JButton, JRadioButton, and JCheckBox, contain constructors to create instances from Action objects. For example, you can create a JButton from an Action object, as follows:
Action objects can also be associated with mnemonic and accelerator keys. To associate actions with a mnemonic key (e.g., ALT+E), use the following statement:

```java
exitAction.putValue(Action.MNEMONIC_KEY, new Integer(KeyEvent.VK_E));
```

To associate actions with an accelerator key (e.g., CTRL+E), use the following statement:

```java
KeyStroke exitKey = KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_E, KeyEvent.CTRL_MASK);
exitAction.putValue(Action.ACCELERATOR_KEY, exitKey);
```

Listing 38.4 gives an example that creates three menu items, Left, Center, and Right, three toolbar buttons, Left, Center, and Right, and three regular buttons, Left, Center, and Right, in a panel, as shown in Figure 38.9. The panel that holds the buttons uses the FlowLayout. The actions of the left, center, and right buttons set the alignment of the FlowLayout to left, right, and center, respectively. The actions of the menu items, the toolbar buttons, and the buttons in the panel can be processed through common action handlers using the Action interface.

![Figure 38.9](image.png)

Left, Center, and Right appear in the menu, in the toolbar, and in regular buttons.

**Listing 38.4 ActionInterfaceDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ActionInterfaceDemo extends JApplet {
    private JPanel buttonPanel = new JPanel();
    private FlowLayout flowLayout = new FlowLayout();

    public ActionInterfaceDemo() {
        // Create image icons
        ImageIcon leftImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource(
```
// Create actions
Action leftAction = new MyAction("Left", leftImageIcon,
"Left alignment for the buttons in the panel",
new Integer(KeyEvent.VK_L),
KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_L, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
Action centerAction = new MyAction("Center", centerImageIcon,
"Center alignment for the buttons in the panel",
new Integer(KeyEvent.VK_C),
KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_C, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));
Action rightAction = new MyAction("Right", rightImageIcon,
"Right alignment for the buttons in the panel",
new Integer(KeyEvent.VK_R),
KeyStroke.getKeyStroke(KeyEvent.VK_R, ActionEvent.CTRL_MASK));

// Create menus
JMenuBar jMenuBar1 = new JMenuBar();
JMenu jmenuAlignment = new JMenu("Alignment");
setJMenuBar(jMenuBar1);
jMenuBar1.add(jmenuAlignment);

// Add actions to the menu
jmenuAlignment.add(leftAction);
jmenuAlignment.add(centerAction);
jmenuAlignment.add(rightAction);

// Add actions to the toolbar
JToolBar jToolBar1 = new JToolBar(JToolBar.VERTICAL);
jToolBar1.setBorder(BorderFactory.createLineBorder(Color.red));
jToolBar1.add(leftAction);
jToolBar1.add(centerAction);
jToolBar1.add(rightAction);

// Add buttons to the button panel
buttonPanel.setLayout(FlowLayout);
JButton jbtLeft = new JButton(leftAction);
JButton jbtCenter = new JButton(centerAction);
JButton jbtRight = new JButton(rightAction);
buttonPanel.add(jbtLeft);
buttonPanel.add(jbtCenter);
buttonPanel.add(jbtRight);

// Add tool bar to the east and panel to the center
add(jToolBar1, BorderLayout.EAST);
add(buttonPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);

private class MyAction extends AbstractAction {
    String name;
    MyAction(String name, Icon icon) {
        super(name, icon);
        this.name = name;
    }

    MyAction(String name, Icon icon, String desc, Integer mnemonic,
    KeyStroke accelerator) {
        super(name, icon);
        putValue(Action.SHORT_DESCRIPTION, desc);
        putValue(Action.MNEMONIC_KEY, mnemonic);
        putValue(Action.ACCELERATOR_KEY, accelerator);
    }
The inner class `MyAction` extends `AbstractAction` with a constructor to construct an action with a name and an icon (lines 67-70) and another constructor to construct an action with a name, icon, description, mnemonic, and accelerator (lines 72-79). The constructors invoke the `putValue` method to associate the name, icon, description, mnemonic, and accelerator. It implements the `actionPerformed` method to set a new alignment in the panel of the `FlowLayout` (line 82-91). The `revalidate()` method validates the new alignment (line 90).

Three actions, `leftAction`, `centerAction`, and `rightAction`, were created from the `MyAction` class (lines 19-30). Each action has a name, icon, description, mnemonic, and accelerator. The actions are for the menu items and the buttons in the toolbar and in the panel. The menu and toolbar know how to add these objects automatically (lines 39-41, 46-48). Three regular buttons are created with the properties taken from the actions (lines 51-54).

### 38.6 JOptionPane Dialogs

You have used `JOptionPane` to create input and output dialog boxes. This section provides a comprehensive introduction to `JOptionPane` and other dialog boxes. A dialog box is normally used as a temporary window to receive additional information from the user or to provide notification that some event has occurred. Java provides the `JOptionPane` class, which can be used to create standard dialogs. You can also build custom dialogs by extending the `JDialog` class.

The `JOptionPane` class can be used to create four kinds of standard dialogs:

- **Message dialog** shows a message and waits for the user to click OK.
- **Confirmation dialog** shows a question and asks for confirmation, such as OK or Cancel.
- **Input dialog** shows a question and gets the user's input from a text field, combo box, or list.
- **Option dialog** shows a question and gets the user's answer from a set of options.

These dialogs are created using the static methods `showXxxDialog` and generally appear as shown in Figure 38.10(a).
(a) A JOptionPane dialog can display an icon, a message, an input, and option buttons. (b) The message dialog displays a message and waits for the user to click OK.

For example, you can use the following method to create a message dialog box, as shown in Figure 38.10(b):

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "SSN not found", "For Your Information", JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE);
```

### 38.6.1 Message Dialogs

A message dialog box displays a message that alerts the user and waits for the user to click the OK button to close the dialog. The methods for creating message dialogs are:

```java
public static void showMessageDialog(Component parentComponent,
Object message)
public static void showMessageDialog(Component parentComponent,
Object message,
String title,
int messageType)
public static void showMessageDialog(Component parentComponent,
Object message,
String title,
int messageType,
Icon icon)
```

The `parentComponent` can be any component or null. The `message` is an object, but often a string is used. These two parameters must always be specified. The `title` is a string displayed in the title bar of the dialog with the default value "Message". The `messageType` is one of the following constants:

- `JOptionPane.ERROR_MESSAGE`
- `JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE`
- `JOptionPane.PLAIN_MESSAGE`
- `JOptionPane.WARNING_MESSAGE`
- `JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE`

By default, `messageType` is `JOptionPane.INFORMATION_MESSAGE`. Each type has an associated icon except the PLAIN_MESSAGE type, as shown in Figure 38.11. You can also supply your own icon in the `icon` parameter.
The message parameter is an object. If it is a GUI component, the component is displayed. If it is a non-GUI component, the string representation of the object is displayed. For example, the following statement displays a clock in a message dialog, as shown in Figure 38.12. StillClock was defined in Listing 15.10.

```java
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, new StillClock(), "Current Time", JOptionPane.PLAIN_MESSAGE);
```

Figure 38.11
There are five types of message dialog boxes.

Figure 38.12
A clock is displayed in a message dialog.

38.6.2 Confirmation Dialogs
A message dialog box displays a message and waits for the user to click the OK button to dismiss the dialog. The message dialog does not return any value. A confirmation dialog asks a question and requires the user to respond with an appropriate button. The confirmation dialog returns a value that corresponds to a selected button.

The methods for creating confirmation dialogs are:

```java
public static int showConfirmDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message)
public static int showConfirmDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message, String title, int optionType)
public static int showConfirmDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message, String title, int optionType, int messageType)
public static int showConfirmDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message, String title, int optionType, int messageType, Icon icon)
```
The parameters **parentComponent**, **message**, **title**, **icon**, and **messageType** are the same as in the `showMessageDialog` method. The default value for **title** is "Select an Option" and for **messageType** is QUESTION MESSAGE. The **optionType** determines which buttons are displayed in the dialog. The possible values are:

- `JOptionPane.YES_NO_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.YES_NO_CANCEL_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.OK_CANCEL_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.OK_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.CLOSED_OPTION`

Figure 38.13 shows the confirmation dialogs with these options.

![Confirmation Dialogs](image)

**Figure 38.13**
The confirmation dialog displays a question and three types of option buttons, and requires responses from the user.

The `showConfirmDialog` method returns one of the following **int** values corresponding to the selected option:

- `JOptionPane.YES_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.NO_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.CANCEL_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.OK_OPTION`
- `JOptionPane.CLOSED_OPTION`

These options correspond to the button that was activated, except for the CLOSED OPTION, which implies that the dialog box is closed without buttons activated.

### 38.6.3 Input Dialogs

An input dialog box is used to receive input from the user. The input can be entered from a text field or selected from a combo box or a list. Selectable values can be specified in an array, and one of them can be designated as the initial selected value. If no selectable value is specified when an input dialog is created, a text field is used for entering input. If fewer than twenty selection values are specified, a combo box is displayed in the input dialog. If twenty or more selection values are specified, a list is used in the input dialog. The methods for creating input dialogs are shown below:

```java
public static String showInputDialog(Object message)
public static String showInputDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message)
public static String showInputDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message, String title, int messageType)
public static Object showInputDialog(Component parentComponent, Object message, int messageType, Icon icon, Object[] selectionValues, Object initialSelectionValue)
```

The first three methods listed above use a text field for input, as shown in Figure 38.14(a). The last method listed above specifies an array of **Object** type as selection values in addition to an object specified as an initial selection. The first three
methods return a String that is entered from the text field in the input dialog. The last method returns an Object selected from a combo box or a list. The input dialog displays a combo box if there are fewer than twenty selection values, as shown in Figure 38.14(b); it displays a list if there are twenty or more selection values, as shown in Figure 38.14(c).

![Figure 38.14](image)

(a) text field   (b) combo box           (c) list

Figure 38.14
(a) When creating an input dialog without specifying selection values, the input dialog displays a text field for data entry. (b) When creating an input dialog with selection values, the input dialog displays a combo box if there are fewer than twenty selection values. (c) When creating an input dialog with selection values, the input dialog displays a list if there are twenty or more selection values.

NOTE
The showInputDialog method does not have the optionType parameter. The buttons for input dialog are not configurable. The OK and Cancel buttons are always used.

38.6.4 Option Dialogs
An option dialog allows you to create custom buttons. You can create an option dialog using the following method:

```java
public static int showOptionDialog(Component parentComponent,
Object message,
String title,
int optionType,
int messageType,
Icon icon,
Object[] options,
Object initialValue)
```

The buttons are specified using the options parameter. The initialValue parameter allows you to specify a button to receive initial focus. The showOptionDialog method returns an int value indicating the button that was activated. For example, here is the code that creates an option dialog, as shown in Figure 38.15:

```java
int value = JOptionPane.showOptionDialog(null,
"Select a button",
"Option Dialog",
JOptionPane.DEFAULT_OPTION,
JOptionPane.PLAIN_MESSAGE,
null,
new Object[]{"Button 0", "Button 1", "Button 2"}, "Button 1");
```

![Figure 38.15](image)

The option dialog displays the custom buttons.
38.6.5 Example: Creating JOptionPane Dialogs

This section gives an example that demonstrates the use of JOptionPane dialogs. The program prompts the user to select the annual interest rate from a list in an input dialog, the number of years from a combo box in an input dialog, and the loan amount from an input dialog, and it displays the loan payment schedule in a text area inside a JScrollPane in a message dialog, as shown in Figure 38.16.

![Figure 38.16](image)

Figure 38.16
The input dialogs can contain a list or a combo box for selecting input, and the message dialogs can contain GUI objects like JScrollPane.

Here are the major steps in the program (Listing 38.5):
1. Display an input dialog box to let the user select an annual interest rate from a list.
2. Display an input dialog box to let the user select the number of years from a combo box.
3. Display an input dialog box to let the user enter the loan amount.
4. Compute the monthly payment, total payment, and loan payment schedule, and display the result in a text area in a message dialog box.

Listing 38.5 JOptionPaneDemo.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class JOptionPaneDemo {
    ...

```
public static void main(String args[]) {
    // Create an array for annual interest rates
    Object[] rateList = new Object[25];
    int i = 0;
    for (double rate = 5; rate <= 8; rate += 1.0 / 8) {
        rateList[i++] = new Double(rate);
    }
    // Prompt the user to select an annual interest rate
    Object annualInterstRateObject = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(null, "Select annual interest rate:", "JOptionPaneDemo", JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE, null, rateList, null);
    double annualInterestRate = ((Double)annualInterstRateObject).doubleValue();
    // Create an array for number of years
    Object[] yearList = {new Integer(7), new Integer(15), new Integer(30)};
    // Prompt the user to enter number of years
    Object numberOfYearsObject = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(null, "Select number of years:", "JOptionPaneDemo", JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE, null, yearList, null);
    int numberOfYears = ((Integer)numberOfYearsObject).intValue();
    // Prompt the user to enter loan amount
    String loanAmountString = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(null, "Enter loan amount,
for example, 150000 for $150000", "JOptionPaneDemo", JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE);
    double loanAmount = Double.parseDouble(loanAmountString);
    // Obtain monthly payment and total payment
    Loan loan = new Loan(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount);
    double monthlyPayment = loan.getMonthlyPayment();
    double totalPayment = loan.getTotalPayment();
    // Prepare output string
    String output = "Interest Rate: " + annualInterestRate + "%" + " Number of Years: " + numberOfYears + " Loan Amount: "$ + loanAmount; 
    output += "\nMonthly Payment: " + "$" + (int)(monthlyPayment * 100) / 100.0; 
    output += "\nTotal Payment: "$ + (int)(monthlyPayment * 12 * numberOfYears * 100) / 100.0 + "\n";
    // Obtain monthly interest rate
    double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;
    double balance = loanAmount;
    double interest;
    double principal;
    // Display the header
    output += "\nPayment#\tInterest\tPrincipal\tBalance\n";
    for (i = 1; i <= numberOfYears * 12; i++) {
        interest = (int)(monthlyInterestRate * balance * 100) / 100.0;
        principal = (int)((monthlyPayment - interest) * 100) / 100.0;
        balance = (int)((balance - principal) * 100) / 100.0;
        output += i + "\t" + interest + "\t" + principal + "\t" + balance + "\n";
    }
    // Display monthly payment and total payment
    JScrollPane jsp = new JScrollPane(new JTextArea(output));
    jsp.setPreferredSize(new java.awt.Dimension(400, 200));
}
The JOptionPane dialog boxes are modal, which means that no other window can be accessed until a dialog box is dismissed.

You have used the input dialog box to enter input from a text field. This example shows that input dialog boxes can also contain a list (lines 12–14) or a combo box (lines 23–25) to list input options. The elements of the list are objects. The return value from these input dialog boxes is of the Object type. To obtain a double value or an int value, you have to cast the return object into Double or Integer, then use the doubleValue or intValue method to get the double or int value (lines 15–16 and 26).

You have already used the message dialog box to display a string. This example shows that the message dialog box can also contain GUI objects. The output string is contained in a text area, the text area is inside a scroll pane, and the scroll pane is placed in the message dialog box (lines 68–71).

38.7 Creating Custom Dialogs

Standard JOptionPane dialogs are sufficient in most cases. Occasionally, you need to create custom dialogs. In Swing, the JDialog class can be extended to create custom dialogs.

As with JFrame, components are added to the contentPane of JDialog. Creating a custom dialog usually involves laying out user interface components in the dialog, adding buttons for dismissing the dialog, and installing listeners that respond to button actions.

The standard dialog is modal, which means that no other window can be accessed before the dialog is dismissed. However, the custom dialogs derived from JDialog are not modal by default. To make a dialog modal, set its modal property to true. To display an instance of JDialog, set its visible property to true.

Let us create a custom dialog box for choosing colors, as shown in Figure 38.17(a). Use this dialog to choose the color for the foreground of the button, as shown in Figure 38.17(b). When the user clicks the Change Button Text Color button, the Choose Color dialog box is displayed.

![Figure 38.17](image_url)

Figure 38.17

The custom dialog allows you to choose a color for the label's foreground.
Create a custom dialog component named ColorDialog by extending JDialog. Use three sliders to specify red, green, and blue components of a color. The program is given in Listing 38.6.

Listing 38.6 ColorDialog.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;

public class ColorDialog extends JDialog {

    // Declare color component values and selected color
    private int redValue, greenValue, blueValue;
    private Color color = null;

    // Create sliders
    private JSlider jslRed = new JSlider(0, 128);
    private JSlider jslGreen = new JSlider(0, 128);
    private JSlider jslBlue = new JSlider(0, 128);

    // Create two buttons
    private JButton jbtOK = new JButton("OK");
    private JButton jbtCancel = new JButton("Cancel");

    // Create a panel to display the selected color
    private JPanel jpSelectedColor = new JPanel();

    public ColorDialog() {
        this(null, true);
    }

    public ColorDialog(java.awt.Frame parent, boolean modal) {
        super(parent, modal);
        setTitle("Choose Color");

        // Group two buttons OK and Cancel
        JPanel jpButtons = new JPanel();
        jpButtons.add(jbtOK);
        jpButtons.add(jbtCancel);

        // Group labels
        JPanel jpLabels = new JPanel();
        jpLabels.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 0));
        jpLabels.add(new JLabel("Red"));
        jpLabels.add(new JLabel("Green"));
        jpLabels.add(new JLabel("Blue"));

        // Group sliders for selecting red, green, and blue colors
        JPanel jpSliders = new JPanel();
        jpSliders.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 0));
        jpSliders.add(jslRed);
```
jpSliders.add(jslGreen);
jpSliders.add(jslBlue);

// Group jpLabels and jpSliders
JPanel jpSelectColor = new JPanel();
jpSelectColor.setLayout(new BorderLayout);
jpSelectColor.setBorder(BorderFactory.createTitledBorder("Select Color"));
jpSelectColor.add(jpLabels, BorderLayout.WEST);
jpSelectColor.add(jpSliders, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Group jpSelectColor and jpSelectedColor
JPanel jpColor = new JPanel();
jpColor.setLayout(new BorderLayout);
jpColor.add(jpSelectColor, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
jpColor.add(jpSelectedColor, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Place jpButtons and jpColor into the dialog box
add(jpButtons, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
add(jpColor, BorderLayout.CENTER);
pack();

jbtOK.addActionListener(new ActionListener() { 
  @Override
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    setVisible(false);
  }
});

jbtCancel.addActionListener(new ActionListener() { 
  @Override
  public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    color = null;
    setVisible(false);
  }
});

jslRed.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() { 
  @Override
  public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
    redValue = jslRed.getValue();
    color = new Color(redValue, greenValue, blueValue);
    jpSelectedColor.setBackground(color);
  }
});

jslGreen.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() { 
  @Override
  public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
    greenValue = jslGreen.getValue();
    color = new Color(redValue, greenValue, blueValue);
    jpSelectedColor.setBackground(color);
  }
});

jslBlue.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() { 
  @Override
  public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
    blueValue = jslBlue.getValue();
  }
});
color = new Color(redValue, greenValue, blueValue);
jpSelectedColor.setBackground(color);
}
});
}

@Override
public Dimension getPreferredSize() {
return new java.awt.Dimension(200, 200);
}
/** Return color */
public Color getColor() {
return color;
}
}

Create a test class to use the color dialog to select the color for the foreground color of the button in Listing 38.7.

Listing 38.7 TestColorDialog.java

import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class TestColorDialog extends JApplet {
private ColorDialog colorDialog1 = new ColorDialog();
private JButton jbtChangeColor = new JButton("Choose color");

public TestColorDialog() {
setLayout(new java.awt.FlowLayout());
jbtcChangeColor.setText("Change Button Text Color");
jbtcChangeColor.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
@Override
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    colorDialog1.setVisible(true);
    if (colorDialog1.getColor() != null)
        jbtChangeColor.setForeground(colorDialog1.getColor());
    }
});
add(jbtChangeColor);
}

The custom dialog box allows the user to use the sliders to select colors. The selected color is stored in the color variable. When the user clicks the Cancel button, color becomes null, which implies that no selection has been made.

The dialog box is displayed when the user clicks the Change Button Text Color button and is closed when the OK button or the Cancel button is clicked.

TIP: Not setting the dialog modal when needed is a common mistake. In this example, the
dialog is set modal in line 24 in ColorDialog.java (Listing 38.6). If the dialog is not modal, all the statements in the Change Button Text Color button handler are executed before the color is selected from the dialog box.

38.8 JColorChooser
You created a color dialog in the preceding example as a subclass of JDialog, which is a subclass of java.awt.Dialog (a top-level heavy-weight component). Therefore, it cannot be added to a container as a component. Color dialogs are commonly used in GUI programming. Swing provides a convenient and versatile color dialog named javax.swing.JColorChooser. JColorChooser is a lightweight component inherited from JComponent. It can be added to any container. For example, the following code places a JColorChooser in an applet, as shown in Figure 38.18.

```
public class JColorChooserDemo extends javax.swing.JApplet {
    public JColorChooserDemo() {
        this.add(new javax.swing.JColorChooser());
    }
}
```

Figure 38.18
An instance of JColorChooser is displayed in an applet; (b)

Often an instance of JColorChooser is displayed in a dialog box using JColorChooser's static showDialog method:

```
public static Color showDialog(Component parentComponent, String title, Color initialColor)
```

For example, the following code displays a JColorChooser, as shown in Figure 38.18.

```
Color color = JColorChooser.showDialog(this, "Choose a color", Color.YELLOW);
```
Figure 38.19
An instance of JColorChooser is displayed in a dialog box with the OK, Cancel, and Reset buttons.

The showDialog method creates an instance of JDialog with three buttons, OK, Cancel, and Reset, to hold a JColorChooser object, as shown in Figure 38.19(a). The method displays a modal dialog. If the user clicks the OK button, the method dismisses the dialog and returns the selected color. If the user clicks the Cancel button or closes the dialog, the method dismisses the dialog and returns null.

JColorChooser consists of a tabbed pane and a color preview panel. The tabbed pane has three tabs for choosing colors using Swatches, HSB, and RGB, as shown in Figure 38.19(b). The preview panel shows the effect of the selected color.

NOTE: JColorChooser is very flexible. It allows you to replace the tabbed pane or the color preview panel with custom components. The default tabbed pane and the color preview panel are sufficient. You rarely need to use custom components.

38.9 JFileChooser
The javax.swing.JFileChooser class displays a dialog box from which the user can navigate through the file system and select files for loading or saving, as shown in Figure 38.20.

Figure 38.20
The Swing JFileChooser shows files and directories, and enables the user to navigate through the file system visually.

Like JColorChooser, JFileChooser is a lightweight component inherited from JComponent. It can be added to any container if
desired, but often you create an instance of JFileChooser and display it standalone.

JFileChooser is a subclass of JComponent. There are several ways to construct a file dialog box. The simplest is to use JFileChooser’s no-arg constructor.

The file dialog box can appear in two types: open and save. The open type is for opening a file, and the save type is for storing a file. To create an open file dialog, use the following method:

```java
public int showOpenDialog(Component parent)
```

This method creates a dialog box that contains an instance of JFileChooser for opening a file. The method returns an int value, either APPROVE_OPTION or CANCEL_OPTION, which indicates whether the Open button or the Cancel button was clicked. Similarly, you can use the following method to create a dialog for saving files:

```java
public int showSaveDialog(Component parent)
```

The file dialog box created with showOpenDialog or showSaveDialog is modal. The JFileChooser class has the properties inherited from JComponent. It also has the following useful properties:

- `dialogType` specifies the type of this dialog. Use OPEN_DIALOG when you want to bring up a file chooser that the user can use to open a file. Likewise, use SAVE_DIALOG to let the user choose a file for saving.
- `dialogTitle` is the string that is displayed in the title bar of the dialog box.
- `currentDirectory` is the current directory of the file. The type of this property is java.io.File. If you want the current directory to be used, use setCurrentDirectory(new File("."))
- `selectedFile` is the file you have selected. You can use getSelectedFile() to return the selected file from the dialog box. The type of this property is java.io.File. If you have a default file name that you expect to use, use setSelectedFile(new File(filename)).
- `multiSelectionEnabled` is a boolean value indicating whether multiple files can be selected. By default, it is false.
- `selectedFiles` is a list of the files selected if the file chooser is set to allow multi-selection. The type of this property is File[].

Let us create an example of a simple text editor that uses Swing menus, toolbar, file chooser, and color chooser, as shown in Figure 38.21, which allows the user to open and save text files, clear text, and change the color and font of the text. Listing 38.8 shows the program.
Figure 38.21

The editor enables you to open and save text files from the File menu or from the toolbar, and to change the color and font of the text from the Edit menu.

Listing 38.8 TextEditor.java

import java.io.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class TextEditor extends JApplet {
   // Declare and create image icons
   private ImageIcon openImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/open.gif"));
   private ImageIcon saveImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/save.gif"));

   // Create menu items
   private JMenuItem jmiOpen = new JMenuItem("Open", openImageIcon);
   private JMenuItem jmiSave = new JMenuItem("Save", saveImageIcon);
   private JMenuItem jmiClear = new JMenuItem("Clear");
   private JMenuItem jmiExit = new JMenuItem("Exit");
   private JMenuItem jmiForeground = new JMenuItem("Foreground");
   private JMenuItem jmiBackground = new JMenuItem("Background");

   // Create buttons to be placed in a tool bar
   private JButton jbtOpen = new JButton(openImageIcon);
   private JButton jbtSave = new JButton(saveImageIcon);
   private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel();

   // Create a JFileChooser with the current directory
   private JFileChooser jFileChooser1 = new JFileChooser(new File("."));

   // Create a text area
   private JTextArea jta = new JTextArea();

   public TextEditor() {
      // Add menu items to the menu
      JMenu jMenu1 = new JMenu("File");
      jMenu1.add(jmiOpen);
      jMenu1.addSeparator();
      jMenu1.add(jmiSave);
      jMenu1.add(jmiClear);
      jMenu1.addSeparator();
      jMenu1.add(jmiExit);
      // Add buttons to the tool bar
      jta.add(jbtOpen);
      jta.add(jbtSave);
      jta.add(jlblStatus);
   }
// Add menu items to the menu
JMenu jMenu2 = new JMenu("Edit");
jMenu2.add(jmiForeground);
jMenu2.add(jmiBackground);

// Add menus to the menu bar
JMenuBar jMenuBar1 = new JMenuBar();
jMenuBar1.add(jMenu1);
jMenuBar1.add(jMenu2);

// Set the menu bar
setJMenuBar(jMenuBar1);

// Create tool bar
JToolBar jToolBar1 = new JToolBar();
jToolBar1.add(jbtOpen);
jToolBar1.add(jbtSave);

jmiOpen.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        open();
    }
});

jmiSave.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        save();
    }
});

jmiClear.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        jta.setText(null);
    }
});

jmiExit.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        System.exit(0);
    }
});

jmiForeground.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        Color selectedColor = JColorChooser.showDialog(null, "Choose Foreground Color", jta.getForeground());
        if (selectedColor != null)
            jta.setForeground(selectedColor);
    }
});

jmiBackground.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        Color selectedColor = JColorChooser.showDialog(null, "Choose Background Color", jta.getForeground());
        if (selectedColor != null)
jta.setBackground(selectedColor);
}
}

jbtOpen.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        open();
    }
});

jbtSave.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        save();
    }
});

add(jToolBar1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
add(new JScrollPane(jta), BorderLayout.CENTER);
}

/** Open file */
private void open() {
    if (jFileChooser1.showOpenDialog(this) == JFileChooser.APPROVE_OPTION)
        open(jFileChooser1.getSelectedFile());
}

/** Open file with the specified File instance */
private void open(File file) {
    try {
        // Read from the specified file and store it in jta
        BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader(new FileInputStream(file));
        byte[] b = new byte[in.available()];
        in.read(b, 0, b.length);
        jta.append(new String(b, 0, b.length));
        in.close();

        // Display the status of the Open file operation in jlblStatus
        jlblStatus.setText(file.getName() + " Opened");
    }
    catch (IOException ex) {
        jlblStatus.setText("Error opening " + file.getName());
    }
}

/** Save file */
private void save() {
    if (jFileChooser1.showSaveDialog(this) == JFileChooser.APPROVE_OPTION) {
        save(jFileChooser1.getSelectedFile());
    }
}

/** Save file with specified File instance */
private void save(File file) {
    try {
        // Write the text in jta to the specified file
        FileOutputStream out = new FileOutputStream(file);
        byte[] b = (jta.getText()).getBytes();
        out.write(b, 0, b.length);
        out.close();
    }
}
The program creates the File and Edit menus (lines 34-45). The File menu contains the menu commands Open for loading a file, Save for saving a file, Clear for clearing the text editor, and Exit for terminating the program. The Edit menu contains the menu commands Foreground Color and Background Color for setting foreground color and background color in the text. The Open and Save menu commands can also be accessed from the toolbar, which is created in lines 56-58. The status of executing Open and Save is displayed in the status label, which is created in line 24.

jFileChooser1, an instance of JFileChooser, is created for displaying the file dialog box to open and save files (lines 27-28). new File(".") is used to set the current directory to the directory where the class is stored.

The open method is invoked when the user clicks the Open menu command or the Open toolbar button (lines 62, 108). The showOpenDialog method (line 125) displays an Open dialog box, as shown in Figure 38.20. Upon receiving the selected file, the method open(file) (line 127) is invoked to load the file to the text area using a BufferedInputStream wrapped on a FileInputStream.

The save method is invoked when the user clicks the Save menu command or the Save toolbar button (lines 68, 114). The showSaveDialog method (line 151) displays a Save dialog box. Upon receiving the selected file, the method save(file) (line 153) is invoked to save the contents from the text area to the file, using a BufferedOutputStream wrapped on a FileOutputStream.

The color dialog is displayed using the static method showDialog (lines 87, 98) of JColorChooser. Thus you don't need to create an instance of JFileChooser. The showDialog method returns the selected color if the OK button is clicked after a color is selected.

Chapter Summary

1. Menus make selection easier and are widely used in window applications. Java provides five classes that implement menus: JMenuBar, JMenu, JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, and JRadioButtonMenuItem. These classes are subclasses of AbstractButton. They are very similar to buttons.

2. JMenuBar is a top-level menu component used to hold menus. A menu consists of menu items that the user can select (or toggle on or off). A menu item can be an instance of JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, or JRadioButtonMenuItem. Menu items can be associated with icons, keyboard mnemonics, and keyboard accelerators. Menu items can be separated using separators.
3. A popup menu, also known as a context menu, is like a regular menu, but does not have a menu bar and can float anywhere on the screen. Creating a popup menu is similar to creating a regular menu. First, you create an instance of JPopupMenu, then you can add JMenuItem, JCheckBoxMenuItem, JRadioButtonMenuItem, and separators to the popup menu.

4. Customarily, you display a popup menu by pointing to a GUI component and clicking a certain mouse button, the so-called popup trigger. Popup triggers are system dependent. In Windows, the popup menu is displayed when the right mouse button is released. In Motif, the popup menu is displayed when the third mouse button is pressed and held down.

5. Swing provides the JToolBar class as the container to hold toolbar components. JToolBar uses BoxLayout to manage components. The components usually appear as icons. Since icons are not components, they cannot be placed into a toolbar directly. Instead you place buttons into the toolbar and set the icons on the buttons. An instance of JToolBar is like a regular container. Often it is placed in the north, west, or east of a container of BorderLayout.

6. Swing provides the Action interface, which can be used to create action objects for processing actions. Using Action objects, common action processing for menu items and toolbar buttons can be centralized and separated from the other application code.

7. The JOptionPane class contains the static methods for creating message dialogs, confirmation dialogs, input dialogs, and option dialogs. You can also create custom dialogs by extending the JOptionPane.

8. Swing provides a convenient and versatile color dialog named javax.swing.JColorChooser. Like JOptionPane, JColorChooser is a lightweight component inherited from JComponent. It can be added to any container.

9. Swing provides the javax.swing.JFileChooser class that displays a dialog box from which the user can navigate through the file system and select files for loading or saving.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions
Section 38.2
38.1 How do you create a menu bar?
38.2 How do you create a submenu? How do you create a check-box menu item? How do you create a radio-button menu item?
38.3 How do you add a separator in a menu?
Section 38.3
38.5 How do you create a popup menu? How do you show a popup menu?
38.6 Describe a popup trigger.

Section 38.4
38.7 What is the layout manager used in JToolBar? Can you change the layout manager?
38.8 How do you add buttons into a JToolBar? How do you add a JToolBar into a frame or an applet?

Section 38.5
38.9 What is the Action interface for?
38.10 How do you add an Action object to a JToolBar, JMenu, JButton, JRadioButton, and JCheckBox?

Section 38.6
38.11 Describe the standard dialog boxes created using the JOptionPane class.
38.12 How do you create a message dialog? What are the message types? What is the button in the message dialog?
38.13 How do you create a confirmation dialog? What are the button option types?
38.14 How do you create an input dialog with a text field for entering input? How do you create a combo box dialog for selecting values as input? How do you create a list dialog for selecting values as input?

Sections 38.7–38.10
38.15 How do you show an instance of JDialog? Is a standard dialog box created using the static methods in JOptionPane modal? Is an instance of JDialog modal?
38.16 How do you display an instance of JColorChooser? Is an instance of JColorChooser modal? How do you obtain the selected color?
38.17 How do you display an instance of JFileChooser? Is an instance of JFileChooser modal? How do you obtain the selected file? What is the return type for getSelectedFile() and getSelectedDirectory()? How do you set the current directory as the default directory for a JFileChooser dialog?

Programming Exercises
Sections 38.2–38.3
38.1* (Create an investment value calculator) Write a program that calculates the future value of an investment at a given interest rate for a specified number of years. The formula for the calculation is as follows:

\[
\text{futureValue} = \text{investmentAmount} \times (1 + \text{monthlyInterestRate})^{\text{years} \times 12}
\]

Use text fields for interest rate, investment amount, and years. Display the future amount in a text field when the user clicks the Calculate button or chooses Calculate from the Operation.
menu (see Figure 38.22). Show a message dialog box when the user clicks the **About** menu item from the Help menu.

**Figure 38.22**
The user enters the investment amount, years, and interest rate to compute future value.

38.2* (Use popup menus) Modify Listing 38.1, MenuDemo.java, to create a popup menu that contains the menus Operations and Exit, as shown in Figure 38.23. The popup is displayed when you click the right mouse button on the panel that contains the labels and the text fields.

**Figure 38.23**
The popup menu contains the commands to perform arithmetic operations.

**Sections 38.4-38.5**
38.3** (A paint utility) Write a program that emulates a paint utility. Your program should enable the user to choose options and draw shapes or get characters from the keyboard based on the selected options (see Figure 38.24). The options are displayed in a toolbar. To draw a line, the user first clicks the line icon in the toolbar and then uses the mouse to draw a line in the same way you would draw using Microsoft Paint.

**Figure 38.24**
This exercise produces a prototype drawing utility that enables you to draw lines, rectangles, ovals, and characters.
38.4*
(Use actions) Write a program that contains the menu items and toolbar buttons that can be used to select flags to be displayed in an ImageViewer, as shown in Figure 38.25. Use the Action interface to centralize the processing for the actions.

![Figure 38.25](image)
The menu items and tool buttons are used to display selected images in the ImageViewer.

Sections 38.6–38.10
38.5*
(Demonstrate JOptionPane) Write a program that creates option panes of all types, as shown in Figure 38.26. Each menu item invokes a static showXxxDialog method to display a dialog box.

![Figure 38.26](image)
You can display a dialog box by clicking a menu item.

38.6*
(Create custom dialog) Write a program that creates a custom dialog box to gather user information, as shown in Figure 38.27(a).

![Figure 38.27](image)
(a) The custom dialog box prompts the user to enter username and password. (b) The program enables the user to view a file by selecting it from a file open dialog box.

38.7*
(Use JFileChooser) Write a program that enables the user to select a file from a file open dialog box. A file open dialog box is displayed when the Browse button is clicked, as shown in Figure 38.27(b). The file is displayed in the text area, and the
file name is displayed in the text field when the OK button is clicked in the file open dialog box. You can also enter the file name in the text field and press the Enter key to display the file in the text area.

38.8* 
(Select an audio file) Write a program that selects an audio file using the file dialog box, and use three buttons, Play, Loop, and Stop, to control the audio, as shown in Figure 38.28. If you click the Play button, the audio file is played once. If you click the Loop button, the audio file keeps playing repeatedly. If you click the Stop button, the playing stops. The selected audio files are stored in the folder named anthems under the exercise directory. The exercise directory contains the class file for this exercise.

![Figure 38.28](image)
The program allows you to choose an audio file from a dialog box and use the buttons to play, repeatedly play, or stop the audio.

38.9** 
(Play TicTacToe with a computer) The game in §18.9, “Case Study: TicTacToe,” facilitates two players. Write a new game that enables a player to play against the computer. Add a File menu with two items, New Game and Exit, as shown in Figure 38.29. When you click New Game, it displays a dialog box. From this dialog box, you can decide whether to let the computer go first.
The new TicTacToe game enables you to play against the computer.
CHAPTER 39

MVC and Swing Models

Objectives

- To use the model-view-controller approach to separate data and logic from the presentation of data (§39.2).
- To implement the model-view-controller components using the JavaBeans event model (§39.2).
- To explain the Swing model-view-controller architecture (§39.4).
- To use JSpinner to scroll the next and previous values (§39.5).
- To create custom spinner models and editors (§39.6).
- To use JList to select single or multiple items in a list (§39.7).
- To add and remove items using ListModel and DefaultListModel (§39.8).
- To render list cells using a default or custom cell renderer (§39.9).
- To create custom combo box models and renderers (§39.10).
39.1 Introduction

The Swing user interface components are implemented using variations of the MVC architecture. You have used simple Swing components without concern for their supporting models, but in order to use advanced Swing components, you have to use their models to store, access, and modify data. This chapter introduces the MVC architecture and Swing models. Specifically, you will learn how to use the models in JSpinner, JList, and JComboBox. The next chapter will introduce JTable and JTree.

39.2 MVC

The model-view-controller (MVC) approach is a way of developing components by separating data storage and handling from the visual representation of the data. The component for storing and handling data, known as a model, contains the actual contents of the component. The component for presenting the data, known as a view, handles all essential component behaviors. It is the view that comes to mind when you think of the component. It does all the displaying of the components. The controller is a component that is usually responsible for obtaining data, as shown in Figure 39.1.

![Diagram of MVC](image)

**Figure 39.1**
The controller obtains data and stores it in a model. The view displays the data stored in the model.

Separating a component into a model and a view has two major benefits:

- It makes multiple views possible so that data can be shared through the same model. For example, a model storing student names can be displayed simultaneously in a combo box and a list box.

- It simplifies the task of writing complex applications and makes the components scalable and easy to maintain. Changes can be made to the view without affecting the model, and vice versa.

A model contains data, whereas a view makes the data visible. Once a view is associated with a model, it is synchronized with the model. This ensures that all of the model’s views display the same data consistently. To achieve consistency and synchronization with its dependent views, the model should notify the views when there is a change in any of its properties that are used in the view. In response to a change notification, the view is responsible for redisplaying the viewing area affected by the property change.
The Java event delegation model provides a superior architecture for supporting MVC component development. The model can be implemented as a source with appropriate event and event listener registration methods. The view can be implemented as a listener. Thus, if data are changed in the model, the view will be notified. To enable the selection of the model from the view, simply add the model as a property in the view with a set method.

Let us use an example to demonstrate the development of components using the MVC approach. The example creates a model named CircleModel, a view named CircleView, and a controller named CircleControl. CircleModel stores the properties (radius, filled, and color) that describe a circle. filled is a boolean value that indicates whether a circle is filled. CircleView draws a circle according to the properties of the circle. CircleControl enables the user to enter circle properties from a graphical user interface. Create an applet with two buttons named Show Controller and Show View, as shown in Figure 39.2(a). When you click the Show Controller button, the controller is displayed in a frame, as shown in Figure 39.2(b). When you click the Show View button, the view is displayed in a separate frame, as shown in Figure 39.2(c).

![Figure 39.2](image)

**Figure 39.2**
The controller obtains circle properties and stores them in a circle model. The view displays the circle specified by the circle model.

<margin note: date model>
The circle model contains the properties radius, filled, and color, as well as the registration/deregistration methods for action event, as shown in Figure 39.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CircleModel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-radius: double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-filled: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-color: java.awt.Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+addActionListener(l: ActionListener): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+removeActionListener(l: ActionListener): void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-processEvent(e: ActionEvent): void</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

JavaBeans properties with get and set methods omitted in the UML diagram

![Figure 39.3](image)
The circle model stores the data and notifies the listeners if the data change.

When a property value is changed, the listeners are notified. The complete source code for CircleModel is given in Listing 39.1.

**Listing 39.1 CircleModel.java**

<margin note line 6: properties>
<margin note line 25: fire event>
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.util.*;

public class CircleModel {

/** Property radius. */
private double radius = 20;

/** Property filled. */
private boolean filled;

/** Property color. */
private java.awt.Color color;

/** Utility field used by event firing mechanism. */
private ArrayList<ActionListener> actionListenerList;

public double getRadius() {
    return radius;
}

public void setRadius(double radius) {
    this.radius = radius;
    // Notify the listener for the change on radius
    processEvent(
        new ActionEvent(this, ActionEvent.ACTION_PERFORMED, "radius"));
}

public boolean isFilled() {
    return filled;
}

public void setFilled(boolean filled) {
    this.filled = filled;
    // Notify the listener for the change on filled
    processEvent(
        new ActionEvent(this, ActionEvent.ACTION_PERFORMED, "filled"));
}

public java.awt.Color getColor() {
    return color;
}

public void setColor(java.awt.Color color) {
    this.color = color;
    // Notify the listener for the change on color
    processEvent(
        new ActionEvent(this, ActionEvent.ACTION_PERFORMED, "color"));
}

/** Register an action event listener */
public synchronized void addActionListener(ActionListener l) {
    if (actionListenerList == null)
        actionListenerList = new ArrayList<ActionListener>();
    actionListenerList.add(l);
}
/** Remove an action event listener */
public synchronized void removeActionListener(ActionListener l) {
    if (actionListenerList != null && actionListenerList.contains(l))
        actionListenerList.remove(l);
}

/** Fire TickEvent */
private void processEvent(ActionEvent e) {
    ArrayList<ActionListener> list;
    synchronized (this) {
        if (actionListenerList == null) return;
        list = (ArrayList<ActionListener>)(actionListenerList.clone());
    }
    for (int i = 0; i < list.size(); i++) {
        ActionListener listener = list.get(i);
        listener.actionPerformed(e);
    }
}

NOTE
The registration/deregistration/processEvent methods
(lines 54-80) are the same as in lines 49-82 in Listing
27.2, CourseWithActionEvent.java. If you use a GUI
builder tool such as NetBeans and Eclipse, the code can
be generated automatically.

The UML diagram for CircleView is shown in Figure 39.4 and its
source code is given in Listing 39.2. The view listens for
notifications from the model. It contains the model as its
property. When a model is set in the view, a listener is created
and registered with the model (lines 13-17). The view extends
JPanel and overrides the paintComponent method to draw the circle
according to the property values specified in the model.

Figure 39.4
The view displays the circle according to the model.

Listing 39.2 CircleView.java

<margin note line 5: model>
<margin note line 8: set model>
<margin note line 26: paint view>
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class CircleView extends javax.swing.JPanel {
    private CircleModel model;
public void setModel(CircleModel newModel) {
    model = newModel;
    if (model != null) {
        // Register the view as listener for the model
        model.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                repaint();
            }
        });
    }
}

public CircleModel getModel() {
    return model;
}

@Override
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    if (model != null) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        g.setColor(model.getColor());
        int xCenter = getWidth() / 2;
        int yCenter = getHeight() / 2;
        int radius = (int)model.getRadius();
        if (model.isFilled()) {
            g.fillOval(xCenter - radius, yCenter - radius, 2 * radius, 2 * radius);
        } else {
            g.drawOval(xCenter - radius, yCenter - radius, 2 * radius, 2 * radius);
        }
    }
}

The controller presents a GUI interface that enables the user to enter circle properties radius and filled. It contains the model as its property. You can use the setModel method to associate a circle model with the controller. It uses a text field to obtain a new radius and a combo box to obtain a boolean value to specify whether the circle is filled. The source code for CircleController is given in Listing 39.3.

Listing 39.3 CircleController.java

```java
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class CircleController extends JPanel {
```

private CircleModel model;
private JTextField jtfRadius = new JTextField();
private JComboBox jcboFilled = new JComboBox(new Boolean[]{new Boolean(false), new Boolean(true)});

/** Creates new form CircleController */
public CircleController() {
    // Panel to group labels
    JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
    panel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
    panel1.add(new JLabel("Radius"));
    panel1.add(new JLabel("Filled"));

    // Panel to group text field, combo box, and another panel
    JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
    panel2.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
    panel2.add(jtfRadius);
    panel2.add(jcboFilled);

    setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    add(panel1, BorderLayout.WEST);
    add(panel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Register listeners
    jtfRadius.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            if (model != null) // Set radius in the model
                model.setRadius(Double.parseDouble(jtfRadius.getText()));
        }
    });
    jcboFilled.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            if (model != null) // Set filled property value in the model
                model.setFilled(((Boolean) jcboFilled.getSelectedItem()).booleanValue());
        }
    });

    public void setModel(CircleModel newModel) {
        model = newModel;
    }

    public CircleModel getModel() {
        return model;
    }
}

Finally, let us create an applet named MVCDemo with two buttons, Show Controller and Show View. The Show Controller button displays a controller in a frame, and the Show View button displays a view in a separate frame. The program is shown in Listing 39.4.

**Listing 39.4 MVCDemo.java**

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

```java
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class MVCDemo extends JApplet {
    private JButton jbtController = new JButton("Show Controller");
    private JButton jbtView = new JButton("Show View");
    private CircleModel model = new CircleModel();

    public MVCDemo() {
        setLayout(new FlowLayout());
        add(jbtController);
        add(jbtView);
        jbtController.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                JFrame frame = new JFrame("Controller");
                CircleController controller = new CircleController();
                controller.setModel(model);
                frame.add(controller);
                frame.setSize(200, 200);
                frame.setLocation(200, 200);
                frame.setVisible(true);
            }
        });
        jbtView.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                JFrame frame = new JFrame("View");
                CircleView view = new CircleView();
                view.setModel(model);
                frame.add(view);
                frame.setSize(500, 200);
                frame.setLocation(200, 200);
                frame.setVisible(true);
            }
        });
    }

    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        JFrame frame = new JFrame("Controller");
        CircleController controller = new CircleController();
        controller.setModel(model);
        frame.add(controller);
        frame.setSize(200, 200);
        frame.setLocation(200, 200);
        frame.setVisible(true);
    }
}
```

The model stores and handles data, and the views are responsible for presenting data. The fundamental issue in the model-view approach is to ensure consistency between the views and the model. Any change in the model should be notified to the dependent views, and all the views should display the same data consistently. The data in the model is changed through the controller.

The methods setRadius, setFilled, and setColor (lines 21, 33, 45) in CircleModel invoke the processEvent method to notify the listeners of any change in the properties.

The setModel method in CircleView sets a new model and registers with a listener for the model by invoking the model's addActionListener method (line 13). When the data in the model are changed, the listener’s actionPerformed method is invoked to repaint the circle (line 15).
The controller CircleController presents a GUI. You can enter the radius from the radius text field. You can specify whether the circle is filled from the combo box that contains two Boolean objects, new Boolean(false) and new Boolean(true) (lines 8-9).

In MVCdemo, every time you click the Show Controller button, a new controller is created (line 18). Every time you click the Show View button, a new view is created (line 30). The controller and view share the same model.

### 39.3 MVC Variations
A variation of the model-view-controller architecture combines the controller with the view. In this case, a view not only presents the data, but is also used as an interface to interact with the user and accept user input, as shown in Figure 39.5.

![Figure 39.5](image)

The view can interact with the user as well as displaying data.

For example, you can modify the view in the preceding example to enable the user to change the circle’s radius using the mouse. When the left mouse button is clicked, the radius is increased by 5 pixels. When the right mouse button is clicked, the radius is decreased by 5 pixels. The new view, named ViewController, can be implemented by extending CircleView, as follows:

```java
import java.awt.event.MouseEvent;

public class ViewController extends CircleView {
  public ViewController() {
    // Register mouse listener
    addMouseListener(new java.awt.event.MouseAdapter() {
      public void mousePressed(java.awt.event.MouseEvent e) {
        CircleModel model = getModel(); // Get model
        if (model != null)
          if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON1) // Left button
            model.setRadius(model.getRadius() + 5);
          else if (e.getButton() == MouseEvent.BUTTON3) // Right button
            model.setRadius(model.getRadius() - 5);
      }
    });
  }
}
```
Another variation of the model-view-controller architecture adds some of the data from the model to the view so that frequently used data can be accessed directly from the view. Swing components are designed using the MVC architecture. Each Swing GUI component is a view that uses a model to store data. A Swing GUI component contains some data in the model, so that it can be accessed directly from the component.

### 39.4 Swing Model-View-Controller Architecture

Every Swing user interface component (except some containers and dialog boxes, such as JPanel, JSplitPane, JFileChooser, and JColorChooser) has a property named model that refers to its data model. The data model is defined in an interface whose name ends with Model. For example, the model for button component is ButtonModel. Most model interfaces have a default implementation class, commonly named DefaultX, where X is its model interface name. For example, the default implementation class for ButtonModel is DefaultButtonModel. The relationship of a Swing component, its model interface, and its default model implementation class is illustrated in Figure 39.6.

![Figure 39.6](image)

Swing components are implemented using the MVC architecture.

For convenience, most Swing components contain some properties of their models, and these properties can be accessed and modified directly from the component without the existence of the model being known. For example, the properties actionCommand and mnemonic are defined in both ButtonModel and JButton. Actually, these properties are in the AbstractButton class. Since JButton is a subclass of AbstractButton, it inherits all the properties from AbstractButton.

When you create a Swing component without specifying a model, a default data model is assigned to the model property. For example, lines 9-10 in the following code set the actionCommand and mnemonic properties of a button through its model.

```java
<margin note line 6: get model>
<margin note line 9: set model properties>

```

```java
1 public class TestSwingModel1 {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         javax.swing.JButton jbt = new javax.swing.JButton();
4
5         // Obtain the default model from the component
6         javax.swing.ButtonModel model = jbt.getModel();
```

```java
```
Set properties in the model

```java
model.setActionCommand("OK");
model.setMnemonic('O');

// Display the property values from the component
System.out.println("actionCommand is " + jbt.getActionCommand());
System.out.println("mnemonic is " + (char)(jbt.getMnemonic()));
```

You can also create a new model and assign it to a Swing component. For example, the following code creates an instance of ButtonModel (line 7) and assigns it to an instance of JButton (line 14).

```java
1 public class TestSwingModel2 {
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3         javax.swing.JButton jbt = new javax.swing.JButton();
4
5         // Create a new button model
6         javax.swing.ButtonModel model =
7             new javax.swing.DefaultButtonModel();
8
9         // Set properties in the model
10        model.setActionCommand("Cancel");
11        model.setMnemonic('C');
12
13         // Assign the model to the button
14         jbt.setModel(model);
15
16         // Display the property values from the component
17         System.out.println("actionCommand is " + jbt.getActionCommand());
18         System.out.println("mnemonic is " + (char)(jbt.getMnemonic()));
19     }
20 }
```

It is unnecessary to use the models for simple Swing components, such as JButton, JToggleButton, JCheckBox, JRadioButton, JTextField, and JTextArea, because the frequently used properties in the models of these Swing components are also the properties in these components. You can access and modify these properties directly through the components. For advanced components, such as
JSniper, JList, JComboBox, JTable, and JTree, you have to work with their models to store, access, and modify data.

39.5 JSniper

A spinner is a text field with a pair of tiny arrow buttons on its right side that enable the user to select numbers, dates, or values from an ordered sequence, as shown in Figure 39.7. The keyboard up/down arrow keys also cycle through the elements. The user may also be allowed to type a (legal) value directly into the spinner. A spinner is similar to a combo box but is sometimes preferred because it doesn't require a drop-down list that can obscure important data.

![Figure 39.7](image)

Two JSniper components enable the user to select a month and a year for the calendar.

Figure 39.8 shows the constructors and commonly used methods in JSniper. A JSniper's sequence value is defined by the SpinnerModel interface, which manages a potentially unbounded sequence of elements. The model doesn't support indexed random access to sequence elements. Only three sequence elements are accessible at a time—current, next, and previous—using the methods `getValue()`, `getNextValue()`, and `getPreviousValue()`, respectively. The current sequence element can be modified using the `setValue()` method. When the current value in a spinner is changed, the model invokes the `stateChanged(javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent e)` method of the registered listeners. The listeners must implement `javax.swing.event.ChangeListener`. All these methods in SpinnerModel are also defined in JSniper for convenience, so you can access the data in the model from JSniper directly.
JavaBeans properties with get and set
methods omitted in the UML diagram

javax.swing.JSpinner

1

1

javax.swing.SpinnerModel

-model: SpinnerModel

Specifies a model with get/set methods.

-editor: JComponent

Specifies an editor with get/set methods.

+JSpinner()

Constructs a JSpinner with a SpinnerNumberModel with
initial value 0 and no minimum or maximum limits.

+JSpinner(model: SpinnerModel)

Constructs a JSpinner with a specified SpinnerModel.

+getNextValue(): Object

Gets the next element value in this JSpinner.
Gets the previous element value in this JSpinner.

+getPreviousValue(): Object
+getValue(): Object
+setValue(value: Object): void

Gets the current element value in this JSpinner.

+addChangeListener(l: ChangeListener): void

Adds a listener for value change.

+removeChangeListener(l: ChangeListener): void

Removes a listener.

Sets the current element value.

Figure 39.8
JSpinner uses a spinner model to store data.
NOTE: If you create a JSpinner object without specifying
a model, the spinner displays a sequence of integers.
Listing 39.5 gives an example that creates a JSpinner object for
a sequence of numbers and displays the previous, current, and
next numbers from the spinner on a label, as shown in Figure
39.9.

Figure 39.9
The previous, current, and next values in the spinner are displayed on
the label.
Listing 39.5 SimpleSpinner.java
<margin note line 7: spinner>
<margin note line 18: spinner listener>
<margin note line 27: main method omitted>
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17

13

import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import java.awt.BorderLayout;
public class SimpleSpinner extends JApplet {
// Create a JSpinner
private JSpinner spinner = new JSpinner();
// Create a JLabel
private JLabel label = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);
public SimpleSpinner() {
// Add spinner and label to the UI
add(spinner, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(label, BorderLayout.CENTER);
// Register and create a listener


spinner.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
    @Override
    public void stateChanged(javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent e) {
        label.setText("Previous value: " + spinner.getPreviousValue()
                + " Current value: " + spinner.getValue()
                + " Next value: " + spinner.getNextValue());
    }
});

A JSpinner object is created using its no-arg constructor (line 7). By default, a spinner displays a sequence of integers.

An anonymous inner class event adapter is created to process the value change event on the spinner (lines 18-25). The previous, current, and next values in a spinner can be obtained using the JSpinner’s instance methods getPreviousValue(), getValue(), and getNextValue().

To display a sequence of values other than integers, you have to use spinner models.

39.6 Spinner Models and Editors

SpinnerModel is an interface for all spinner models. AbstractSpinnerModel is a convenient abstract class that implements SpinnerModel and provides the implementation for its registration/deregistration methods. SpinnerListModel, SpinnerNumberModel, and SpinnerDateModel are concrete implementations of SpinnerModel. The relationship among them is illustrated in Figure 39.10. Besides these models, you can create a custom spinner model that extends AbstractSpinnerModel or directly implements SpinnerModel.

```
«interface»
javax.swing.SpinnerModel
+getPreviousValue(): Object
+getNextValue(): Object
+getValue(): Object
+setValue(value: Object): void
+addChangeListener(l: ChangeListener): void
+removeChangeListener(l: ChangeListener): void

Figure 39.10

SpinnerListModel, SpinnerNumberModel, and SpinnerDateModel are concrete implementations for SpinnerModel.

39.6.1 SpinnerListModel

SpinnerListModel (see Figure 39.11) is a simple implementation of SpinnerModel whose values are stored in a java.util.List.
SpinnerListModel uses a java.util.List to store a sequence of data in the model.

You can create a SpinnerListModel using an array or a list. For example, the following code creates a model that consists of values Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, and Graduate in an array.

```java
// Create an array
String[] grades = {"Freshman", "Sophomore", "Junior", "Senior", "Graduate");

// Create a model from an array
model = new SpinnerListModel(grades);
```

Alternatively, the following code creates a model using a list:

```java
// Create an array
String[] grades = {"Freshman", "Sophomore", "Junior", "Senior", "Graduate");

// Create an ArrayList from the array
list = new ArrayList(Arrays.asList(grades));

// Create a model from the list
model = new SpinnerListModel(list);
```

The alternative code seems unnecessary. However, it is useful if you need to add or remove elements from the model. The size of the array is fixed once the array is created. The list is a flexible data structure that enables you to add or remove elements dynamically.

39.6.2 SpinnerNumberModel

SpinnerNumberModel (see Figure 39.12) is a concrete implementation of SpinnerModel that represents a sequence of numbers. It contains the properties maximum, minimum, and stepSize. The maximum and minimum properties specify the upper and lower bounds of the sequence. The stepSize specifies the size of the increase or decrease computed by the `nextValue` and `previousValue` methods defined in `SpinnerModel`. The `minimum` and
maximum properties can be null to indicate that the sequence has no lower or upper limit. All of the properties in this class are defined as Number or Comparable, so that all Java numeric types may be accommodated.

```java
+SpinnerNumberModel()
+SpinnerNumberModel(value: int, minimum: int, maximum: int, stepSize: int)
+SpinnerNumberModel(value: double, minimum: double, maximum: double, stepSize: double)
+SpinnerNumberModel(value: Number, minimum: Comparable, maximum: Comparable, stepSize: Number)
```

SpinnerNumberModel represents a sequence of numbers.

You can create a SpinnerNumberModel with integers or double. For example, the following code creates a model that represents a sequence of numbers from 0 to 3000 with initial value 2004 and interval 1.

```java
// Create a spinner number model
SpinnerNumberModel model = new SpinnerNumberModel(2004, 0, 3000, 1);
```

The following code creates a model that represents a sequence of numbers from 0 to 120 with initial value 50 and interval 0.1.

```java
// Create a spinner number model
SpinnerNumberModel model = new SpinnerNumberModel(50, 0, 120, 0.1);
```

39.6.3 SpinnerDateModel

SpinnerDateModel (see Figure 39.13) is a concrete implementation of SpinnerModel that represents a sequence of dates. The upper and lower bounds of the sequence are defined by properties called start and end, and the size of the increase or decrease computed by the nextValue and previousValue methods is defined by a property called calendarField. The start and end properties can be null to indicate that the sequence has no lower or upper limit. The value of the calendarField property must be one of the java.util.Calendar constants that specify a field within a Calendar. The getNextValue and getPreviousValue methods change the date forward or backward by this amount. For example, if...
calendarField is Calendar.DAY_OF_WEEK, then nextValue produces a date that is 24 hours after the current value, and previousValue produces a date that is 24 hours earlier.

```
+SpinnerDateModel()
+SpinnerDateModel(value: Date, start: Comparable, end: Comparable, calendarField: int)
```

Figure 39.13

**SpinnerDateModel** represents a sequence of dates.

For example, the following code creates a spinner model that represents a sequence of dates, starting from the current date without a lower/upper limit and with calendar field on month.

```
SpinnerDateModel model = new SpinnerDateModel(  
    new Date(), null, null, Calendar.MONTH);
```

### 39.6.4 Spinner Editors

A JSpinner has a single child component, called the editor, which is responsible for displaying the current element or value of the model. Four editors are defined as static inner classes inside JSpinner.

- **JSpinner.DefaultEditor** is a simple base class for all other specialized editors to display a read-only view of the model's current value with a JFormattedTextField. JFormattedTextField extends JTextField, adding support for formatting arbitrary values, as well as retrieving a particular object once the user has edited the text.

- **JSpinner.NumberEditor** is a specialized editor for a JSpinner whose model is a SpinnerNumberModel. The value of the editor is displayed with a JFormattedTextField whose format is defined by a NumberFormatter instance.

- **JSpinner.DateEditor** is a specialized editor for a JSpinner whose model is a SpinnerDateModel. The value of the editor is displayed with a JFormattedTextField whose format is defined by a DateFormatter instance.

- **JSpinner.ListEditor** is a specialized editor for a JSpinner whose model is a SpinnerListModel. The value of the editor is displayed with a JFormattedTextField.
The JSpinner's constructor creates a NumberEditor for SpinnerNumberModel, a DateEditor for SpinnerDateModel, a ListEditor for SpinnerListModel, and a DefaultEditor for all other models. The editor can also be changed using the setEditor method. The JSpinner's editor stays in sync with the model by listening for ChangeEvents. The commitEdit() method should be used to commit the currently edited value to the model.

39.6.5 Example: Using Spinner Models and Editors

This example uses a JSpinner component to display the date and three other JSpinner components to display the day in a sequence of numbers, the month in a sequence of strings, and the year in a sequence of numbers, as shown in Figure 39.14. All four components are synchronized. For example, if you change the year in the spinner for year, the date value in the date spinner is updated accordingly. The source code of the example is given in Listing 39.6.

![Figure 39.14](image)

The four spinner components are synchronized to display the date in one field and the day, month, and year in three separate fields.

Listing 39.6 SpinnerModelEditorDemo.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class SpinnerModelEditorDemo extends JApplet {

    private JSpinner jspDate = new JSpinner(new SpinnerDateModel());
    private JSpinner jspDay = new JSpinner(new SpinnerNumberModel(1, 1, 31, 1));
    private String[] monthNames = DateFormatSymbols().getMonths();
    private JSpinner jspMonth = new JSpinner(new SpinnerListModel(Arrays.asList(monthNames).subList(0, 12)));
    private JSpinner spinnerYear = new JSpinner(new SpinnerNumberModel(2004, 1, 3000, 1));

    public SpinnerModelEditorDemo() {
        // Group labels
        JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
```
panel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 1));
panel1.add(new JLabel("Date"));
panel1.add(new JLabel("Day"));
panel1.add(new JLabel("Month"));
panel1.add(new JLabel("Year"));

// Group spinners
JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
panel2.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 1));
panel2.add(jspDate);
panel2.add(jspDay);
panel2.add(jspMonth);
panel2.add(spinnerYear);

// Add spinner and label to the UI
add(panel1, BorderLayout.WEST);
add(panel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Set editor for date
JSpinner.DateEditor dateEditor =
    new JSpinner.DateEditor(jspDate, "MMM dd, yyyy");
jspDate.setEditor(dateEditor);

// Set editor for year
JSpinner.NumberEditor yearEditor =
    new JSpinner.NumberEditor(spinnerYear, "####");
spinnerYear.setEditor(yearEditor);

// Update date to synchronize with the day, month, and year
updateDate();

// Register and create a listener for jspDay
jspDay.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
    @Override
    public void stateChanged(javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent e) {
        updateDate();
    }
});

// Register and create a listener for jspMonth
jspMonth.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
    @Override
    public void stateChanged(javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent e) {
        updateDate();
    }
});

// Register and create a listener for spinnerYear
spinnerYear.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
    @Override
    public void stateChanged(javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent e) {
        updateDate();
    }
});

/** Update date spinner to synchronize with the other spinners */
private void updateDate() {
    // Get current month and year in int
    int month = ((SpinnerListModel)jspMonth.getModel()).
        getList().indexOf(jspMonth.getValue());
    int year = ((Integer)spinnerYear.getValue()).intValue();

    // Set a new maximum number of days for the new month and year
    SpinnerNumberModel numberModel =
        (SpinnerNumberModel)jspDay.getModel();
numberModel.setMaximum(new Integer(maxDaysInMonth(year, month))); 

// Set a new current day if it exceeds the maximum
if (((Integer)(numberModel.getValue())).intValue() >
    maxDaysInMonth(year, month))
    numberModel.setValue(new Integer(maxDaysInMonth(year, month))); 

// Get the current day
int day = ((Integer)jspDay.getValue()).intValue();

// Set a new date in the date spinner
jspDate.setValue(
    new GregorianCalendar(year, month, day).getTime());
}

/** Return the maximum number of days in a month. For example, 
February 2004 has 29 days. */
private int maxDaysInMonth(int year, int month) {
    Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar(year, month,
        1);
    return calendar.getActualMaximum(Calendar.DAY_OF_MONTH);
}
}

A JSpinner object for dates, jspDate, is created with a default
SpinnerDateModel (lines 9-10). The format of the date displayed
in the spinner is MMM dd, yyyy (e.g., Feb 01, 2006). This format
is created using the JSpinner’s inner class constructor
DateEditor (lines 41-42) and is set as jspDate’s editor (line
43).

A JSpinner object for days, jspDay, is created with a
SpinnerNumberModel with a sequence of integers between 1 and 31
in which the initial value is 1 and the interval is 1 (lines 11-
12). The maximum number is reset in the updateDate() method based
on the current month and year (lines 91-93). For example,
February 2004 has 29 days, so the maximum in jspDay is set to 29

A JSpinner object for months, jspMonth, is created with a
SpinnerListModel with a list of month names (lines 14-15). Month
names are locale specific and can be obtained using the new
DateFormatSymbols().getMonths() (line 13). Some calendars can
have 13 months. Arrays.asList(monthNames) creates a list from an
array of strings, and subList(0, 12) returns the first 12
elements in the list.

A JSpinner object for years, spinnerYear, is created with a
SpinnerNumberModel with a sequence of integers between 1 and 3000
in which the initial value is 2004 and the interval is 1 (lines
16-17). By default, locale-specific number separators are used.
For example, 2004 would be displayed as 2,004 in the spinner. To
display the number without separators, the number pattern ### is
specified to construct a new NumberEditor for spinnerYear (lines
46-47). The editor is set as spinnerYear’s editor (line 48).

The updateDate() method synchronizes the date spinner with the
day, month, and year spinners. Whenever a new value is selected
in the day, month, or year spinner, a new date is set in the date
spinner. The maxDaysInMonth method (lines 105-108) returns the
maximum number of days in a month. For example, February 2004 has
29 days.
A JSpinner object can fire javax.swing.event.ChangeEvent to notify the listeners of the state change in the spinner. The anonymous event adapters are created to process spinner state changes for the day, month, and year spinners (lines 54-75). Whenever a new value is selected in one of these three spinners, the date spinner value is updated accordingly. In Exercise 39.3, you will improve the example to synchronize the day, month, and year spinners with the date spinner. Then, when a new value is selected in the date spinner, the values in the day, month, and year spinners will be updated accordingly.

This example uses SpinnerNumberModel, SpinnerDateModel, and SpinnerListModel. They are predefined concrete spinner models in the API. You can also create custom spinner models (see Exercise 39.4).

39.7 JList and its Models

The basic features of JList were introduced in §17.9, “Lists,” without using list models. You learned how to create a list and how to respond to list selections. However, you cannot add or remove elements from a list without using list models. This section introduces list models and gives a detailed discussion on how to use JList.

JList has two supporting models: a list model and a list-selection model. The list model is for storing and processing data. The list-selection model is for selecting items. By default, items are rendered as strings or icons. You can also define a custom renderer that implements the ListCellRenderer interface. The relationship of these interfaces and classes is shown in Figure 39.15.

![Figure 39.15](image)

JList contains several supporting interfaces and classes.

NOTE

<margin note: JDK 7 new features>

Since JDK 7, JList, ListModel, AbstractListModel, DefaultListModel, ListCellRenderer, and DefaultListCellRenderer have been redefined as generic classes and interfaces. The generic type E represents the element type stored in the list.
### 39.7.1 JList Constructors, Properties, and Methods

Figure 39.16 shows the properties and constructors of JList. You can create a list from a list model, an array of objects, or a vector.

The `javax.swing.JList<E>` class has the following properties:

- `cellRenderer`: ListCellRenderer<? super E>
- `fixedCellHeight`: int
- `fixedCellWidth`: int
- `layoutOrientation`: int
- `model`: ListModel<E>
- `selectedIndex`: int
- `selectedIndices`: int[
- `selectedValue`: E
- `selectedValues`: Object[
- `selectedBackground`: int
- `selectedForeground`: int
- `selectionMode`: int
- `selectionModel`: ListSelectionModel
- `visibleRowCount`: int

The constructors are:

- `JList()`: Constructs an empty JList.
- `JList(dataModel: ListModel<E>)`: Constructs a JList with the specified model.
- `JList(listData: E[])`: Constructs a JList with the data specified in the array.
- `JList(listData: Vector<? extends E>)`: Sets an array of objects as data for the list.
- `JList(listData: Vector<? extends E>): void`: Sets a vector of objects as data for the list.

### 39.7.2 List Layout Orientations

The `layoutOrientation` property specifies the layout of the items using one of the following three values:

- `JList.VERTICAL`: specifies that the cells should be laid out vertically in one column. This is the default value.
- `JList.HORIZONTAL_WRAP`: specifies that the cells should be laid out horizontally, wrapping to a new row as necessary. The number of rows to use is determined by the `visibleRowCount` property if its value is greater than 0; otherwise, the number of rows is determined by the width of the JList.
- `JList.VERTICAL_WRAP`: specifies that the cells should be laid out vertically, wrapping to a new column as necessary. The number of rows to use is determined by the `visibleRowCount` property if its value is greater than 0; otherwise, the number of rows is determined by the height of the JList.
For example, suppose there are five elements (item1, item2, item3, item4, and item5) in the list and the visibleRowCount is 2. Figure 39.17 shows the layout in these three cases.

(a) Vertical      (b) Vertical wrap    (c) Horizontal wrap

Figure 39.17

Layout orientation specifies how elements are laid out in a list.

39.7.3 List-Selection Modes and List-Selection Models

The selectionMode property is one of the three values (SINGLE_SELECTION, SINGLE INTERVAL SELECTION, MULTIPLE INTERVAL SELECTION) that indicate whether a single item, single-interval item, or multiple-interval item can be selected, as shown in Figure 39.18. Single selection allows only one item to be selected. Single-interval selection allows multiple selections, but the selected items must be contiguous. These items can be selected all together by holding down the SHIFT key. Multiple-interval selection allows selections of multiple contiguous items without restrictions. These items can be selected by holding down the Ctrl key. The default value is MULTIPLE INTERVAL SELECTION.

(a) Single-selection   (b) Single-interval selection  (c) Multiple-interval selection

Figure 39.18

A list has three selection modes.

The selectionModel property specifies an object that tracks list selection. JList has two models: a list model and a list-selection model. List models handle data management, and list-selection models deal with data selection. A list-selection model must implement the ListSelectionModel interface, which defines constants for three selection modes (SINGLE_SELECTION, SINGLE INTERVAL SELECTION, and MULTIPLE INTERVAL SELECTION), and registration methods for ListSelectionListener. It also defines the methods for adding and removing selection intervals, and the access methods for the properties, such as selectionMode, anchorSelectionIndex, leadSelectionIndex, and valueIsAdjusting.

By default, an instance of JList uses DefaultListSelectionModel, which is a concrete implementation of ListSelectionModel. Usually, you do not need to provide a custom list-selection
model, because the DefaultListSelectionModel class is sufficient in most cases. List-selection models are rarely used explicitly, because you can set the selection mode directly in JList.

### 39.7.4 Example: List Properties Demo

This example creates a list of a fixed number of items displayed as strings. The example enables you to dynamically set visibleRowCount from a spinner, layoutOrientation from a combo box, and selectionMode from a combo box, as shown in Figure 39.19. When you select one or more items, their values are displayed in a status label below the list. The source code of the example is given in Listing 39.7.

![Figure 39.19](image)

You can dynamically set the properties for visibleRowCount, layoutOrientation, and selectionMode in a JList.

Listing 39.7 ListPropertiesDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;

public class ListPropertiesDemo extends JApplet {
    private JList<String> jlst = new JList<String>(new String[] {
        "Item1", "Item2", "Item3", "Item4", "Item5", "Item6"});
    private JSpinner jspVisibleRowCount =
        new JSpinner(new SpinnerNumberModel(8, -1, 20, 1));
    private JComboBox jcboLayoutOrientation =
        new JComboBox(new String[] {"VERTICAL (0)",
                                  "VERTICAL_WRAP (1)", "HORIZONTAL_WRAP (2)"});
    private JComboBox jcboSelectionMode =
        new JComboBox(new String[] {"SINGLE_SELECTION (0)",
                                 "SINGLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION (1)", "MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION (2)"});
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel();

    /** Construct the applet */
```
public ListPropertiesDemo() {
    // Place labels in a panel
    JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
    panel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
    panel1.add(new JLabel("visibleRowCount"));
    panel1.add(new JLabel("layoutOrientation"));
    panel1.add(new JLabel("selectionMode"));

    // Place text fields in a panel
    JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
    panel2.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 1));
    panel2.add(jspVisibleRowCount);
    panel2.add(jcboLayoutOrientation);
    panel2.add(jcboSelectionMode);

    // Place panel1 and panel2
    JPanel panel3 = new JPanel();
    panel3.setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 5));
    panel3.add(panel1, BorderLayout.WEST);
    panel3.add(panel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);

    // Place elements in the applet
    add(panel3, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(new JScrollPane(jlst), BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

    // Set initial property values
    jlst.setFixedCellWidth(50);
    jlst.setFixedCellHeight(20);
    jlst.setSelectionMode(ListSelectionModel.SINGLE_SELECTION);

    // Register listeners
    jspVisibleRowCount.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
        @Override
        public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
            jlst.setVisibleRowCount((Integer)jspVisibleRowCount.getValue()).intValue());
        }
    });

    jcboLayoutOrientation.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlst.setLayoutOrientation(jcboLayoutOrientation.getSelectedIndex());
        }
    });

    jcboSelectionMode.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jlst.setSelectionMode(jcboSelectionMode.getSelectedIndex());
        }
    });

    jlst.addListSelectionListener(new ListSelectionListener() {
        @Override
        public void valueChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
            
        }
    });
}
Object[] values = jlst.getSelectedValues();
String display = "";

for (int i = 0; i < values.length; i++) {
    display += (String)values[i] + " ";
}
jlblStatus.setText(display);
}
}

A JList is created with six string values (lines 7-8). A JSpinner
is created using a SpinnerNumberModel with initial value 8,
minimum value -1, maximum value 20, and step 1 (lines 9-10). A
JComboBox is created with string values VERTICAL (0),
VERTICAL_WRAP (1), and HORIZONTAL_WRAP (2) for choosing layout
orientation (lines 11-13). A JComboBox is created with string
values SINGLE_SELECTION (0), INTERVAL_SELECTION (1), and
MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION (2) for choosing a selection mode
(lines 14-17). A JLabel is created to display the selected
elements in the list (lines 18).

A JList does not support scrolling. To create a scrollable list,
create a JScrollPane and add an instance of JList to it (line
44).

The fixed list cell width and height are specified in lines 48-
49. The default selection mode is multiple-interval selection.
Line 50 sets the selection mode to single selection.

When a new visible row count is selected from the spinner, the
setVisibleRowCount method is used to set the count (lines 53-58).
When a new layout orientation is selected from the
jcbolayoutOrientation combo box, the setLayoutOrientation method
is used to set the layout orientation (lines 60-65). Note that
the constant values for VERTICAL, VERTICAL_WRAP, and
HORIZONTAL_WRAP are 0, 1, and 2, which correspond to the index
values of these items in the combo box. When a new selection mode
is selected from the jcboSelectionMode combo box, the
setSelectionMode method is used to set the selection mode (lines
67-72). Note that the constant values for SINGLE_SELECTION,
SINGLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION, and MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION are 0,
1, and 2, which correspond to the index value of these items in
the combo box.

JList fires javax.swing.event.ListSelectionEvent to notify the
listeners of the selections. The listener must implement the
valueChanged handler to process the event. When the user selects
an item in the list, the valueChanged handler is executed, which
gets the selected items and displays all the items in the label
(lines 74-85).

39.8 List Models

The preceding example constructs a list with a fixed set of
strings. If you want to add new items to the list or delete
existing items, you have to use a list model. This section introduces list models.

The JList class delegates the responsibilities of storing and maintaining data to its data model. The JList class itself does not have methods for adding or removing items from the list. These methods are supported in ListModel, as shown in Figure 39.20.

**Figure 39.20**

ListModel stores and manages data in a list.

All list models implement the ListModel interface, which defines the registration methods for ListDataEvent. The instances of ListDataListener are notified when the items in the list are modified. ListModel also defines the methods getSize and getElementAt. The getSize method returns the length of the list, and the getElementAt method returns the element at the specified index.
AbstractListModel implements theListModel and Serializable interfaces. AbstractListModel implements the registration methods in theListModel, but does not implement the getSize and getElementAt methods.

DefaultListModel extends AbstractListModel and implements the two methods getSize and getElementAt, which are not implemented by AbstractListModel.

The methods in DefaultListModel are similar to those in the java.util.Vector class. You use the add method to insert an element to the list, the remove method to remove an element from the list, the clear method to clear the list, the getSize method to return the number of elements in the list, and the getElementAt method to retrieve an element. In fact, the DefaultListModel stores data in an instance of Vector, which is essentially a resizable array. Swing components were developed before the Java Collections Framework. In future implementations, Vector may be replaced by java.util.ArrayList.

NOTE

In most cases, if you create a Swing GUI object without specifying a model, an instance of the default model class is created. But this is not true for JList. By default, the model property in JList is not an instance of DefaultListModel. To use a list model, you should explicitly create one using DefaultListModel.

Listing 39.8 gives an example that creates a list using a list model and allows the user to add and delete items in the list, as shown in Figure 39.21. When the user clicks the Add new item button, an input dialog box is displayed to receive a new item.

Figure 39.21

You can add elements and remove elements in a list using list models.

Listing 39.8 ListModelDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
```
public class ListModelDemo extends JApplet {

    private DefaultListModel<String> listModel = new DefaultListModel<String>();
    private JList<String> jlst = new JList<String>(listModel);
    private JButton jbtAdd = new JButton("Add new item");
    private JButton jbtRemove = new JButton("Remove selected item");

    /** Construct the applet */
    public ListModelDemo() {
        // Add items to the list model
        listModel.addElement("Item1");
        listModel.addElement("Item2");
        listModel.addElement("Item3");
        listModel.addElement("Item4");
        listModel.addElement("Item5");
        listModel.addElement("Item6");

        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtAdd);
        panel.add(jbtRemove);
        add(panel, BorderLayout.NORTH);
        add(new JScrollPane(jlst), BorderLayout.CENTER);

        // Register listeners
        jbtAdd.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                String newItem = JOptionPane.showInputDialog("Enter a new item");
                if (newItem != null)
                    if (jlst.getSelectedIndex() == -1)
                        listModel.addElement(newItem);
                    else
                        listModel.add(jlst.getSelectedIndex(), newItem);
            }
        });

        jbtRemove.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                listModel.remove(jlst.getSelectedIndex());
            }
        });
    }
}

The program creates listModel (line 6), which is an instance of DefaultListModel, and uses it to manipulate data in the list. The model enables you to add and remove items in the list.

A list is created from the list model (line 7). The initial elements are added into the model using the addElement method (lines 13-19).

To add an element, the user clicks the Add new item button to display an input dialog box. Type a new item in the dialog box.
The new item is inserted before the currently selected element in the list (line 38). If no element is selected, the new element is appended to the list (line 36).

To remove an element, the user has to select the element and then click the Remove selected item button. Note that only the first selected item is removed. You can modify the program to remove all the selected items (see Exercise 39.6).

What would happen if you clicked the Remove selected item button but no items were currently selected? This would cause an error. To fix it, see Exercise 39.6.

39.9 List Cell Renderer

The preceding example displays items as strings in a list. JList is very flexible and versatile, and it can be used to display images and GUI components in addition to simple text. This section introduces list cell renderers for displaying graphics.

In addition to delegating data storage and processing to list models, JList delegates the rendering of list cells to list cell renderers. All list cell renderers implement the ListCellRenderer interface, which defines a single method, getListCellRendererComponent, as follows:

```java
public Component getListCellRendererComponent
(JList list, Object value, int index, boolean isSelected,
 boolean cellHasFocus)
```

This method is passed with a list, the value associated with the cell, the index of the value, and information regarding whether the value is selected and whether the cell has the focus. The component returned from the method is painted on the cell in the list. By default, JList uses DefaultListCellRenderer to render its cells. The DefaultListCellRenderer class implements ListCellRenderer, extends JLabel, and can display either a string or an icon, but not both in the same cell.

For example, you can use JList’s default cell renderer to display strings, as shown in Figure 39.22(a), using the following code:

```java
JList list = new JList(new String[]{"Denmark", "Germany", "China", "India", "Norway", "UK", "US"});
```

![Figure 39.22](image)

(a) Strings  (b) Icons  (c) Icons and strings

Figure 39.22

The cell renderer displays list items in a list.
You can use JList’s default cell renderer to display icons, as shown in Figure 39.22(b), using the following code:

```java
ImageIcon denmarkIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/denmarkIcon.gif"));
...
JList list = new JList(new ImageIcon[]{denmarkIcon, germanyIcon, chinaIcon, indiaIcon, norwayIcon, ukIcon, usIcon});
```

How do you display a string along with an icon in one cell, as shown in Figure 39.22(c)? You need to create a custom renderer by implementing `ListCellRenderer`, as shown in Figure 39.23.

**Figure 39.23**

`ListCellRenderer` defines how cells are rendered in a list.

Suppose a list is created as follows:

```java
JList list = new JList(new Object[][]{{denmarkIcon, "Denmark"}, {germanyIcon, "Germany"}, {chinaIcon, "China"}, {indiaIcon, "India"}, {norwayIcon, "Norway"}, {ukIcon, "UK"}, {usIcon, "US"}});
```

Each item in the list is an array that consists of an icon and a string. You can create a custom cell renderer that retrieves an icon and a string from the list data model and display them in a label. The custom cell renderer class is given in Listing 39.9.

**Listing 39.9** MyListCellRenderer.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;

public class MyListCellRenderer implements ListCellRenderer {
    private JLabel jlblCell = new JLabel(" ", JLabel.LEFT);
    private Border lineBorder = BorderFactory.createLineBorder(Color.black, 1);
    private Border emptyBorder = BorderFactory.createEmptyBorder(2, 2, 2, 2);

    /** Implement this method in ListCellRenderer */
    public Component getListCellRendererComponent(JList list, Object value, int index, boolean isSelected,
```
boolean cellHasFocus) {
    Object[] pair = (Object[])value; // Cast value into an array
    jlblCell.setOpaque(true);
    jlblCell.setIcon((ImageIcon)pair[0]);
    jlblCell.setText(pair[1].toString());

    if (isSelected) {
        jlblCell.setForeground(list.getSelectionForeground());
        jlblCell.setBackground(list.getSelectionBackground());
    }
    else {
        jlblCell.setForeground(list.getForeground());
        jlblCell.setBackground(list.getBackground());
    }

    jlblCell.setBorder(cellHasFocus ? lineBorder : emptyBorder);

    return jlblCell;
}

The MyListCellRenderer class implements the getListCellRendererComponent method in the ListCellRenderer interface. This method is passed with the parameters list, value, index, isSelected, and isFocused (lines 13-15). The value represents the current item value. In this case, it is an array consisting of two elements. The first element is an image icon (line 18). The second element is a string (line 19). Both image icon and string are displayed on a label. The getListCellRendererComponent method returns the label (line 32), which is painted on the cell in the list.

If the cell is selected, the background and foreground of the cell are set to the list's selection background and foreground (lines 22-23). If the cell is focused, the cell's border is set to the line border (line 30); otherwise, it is set to the empty border (line 30). The empty border serves as a divider between the cells.

NOTE
<margin note: any GUI renderer>
The example in Listing 39.9 uses a JLabel as a renderer. You may use any GUI component as a renderer, returned from the getListCellRendererComponent method.

Let us develop an example (Listing 39.10) that creates a list of countries and displays the flag image and name for each country as one item in the list, as shown in Figure 39.24. When a country is selected in the list, its flag is displayed in a label next to the list.
Figure 39.24

The image and the text are displayed in the list cell.

Listing 39.10 ListCellRendererDemo.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import java.awt.*;

public class ListCellRendererDemo extends JApplet {
    private final static int NUMBER_OF_NATIONS = 7;
    private String[] nations = new String[] {
        "Denmark", "Germany", "China", "India", "Norway", "UK", "US"};
    private ImageIcon[] icons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
    private ImageIcon[] bigIcons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];

    // Create a list model
    private DefaultListModel listModel = new DefaultListModel();

    // Create a list using the list model
    private JList jlstNations = new JList(listModel);

    // Create a list cell renderer
    private ListCellRenderer renderer = new MyListCellRenderer();

    // Create a split pane
    private JSplitPane jSplitPane1 = new JSplitPane();

    // Create a label for displaying image
    private JLabel jlblImage = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);

    /** Construct ListCellRenderer */
    public ListCellRendererDemo() {
        // Load small and large image icons
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_NATIONS; i++) {
            icons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/flagIcon" + i + "gif"));
            bigIcons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/bigFlagIcon" + i + "gif"));
            listModel.addElement(new Object[]{icons[i], nations[i]});
        }
    }
}
```

1 import javax.swing.*;
2 import javax.swing.event.*;
3 import java.awt.*;

5 public class ListCellRendererDemo extends JApplet {
6     private final static int NUMBER_OF_NATIONS = 7;
7     private String[] nations = new String[] {
8         "Denmark", "Germany", "China", "India", "Norway", "UK", "US"};
9     private ImageIcon[] icons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
10    private ImageIcon[] bigIcons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
11
12    // Create a list model
13    private DefaultListModel listModel = new DefaultListModel();
14
15    // Create a list using the list model
16    private JList jlstNations = new JList(listModel);
17
18    // Create a list cell renderer
19    private ListCellRenderer renderer = new MyListCellRenderer();
20
21    // Create a split pane
22    private JSplitPane jSplitPane1 = new JSplitPane();
23
24    // Create a label for displaying image
25    private JLabel jlblImage = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);
26
27    /** Construct ListCellRenderer */
28    public ListCellRendererDemo() {
29        // Load small and large image icons
30        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_NATIONS; i++) {
31            icons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/flagIcon" + i + "gif"));
32            bigIcons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/bigFlagIcon" + i + "gif"));
33            listModel.addElement(new Object[]{icons[i], nations[i]});
34```
bigIcons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/flag" + i + ".gif"));

// Set list cell renderer
jlstNations.setCellRenderer(renderer);
jlstNations.setPreferredSize(new Dimension(200, 200));
jSplitPanel.setLeftComponent(new JScrollPane(jlstNations));
jlstNations.setPreferredWidth(new Dimension(200, 200));
jlblImage.setRightComponent(jlblImage);
jlstNations.setPreferredWidth(new Dimension(200, 200));
jlblImage.setPreferredWidth(new Dimension(200, 200));
jlblImage.setIcon(bigIcons[0]);
add(jSplitPanel, BorderLayout.CENTER);

// Register listener
jlstNations.addListSelectionListener(new ListSelectionListener() {
    public void valueChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
        jlblImage.setIcon(bigIcons[jlstNations.getSelectedIndex()]);
    }
});

Two types of icons are used in this program. The small icons are created from files flagIcon0.gif, ..., flagIcon6.gif (lines 31-32). These image files are the flags for Denmark, Germany, China, India, Norway, UK, and US. The small icons are rendered inside the list. The large icons for the same countries are created from files flag0.gif, ..., flag6.gif (lines 35-36). The large icons are displayed on a label on the right side of the split pane.

The ListCellRendererDemo class creates a list model (line 13) and adds the items to the model (line 33). Each item is an array of two elements (image icon and string). The list is created using the list model (line 16). The list cell renderer is created (line 19) and associated with the list (line 40).

The ListCellRendererDemo class creates a split pane (line 22) and places the list on the left (line 42) and a label on the right (line 43).

When you choose a country in the list, the list-selection event handler is invoked (lines 49-53) to set a new image to the label in the right side of the split pane (line 51).

39.10 JComboBox and its Models

The basic features of JComboBox were introduced in §17.8, "ComboBox," without using combo box models. This section introduces combo models and discusses the use of JComboBox in some detail.

A combo box is similar to a list. Combo boxes and lists are both used for selecting items from a list. A combo box allows the user to select one item at a time, whereas a list permits multiple selections. When a combo box is selected, it displays a drop-down list contained in a popup menu. The selected item can be edited in the cell as if it were a text field. Figure 39.25 shows the properties and constructors of JComboBox. The data for a combo box are stored in ComboBoxModel. You can create a combo box from a combo box model, an array of objects, or a vector.
### javax.swing.JComboBox

- **actionCommand**: String
  - An action string associated with the combo box.
- **editable**: boolean
  - Specifies whether the cell can be edited.
- **itemCount**: int
  - A read-only property to count the number of items.
- **maximumRowCount**: int
  - Specifies the maximum number of items the combo box can display in the popup menu without a scrollbar.
- **model**: ComboBoxModel
  - The data model that holds the items displayed by this combo box. Indicates whether the popup menu for displaying items is visible. By default, it is false, which means the user has to click the combobox to display the popup menu.
- **popupVisible**: boolean
  - The object that renders the list items in the combo box.
- **renderer**: ListCellRenderer
  - Specifies the index of the selected item.
- **selectedIndex**: int
  - Specifies the selected item.
- **selectedItem**: Object

**Methods**

- **+JComboBox()**
  - Constructs a default JComboBox.
- **+JComboBox(dataModel: ComboBoxModel)**
  - Constructs a JComboBox with the specified combo box model.
- **+JComboBox(items: Object[])**
  - Constructs a default JComboBox with an array of items.
- **+JComboBox(items: Vector)**
  - Constructs a JComboBox with a vector.
- **+getItemAt(index: int): void**
  - Returns the item at the specified index.
- **+addItem(anObject: Object): void**
  - Adds the item to the combo box.
- **+insertItemAt(anObject: Object, index: int): void**
  - Inserts the item to the combo box at the specified index.
- **+removeItemAt(index: int): void**
  - Removes an item at the specified index from the combo box.
- **+removeItem(anObject: Object): void**
  - Removes an item from the combo box.
- **+removeAllItems(): void**
  - Removes all items from the combo box.

### javax.swing.ComboBoxModel

- **ListModel** interface and defines the `getSelectedItem` and `setSelectedItem` methods for retrieving and setting a selected item. The methods for adding and removing items are defined in the **MutableComboBoxModel** interface, which extends **ComboBoxModel**. When an instance of **JComboBox** is created without explicitly specifying a model, an instance of **DefaultComboBoxModel** is used. The **DefaultComboBoxModel** class extends **AbstractListModel** and implements **MutableComboBoxModel**, as shown in Figure 39.26.

#### Figure 39.25

**JComboBox** displays elements in a list.

JComboBox delegates the responsibilities of storing and maintaining data to its data model. All combo box models implement the **ComboBoxModel** interface, which extends the **ListModel** interface and defines the `getSelectedItem` and `setSelectedItems` methods for retrieving and setting a selected item. The methods for adding and removing items are defined in the **MutableComboBoxModel** interface, which extends **ComboBoxModel**. When an instance of **JComboBox** is created without explicitly specifying a model, an instance of **DefaultComboBoxModel** is used. The **DefaultComboBoxModel** class extends **AbstractListModel** and implements **MutableComboBoxModel**, as shown in Figure 39.26.
ComboBoxModel stores and manages data in a combo box.

Usually you don’t need to use combo box models explicitly, because JComboBox contains the methods for retrieving (getItemAt, getSelectedItem, and getSelectedIndex), adding (addItem and insertItemAt), and removing (removeItem, removeItemAt, and removeAllItems) items from the list.

JComboBox can fire ActionEvent and ItemEvent, among many other events. Whenever a new item is selected, JComboBox fires ItemEvent twice, once for deselecting the previously selected item, and the other for selecting the currently selected item. JComboBox fires an ActionEvent after generating an ItemEvent.

Combo boxes render cells exactly like lists, because the combo box items are displayed in a list contained in a popup menu. Therefore, a combo box cell renderer can be created exactly like a list cell renderer by implementing the ListCellRenderer interface. Like JList, JComboBox has a default cell renderer that displays a string or an icon, but not both at the same time. To display a combination of a string and an icon, you need to create a custom renderer. The custom list cell renderer MyListCellRenderer in Listing 39.9 can be used as a combo box cell renderer without any modification.

Listing 39.11 gives an example that creates a combo box to display the flag image and name for each country as one item in the list, as shown in Figure 39.27. When a country is selected in the list, its flag is displayed in a panel below the combo box.
public class ComboBoxCellRendererDemo extends JApplet {
    private final static int NUMBER_OF_NATIONS = 7;
    private String[] nations = new String[] {"Denmark", "Germany", "China", "India", "Norway", "UK", "US"};
    private ImageIcon[] icons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];
    private ImageIcon[] bigIcons = new ImageIcon[NUMBER_OF_NATIONS];

    // Create a combo box model
    private DefaultComboBoxModel model = new DefaultComboBoxModel();
    // Create a combo box with the specified model
    private JComboBox jcboCountries = new JComboBox(model);

    // Create a list cell renderer
    private MyListCellRenderer renderer = new MyListCellRenderer();

    // Create a label for displaying image
    private JLabel jlblImage = new JLabel("", JLabel.CENTER);

    /** Construct the applet */
    public ComboBoxCellRendererDemo() {
        // Load small and large image icons
        for (int i = 0; i < NUMBER_OF_NATIONS; i++) {
            icons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/flagIcon" + i + ".gif"));
            model.addElement(new Object[]{icons[i], nations[i]});
            bigIcons[i] = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/flag" + i + ".gif"));
        }
    }

    // Other methods...
}
// Set list cell renderer for the combo box
jcboCountries.setRenderer(renderer);

// Register listener
jcboCountries.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(java.awt.event.ActionEvent e) {
        jlblImage.setIcon(bigIcons[jcboCountries.getSelectedIndex()]);
    }
});

The program is very similar to the preceding example in Listing 39.10. Two types of image icons are loaded for each country and stored in the arrays icons and bigIcons (lines 27–34). Each item in the combo box is an array that consists of an icon and a string (line 30).

MyListCellRenderer, defined in Listing 39.9, is used to create a cell renderer in line 19. The cell renderer is plugged into the combo box in line 37.

When you choose a country from the combo box, the action event handler is invoked (lines 44–46). This handler sets a new image on the label (line 45).

Key Terms

- controller
- model
- MVC architecture
- view

Chapter Summary

1. The fundamental issue in the model-view approach is to ensure consistency between the views and the model. Any change in the model should be notified to the dependent views, and all the views should display the same data consistently. The model can be implemented as a source with appropriate event and event listener registration methods. The view can be implemented as a listener. Thus, if data are changed in the model, the view will be notified.

2. Every Swing user interface component (e.g., JButton, JTextField, JList, and JComboBox) has a property named model that refers to its data model. The data model is defined in an interface whose name ends with Model (e.g., SpinnerModel, ListModel, ListSelectionModel, and ComboBoxModel).

3. Most simple Swing components (e.g., JButton, JTextField, JTextArea) contain some properties of their models, and these
properties can be accessed and modified directly from the component without the existence of the model being known.

4. A JSpinner is displayed as a text field with a pair of tiny arrow buttons on its right side that enable the user to select numbers, dates, or values from an ordered sequence. A JSpinner’s sequence value is defined by the SpinnerModel interface. AbstractSpinnerModel is a convenient abstract class that implements SpinnerModel and provides the implementation for its registration/deregistration methods. SpinnerListModel, SpinnerNumberModel, and SpinnerDateModel are concrete implementations of SpinnerModel. SpinnerNumberModel represents a sequence of numbers with properties maximum, minimum, and stepSize. SpinnerDateModel represents a sequence of dates. SpinnerListModel can store a list of any object values.

5. A JSpinner has a single child component, called the editor, which is responsible for displaying the current element or value of the model. Four editors are defined as static inner classes inside JSpinner: JSpinner.DefaultEditor, JSpinner.NumberEditor, JSpinner.DateEditor, and JSpinner.ListEditor.

6. JList has two supporting models: a list model and a list-selection model. The list model is for storing and processing data. The list-selection model is for selecting items. By default, items are rendered as strings or icons. You can also create a custom renderer implementing the ListCellRenderer interface.

7. JComboBox delegates the responsibilities of storing and maintaining data to its data model. All combo box models implement the ComboBoxModel interface, which extends the ListModel interface and defines the getSelectedItem and setSelectedItem methods for retrieving and setting a selected item. The methods for adding and removing items are defined in the MutableComboBoxModel interface, which extends ComboBoxModel. When an instance of JComboBox is created without explicitly specifying a model, an instance of DefaultComboBoxModel is used. The DefaultComboBoxModel class extends AbstractListModel and implements MutableComboBoxModel.

8. Combo boxes render cells exactly like lists, because the combo box items are displayed in a list contained in a popup menu. Therefore, a combo box cell renderer can be created exactly like a list cell renderer by implementing the ListCellRenderer interface.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 39.2–39.3
39.1
What is model-view-controller architecture?
39.2 How do you do implement models, views, and controllers?
39.3 What are the variations of MVC architecture?

Section 39.4
39.4
Does each Swing GUI component (except containers such as JPanel) have a property named model? Is the type of model the same for all the components?

39.5
Does each model interface have a default implementation class? If so, does a Swing component use the default model class if no model is specified?

Sections 39.5-39.6
39.6
If you create a JSpinner without specifying a data model, what is the default model?

39.7
What is the internal data structure for storing data in SpinnerListModel? How do you convert an array to a list?

Sections 39.7-39.9
39.8
Does JList have a method, such as addItem, for adding an item to a list? How do you add items to a list? Can JList display icons and custom GUI objects in a list? Can a list item be edited? How do you initialize data in a list? How do you specify the maximum number of visible rows in a list without scrolling? How do you specify the height of a list cell? How do you specify the horizontal margin of list cells?

39.9 How do you create a list model? How do you add items to a list model? How do you remove items from a list model?

39.10 What are the three list-selection modes? Can you set the selection modes directly in an instance of JList? How do you obtain the selected item(s)?

39.11 How do you define a custom list cell renderer?

39.12 What is the handler for handling the ListSelectionEvent?

Section 39.10
39.13 Can multiple items be selected from a combo box? Can a combo box item be edited? How do you specify the maximum number of visible rows in a combo box without scrolling? Can you specify the height of a combo box cell using a method in JComboBox? How do you obtain the selected item in a combo box?

39.14 How do you add or remove items from a combo box?
Why is the cell renderer for a combo box the same as the renderer for a list?

**Programming Exercises**

**Section 39.2**

39.1***

(Create MVC components) Create a model, named `ChartModel`, which holds data in an array of double elements named `data`, and the names for the data in an array of strings named `dataName`. For example, the enrollment data {200, 40, 50, 100, 40} stored in the array `data` are for "CS", "Math", "Chem", "Biol", "Phys" in the array `dataName`. These two properties have their respective get methods, but not individual set methods. Both properties are set together in the `setChartData(String[] newDataName, double[] newData)` method so that they can be displayed properly. Create a view named `PieChart` to present the data in a pie chart, and create a view named `BarChart` to present the data in a bar chart, as shown in Figure 39.28(a).

(Hint: Each pie represents a percentage of the total data. Color the pie using the colors from an array named colors, which is {Color.red, Color.yellow, Color.green, Color.blue, Color.Cyan, Color.magenta, Color.orange, Color.pink, Color.DarkGray}. Use colors[i % colors.length] for the i-th pie. Use black color to display the data names.)

![Figure 39.28](image)

(a) The two views, `PieChart` and `BarChart`, receive data from the `ChartModel`; (b) Clicking the eclipse button displays the color chooser dialog box for specifying a color.

39.2*

(Revise Listing 39.3 CircleController.java) `CircleController` uses a text field to obtain a new radius and a combo box to obtain a Boolean value to specify whether the circle is filled. Add a new row in `CircleController` to let the user choose color using the `JColorchooser` component, as shown in Figure 39.28(b). The new row consists of a label with text `Color`, a label to display color, and an eclipse button. The user can click the eclipse button to display a `JColorChooser` dialog box. Once the user selects a color, the color is displayed as the background for the label on the left of the eclipse button.

**Sections 39.5-39.6**

39.3**

(Synchronize spinners) The date spinner is synchronized with the day, month, and year spinners in Listing 39.6,
SpinnerModelEditorDemo.java. Improve it to synchronize the day, month, and year spinners with the date spinner. In other words, when a new value is selected in the date spinner, the values in the day, month, and year spinners are updated accordingly.

39.4*

(Custom spinner model) Develop a custom spinner model that represents a sequence of numbers of power 2—that is, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, and so on. Your model should implement AbstractSpinnerModel. The registration/deregistration methods for ChangeListener have already been implemented in AbstractSpinnerModel. You need to implement getNextValue(), getPreviousValue(), getValue(), and setValue(Object) methods.

39.5*

(Reverse the numbers displayed in a spinner) The numbers displayed in a spinner increase when the up-arrow button is clicked and decrease when the down-arrow button is clicked. You can reverse the sequence by creating a new model that extends SpinnerNumberModel and overrides the getNextValue and getPreviousValue methods. Write a test program that uses the new model, as shown in Figure 39.29.

Figure 39.29
The numbers in the spinner are in decreasing order.

Sections 39.7-39.9

39.6*

(Reverse the numbers displayed in a spinner) The numbers displayed in a spinner increase when the up-arrow button is clicked and decrease when the down-arrow button is clicked. You can reverse the sequence by creating a new model that extends SpinnerNumberModel and overrides the getNextValue and getPreviousValue methods. Write a test program that uses the new model, as shown in Figure 39.29.

39.7*

(Custom list cell renderer) Listing 39.10, ListCellRendererDemo.java, has two types of images for each country. The small images are used for display in the list, and the large ones are used for display outside the list. Assume that only the large images are available. Rewrite the custom cell renderer to use a JPanel instead of a JLabel for rendering a cell. Each cell consists of an image and a string. Display the image in an ImageViewer and the string in a label. The ImageViewer component was introduced in Listing 13.15, ImageViewer.java. The image can be stretched.
in an ImageViewer. Set the dimension of an image viewer to 32 by 32, as shown in Figure 39.30. Revise Listing 39.10 to test the new custom cell renderer.

**Figure 39.30**
Image Viewer is used to render the image in the list.

39.8*

(Delete selected items in a list using the DELETE key) Modify Listing 39.10, ListCellRendererDemo.java, to delete selected items from the list using the DELETE key. After some items are deleted from the list, the index of a selected item in the list does not match the index of the item in the bigIcons array. As a result, you cannot use the image icon in the bigIcons array to display the image to the right side of the split pane. Revise the program to retrieve the icon from the selected item in the list and display it, as shown in Figure 39.31.

**Figure 39.31**
Images in the list are also used for display in the label placed in the right side of a split pane.

39.9**

(Render figures) Create a program that shows a list of geometrical shapes along with a label in an instance of JList, as shown in Figure 39.32(a). Display the selected figure in a panel when selecting a figure from the list. The figures can be drawn using the FigurePanel class in Listing 14.5, FigurePanel.java.

**Figure 39.32**
(a) The list displays geometrical shapes and their names; (b) The list displays cities and clocks.

39.10**

(List of clocks) Write a program that displays a list of cities and their local times in a clock, as shown in Figure 39.32(b). When a city is selected in the list, its clock is displayed in a large picture on the right.

Section 39.10

39.11**

(Create custom cell renderer in a combo box) Create a program that shows a list of geometrical shapes along with a label in a combo box, as shown in Figure 39.33(a). This exercise may share the list cell renderer with Exercise 39.9.

(a) The combo box contains a list of geometrical shapes and the shape names. (b) The combo box contains a list of color names, each using its own color for its foreground.

39.12**

(Render colored text) Write a program that enables the user to choose the foreground colors for a label, as shown in Figure 39.33(b). The combo box contains 13 standard colors (BLACK, BLUE, CYAN, DARK_GRAY, GRAY, GREEN, LIGHT_GRAY, MAGENTA, ORANGE, PINK, RED, WHITE, YELLOW). Each color name in the combo box uses its own color for its foreground.

39.13*

(Delete a selected item in a combo box using the DELETE key) Modify Listing 39.11, ComboBoxCellRendererDemo.java, to delete the selected item from the combo box using the DELETE key.

Comprehensive

39.14*

(Calendar) Write a program that controls a calendar using a spinner, as shown in Figure 39.7. Use the CalendarPanel class (see Listing 31.4) to display the calendar.
CHAPTER 40

JTable and JTree

Objectives

- To display tables using JTable ($40.2$).
- To process rows and columns using TableModel, DefaultTableModel, TableColumnModel, DefaultTableColumnModel, and ListSelectionModel ($§40.3-40.5$).
- To enable auto sort and filtering on table model ($§40.4$).
- To add rows and columns, delete rows and columns in a table ($§40.5$).
- To render and edit table cells using the default renderers and editors ($§40.6$).
- To render and edit table cells using the custom renderers and editors ($§40.7$).
- To handle table model events ($§40.8$).
- To display data in a tree hierarchy using JTree ($§40.9$).
- To model the structure of a tree using TreeModel and DefaultTreeModel ($§40.10$).
- To add, remove, and process tree nodes using TreeNode, MutableTreeNode, and DefaultMutableTreeNode ($§40.11$).
- To select tree nodes and paths using TreeSelectionModel and DefaultTreeSelectionModel ($§40.12$).
- To render and edit tree nodes using the default and custom renderers and editors ($§40.14$).
40.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter introduced the model-view architecture, Swing MVC, and the models in JSpinner, JList, and JComboBox. This chapter introduces JTable and JTree, and how to use the models to process data in JTable and JTree.

40.2 JTable

JTable is a Swing component that displays data in rows and columns in a two-dimensional grid, as shown in Figure 40.1.

![JTable example](image)

Figure 40.1

JTable displays data in a table.

JTable doesn't directly support scrolling. To create a scrollable table, you need to create a JScrollPane and add an instance of JTable to the scroll pane. If a table is not placed in a scroll pane, its column header will not be visible, because the column header is placed in the header of the view port of a scroll pane.

JTable has three supporting models: a table model, a column model, and a list-selection model. The table model is for storing and processing data. The column model represents all the columns in the table. The list-selection model is the same as the one used by JList for selecting rows, columns, and cells in a table. JTable also has two useful supporting classes, TableColumn and JTableHeader. TableColumn contains the information on a particular column. JTableHeader can be used to display table header. Each column has a default editor and renderer. You can also create a custom editor by implementing the TableCellEditor interface, and create a custom renderer by implementing the TableCellRenderer interface. The relationship of these interfaces and classes is shown in Figure 40.2.

![JTable class diagram](image)

Figure 40.2

JTable contains many supporting interfaces and classes.
NOTE: All the supporting interfaces and classes for JTable are grouped in the javax.swing.table package.

Figure 40.3 shows the constructors, properties, and methods of JTable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>javax.swing.JTable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autoCreateColumnsFromModel: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autoResizeMode: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cellEditor: TableCellEditor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>columnModel: TableColumnModel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>columnSelectionAllowed: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>editingColumn: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>editingRow: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gridColor: java.awt.Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intercellSpacing: Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>model: TableModel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rowCount: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rowHeight: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rowMargin: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rowSelectionAllowed: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selectionBackground: java.awt.Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selectionForeground: java.awt.Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showGrid: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selectionMode: int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selectionModel: ListSelectionModel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showHorizontalLines: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showVerticalLines: boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tableHeader: JTableHeader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+JTable()
+JTable(numRows: int, numColumns: int)
+JTable(rowData: Object[][], columnData: Object[])
+JTable(dm: TableModel)
+JTable(dm: TableModel, cm: TableColumnModel)
+JTable(dm: TableModel, cm: TableColumnModel, sm: ListSelectionModel)
+JTable(rowData: Vector, columnNames: Vector)
+addColumn(aColumn: TableColumn): void
+clearSelection(): void
+editCellAt(row: int, column: int): void
+getDefaultValueEditor(column: Class): TableCellEditor
+getDefaultValueRenderer(col: Class): TableCellRenderer
+setDefaultEditor(column: Class, editor: TableCellEditor): void
+setDefaultRenderer(column: Class, editor: TableCellRenderer): void

Indicates whether the columns are created in the table (default: true). Specifies how columns are resized (default: SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS). Specifies a cell editor. Maintains the table column data. Specifies whether the columns can be selected (default: false). Specifies the column of the cell that is currently being edited. Specifies the row of the cell that is currently being edited. The color used to draw grid lines (default: GRAY). Specifies horizontal and vertical margins between cells (default: 1, 1). Maintains the table model. Read-only property that counts the number of rows in the table. Specifies the row height of the table (default: 16 pixels). Specifies the vertical margin between rows (default: 1 pixel). Specifies whether the rows can be selected (default: true). The background color of selected cells. The foreground color of selected cells. Specify whether the grid lines are displayed (write-only, default: true). Specifies a selection mode (write-only). Specifies a selection model. Specifies whether the horizontal grid lines are displayed (default: true). Specifies whether the vertical grid lines are displayed (default: true). Specifies a table header.

**Figure 40.3**

The JTable class is for creating, customizing, and manipulating tables.

The JTable class contains seven constructors for creating tables. You can create a table using its no-arg constructor, its models, row data in a two-dimensional array, and column header names in...
an array, or row data and column header names in vectors. Listing 40.1 creates a table with the row data and column names (line 20) and places it in a scroll pane (line 23). The table is displayed in Figure 40.1.

Listing 40.1 TestTable.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;

public class TestTable extends JApplet {
    // Create table column names
    private String[] columnNames = {

    // Create table data
    private Object[][] data = {
        {"USA", "Washington DC", 280, true},
        {"Canada", "Ottawa", 32, true},
        {"United Kingdom", "London", 60, true},
        {"Germany", "Berlin", 83, true},
        {"France", "Paris", 60, true},
        {"Norway", "Oslo", 4.5, true},
        {"India", "New Delhi", 1046, true}];

    // Create a table
    private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(data, columnNames);

    public TestTable() {
        add(new JScrollPane(jTable1));
    }
}
```

NOTE

Primitive type values such as 280 and true in line 10 are autoboxed into new Integer(280) and new Boolean(true).

JTable is a powerful control with a variety of properties that provide many ways to customize tables. All the frequently used properties are documented in Figure 40.3. The autoResizeMode property specifies how columns are resized (you can resize table columns but not rows). Possible values are:

- JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_OFF
- JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_LAST_COLUMN
- JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS
- JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_NEXT_COLUMN
- JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_ALL_COLUMNS

The default mode is JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS.

Initially, each column in the table occupies the same width (75 pixels). With AUTO_RESIZE_OFF, resizing a column does not affect the widths of the other columns. With AUTO_RESIZE_LAST_COLUMN,
resizing a column affects the width of the last column. With
AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS, resizing a column affects the
widths of all the subsequent columns. With
AUTO_RESIZE_NEXT_COLUMN, resizing a column affects the widths of
the next columns. With AUTO_RESIZE_ALL_COLUMNS, resizing a column
affects the widths of all the columns.

Listing 40.2 gives an example that demonstrates the use of
several JTable properties. The example creates a table and allows
the user to choose an Auto Resize Mode, specify the row height
and margin, and indicate whether the grid is shown. A sample run
of the program is shown in Figure 40.4.

Figure 40.4

You can specify an autoresizing mode, the table’s row height and row
margin, and whether to show the grid in the table.

Listing 40.2 TablePropertiesDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;

public class TablePropertiesDemo extends JApplet {

// Create table column names
private String[] columnNames = {

// Create table data
private Object[][] rowData = {
    {"USA", "Washington DC", 280, true},
    {"Canada", "Ottawa", 32, true},
    {"United Kingdom", "London", 60, true},
    {"Germany", "Berlin", 83, true},
    {"France", "Paris", 60, true},
    {"Norway", "Oslo", 4.5, true},
    {"India", "New Delhi", 1046, true}
};
```
// Create a table
private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(rowData, columnNames);

// Create two spinners
private JSpinner jspiRowHeight =
    new JSpinner(new SpinnerNumberModel(16, 1, 50, 1));
private JSpinner jspiRowMargin =
    new JSpinner(new SpinnerNumberModel(1, 1, 50, 1));

// Create a checkbox
private JCheckBox jchkShowGrid = new JCheckBox("showGrid", true);

// Create a combo box
private JComboBox jcboAutoResizeMode =
    new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "AUTO_RESIZE_OFF", "AUTO_RESIZE_LAST_COLUMN", "AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS", "AUTO_RESIZE_NEXT_COLUMN", "AUTO_RESIZE_ALL_COLUMNS" });

public TablePropertiesDemo() {
    JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
    panel1.add(new JLabel("rowHeight"));
    panel1.add(jspiRowHeight);
    panel1.add(new JLabel("rowMargin"));
    panel1.add(jspiRowMargin);
    panel1.add(jchkShowGrid);
    JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
    panel2.add(new JLabel("autoResizeMode"));
    panel2.add(jcboAutoResizeMode);
    add(panel1, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
    add(panel2, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(new JScrollPane(jTable1));

    // Initialize jTable1
    jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_OFF);
    jTable1.setGridColor(Color.BLUE);
    jTable1.setSelectionMode(ListSelectionModel.SINGLE_SELECTION);
    jTable1.setSelectionBackground(Color.RED);
    jTable1.setSelectionForeground(Color.WHITE);

    // Register and create a listener for jspiRowHeight
    jspiRowHeight.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
        public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
            jTable1.setRowHeight((Integer) jspiRowHeight.getValue()).intValue());
        }
    });

    // Register and create a listener for jspiRowMargin
    jspiRowMargin.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
        public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
            jTable1.setRowMargin((Integer) jspiRowMargin.getValue()).intValue());
        }
    });

    // Register and create a listener for jchkShowGrid
    jchkShowGrid.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            jTable1.setShowGrid(jchkShowGrid.isSelected());
        }
    });
// Register and create a listener for jcboAutoResizeMode
jcboAutoResizeMode.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        String selectedItem = (String)jcboAutoResizeMode.getSelectedItem();
        if (selectedItem.equals("AUTO_RESIZE_OFF"))
            jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_OFF);
        else if (selectedItem.equals("AUTO_RESIZE_LAST_COLUMN"))
            jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_LAST_COLUMN);
        else if (selectedItem.equals("AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS"))
            jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_SUBSEQUENT_COLUMNS);
        else if (selectedItem.equals("AUTO_RESIZE_NEXT_COLUMN"))
            jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_NEXT_COLUMN);
        else if (selectedItem.equals("AUTO_RESIZE_ALL_COLUMNS"))
            jTable1.setAutoResizeMode(JTable.AUTO_RESIZE_ALL_COLUMNS);
    }
});

If you know the row data in advance, creating a table using the constructor JTable(Object[][] rowData, Object[] columnNames) is convenient. As shown in line 23, a JTable is created using this constructor.

Two JSpinner objects (jspiRowHeight, jspiRowMargin) for selecting row height and row margin are created in lines 26-29. The initial value for jspiRowHeight is set to 16, which is the default property value for rowHeight. The initial value for jspiRowMargin is set to 1, which is the default property value for rowMargin. A check box (jchkShowGrid) is created with label showGrid and initially selected in line 32. A combo box for Selecting autoResizeMode is created in lines 35-38.

The values of the JTable properties (autoResizeMode, gridColor, selectionMode, selectionBackground, and selectionForeground) are set in lines 57-61.

The code for processing spinners, check boxes, and combo boxes is given in lines 64-106.

40.3 Table Models and Table Column Models

TableModel
JTable delegates data storing and processing to its table data model. A table data model must implement the TableModel interface, which defines the methods for registering table model listeners, manipulating cells, and obtaining row count, column count, column class, and column name.

AbstractTableModel
The AbstractTableModel class provides partial implementations for most of the methods in TableModel. It takes care of the management of listeners and provides some conveniences for generating TableModelEvents and dispatching them to the listeners. To create a concrete TableModel, you simply extend
AbstractTableModel and implement at least the following three methods:

- public int getRowCount()
- public int getColumnCount()
- public Object getValueAt(int row, int column)

The DefaultTableModel class extends AbstractTableModel and implements these three methods. Additionally, DefaultTableModel provides concrete storage for data. The data are stored in a vector. The elements in the vector are arrays of objects, each of which represents an individual cell value. The methods in DefaultTableModel for accessing and modifying data are shown in Figure 40.5.

```
@interface javax.swing.table.TableModel
+getColumnClass(columnIndex: int): Class
+getColumnName(columnIndex: int): String
+getColumnCount(): int
+getRowCount(): int
+getValueAt(rowIndex: int, columnIndex: int): Object
+getCellEditable(rowIndex: int, columnIndex: int): boolean
+addTableModelListener(l: TableModelListener): void
+removeTableModelListener(l: TableModelListener): void
```

```
javax.swing.table.AbstractTableModel
+DefaultTableModel()
+DefaultTableModel(rowCount: int, columnCount: int)
+DefaultTableModel(columnNames: Object[], rowColumn: int)
+DefaultTableModel(data: Object[][], columnNames: Object[])
+DefaultTableModel(columnNames: Vector, rowColumn: int)
+DefaultTableModel(data: Vector, columnNames: Vector)
+DefaultTableModel(rowData: Vector, columnNames: Vector)
+addColumn(columnName: Object): void
+addColumn(columnName: Object, columnData: Vector)
+addRow(rowData: Object[]): void
+addRow(rowData: Vector): void
+getColumnCount(): int
+getDataVector(): Vector
+getRowCount(): int
+insertRow(row: int, rowData: Object[]): void
+insertRow(row: int, rowData: Vector): void
+removeRow(row: int): void
+setColumnCount(columnCount: int): void
+setColumnIdentifiers(newIdentifiers: Object[]): void
+setColumnIdentifiers(columnIdentifiers: Vector): void
+setDataVector(dataVector: Object[][], columnIdentifiers: Object[]): void
+setDataVector(dataVector: Vector, columnIdentifiers: Vector): void
+setRowCount(rowCount: int): void
+setRowCount(rowCount: int): void
```

Figure 40.5

TableModel stores and manages data in a table and DefaultTableModel provides a default implementation for TableModel.

Listing 40.3 gives an example that demonstrates table models. The example creates a table model (line 16), plugs the model to the table (line 20), appends a row to the table (line 25), inserts a row before the first row (line 26), removes a row with index 1 (line 28), adds a new column (line 29), and sets new values at
specified cells (lines 30–32). Figure 40.6 shows the output of the program.

Listing 40.3 TestTableModel.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;

public class TestTableModel extends JApplet {

    private String[] columnNames = {

    private DefaultTableModel tableModel =
        new DefaultTableModel(data, columnNames);

    public TestTableModel() {
        add(new JScrollPane(jTable1));
        tableModel.addRow(new Object[]{"France", "Paris", 60, true});
        tableModel.insertRow(0, new Object[]{"India", "New Delhi", 1046, true});
        tableModel.removeRow(1);
        tableModel.addColumn("Area");
        tableModel.setValueAt(10, 0, 4);
        tableModel.setValueAt(20, 1, 4);
        tableModel.setValueAt(30, 2, 4);
    }
}
```

Figure 40.6
TableModel and DefaultTableModel contain the methods for adding, updating, and removing table data.

TableModel manages table data. You can add and remove rows through a TableModel. You can also add a column through a TableModel. However, you cannot remove a column through a TableModel. To remove a column from a JTable, you have to use a table column model.

<margin note: TableColumnModel>
Table column models manage columns in a table. They can be used to select, add, move, and remove table columns. A table column model must implement the TableColumnModel interface, which defines the methods for registering table column model listeners, and for accessing and manipulating columns, as shown in Figure 40.7.

<margin note: DefaultTableColumnModel>
DefaultTableColumnModel is a concrete class that implements TableColumnModel and PropertyChangeListener. The DefaultTableColumnModel class stores its columns in a vector and contains an instance of ListSelectionModel for selecting columns.

```java
javax.swing.table.TableColumnModel
+addColumn(aColumn: TableColumn): void
+getColumn(columnIndex: int): TableColumn
+getColumnCount(): int
+getColumnIndex(columnIdentifier: Object): int
+getColumnMargin(): int
+getColumnNames(): Enumeration
+getColumnSelectionAllowed(): boolean
+getSelectedColumnCount(): int
+getSelectedColumns(): void
+getSelectionModel(): ListSelectionModel
+getTotalColumnWidth(): int
+moveColumn(columnIndex: int, newIndex: int): void
+removeColumn(column: TableColumn): void
+setColumnMargin(newMargin: int): void
+setColumnSelectionAllowed(flag: boolean): void
+setSelectionModel(newModel: ListSelectionModel): void
```

Figure 40.7

TableColumnModel manages columns in a table and DefaultTableColumnModel is a concrete implementation of it.

<margin note: TableColumn>
The column model deals with all the columns in a table. The TableColumn class is used to model an individual column in the table. An instance of TableColumn for a specified column can be obtained using the getColumn(index) method in TableColumnModel or the getColumn(columnIdentifier) method in JTable.
Figure 40.8 shows the properties, constructors, and methods in TableColumn for manipulating column width and specifying the cell renderer, cell editor, and header renderer.

```
javax.swing.table.TableColumn
    #cellEditor: TableCellEditor
    #cellRenderer: TableCellRenderer
    #headerRenderer: TableCellRenderer
    #headerValue: Object
    #identifier: Object
    #maxWidth: int
    #minWidth: int
    #modelIndex: int
    #preferredWidth: int
    #resizable: boolean
    #width: int

+TableColumn()
+TableColumn(modelIndex: int)
+TableColumn(modelIndex: int, width: int)
+TableColumn(modelIndex: int, width: int, cellRenderer: TableCellRenderer)
+setWidthToFit(): void
```

The editor for editing a cell in this column.
The renderer for displaying a cell in this column.
The renderer for displaying the header of this column.
The header value of this column.
The identifier for this column.
The maximum width of this column.
The minimum width of this column (default: 15 pixels).
The index of the column in the table model (default: 0).
The preferred width of this column (default: 75 pixels).
Indicates whether this column can be resized (default: true).
Specifies the width of this column (default: 75 pixels).

Constructs a default table column.
Constructs a table column for the specified column.
Constructs a table column with the specified column and width.
Constructs a table column with the specified column, width, and cell renderer.
Resizes the column to fit the width of its header cell.

Figure 40.8

The TableColumn class models a single column.

Listing 40.4 gives an example that demonstrates table column models. The example obtains the table column model from the table (line 21), moves the first column to the second (line 22), and removes the last column (lines 23). Figure 40.9 shows the output of the program.

Listing 40.4 TestTableColumnModel.java

```
1 import javax.swing.*;
2 import javax.swing.table.*;
3
4 public class TestTableColumnModel extends JApplet {
5     // Create table column names
6     private String[] columnNames = {
7         "Country", "Capital", "Population in Millions", "Democracy"};
8
9     // Create table data
10     private Object[][] data = {
11         {"USA", "Washington DC", 280, true},
12         {"Canada", "Ottawa", 32, true}
13     };
```
// Create a table
private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(data, columnNames);

public TestTableColumnModel() {
    add(new JScrollPane(jTable1));

    TableColumnModel columnModel = jTable1.getColumnModel();
    columnModel.moveColumn(0, 1);
    columnModel.removeColumn(columnModel.getColumn(3));
}

Figure 40.9

TableColumnModel contains the methods for moving and removing columns.

NOTE: Some of the methods defined in the table model and the table column model are also defined in the JTable class for convenience. For instance, the getColumnCount() method is defined in JTable, TableModel, and TableColumnModel, the addColumn method defined in the column model is also defined in the table model, and the getColumn() method defined in the column model is also defined in the JTable class.

<margin note: TableHeader>

JTableHeader is a GUI component that displays the header of the JTable (see Figure 40.10). When you create a JTable, an instance of JTableHeader is automatically created and stored in the tableHeader property. By default, you can reorder the columns by dragging the header of the column. To disable it, set the reorderingAllowed property to false.

javax.swing.JComponent

javax.swing.table.JTableHeader

- The TableColumnModel of the table header.
- The column being dragged.
- The distance from its original position to the dragged position.
- Whether reordering of columns is allowed (default: true).
- Whether resizing of columns is allowed (default: true).
- The column being resized.
- The table for which this object is the header.
- Constructs a JTableHeader with a default TableColumnModel.
- Constructs a JTableHeader with a TableColumnModel.

Figure 40.10

The JTableHeader class displays the header of the JTable.
40.4 Auto Sort and Filtering

Auto sort and filtering are two useful features. To enable auto sort on any column in a JTable, create an instance of TableRowSorter with a table model and set JTable’s rowSorter as follows:

```java
TableRowSorter<TableModel> sorter = new TableRowSorter<TableModel>(tableModel);

jTable.setRowSorter(sorter);
```

(a) The table is sorted on Country. (b) The table is sorted on Capital.

When the table is displayed, you can sort the table by clicking a column head, as shown in Figure 40.11.

You can specify a filter to select rows in the table. The filter can be applied on one column or all columns. The javax.swing.RowFilter class contains several static methods for creating filters. You can use the regexFilter method to create a RowFilter with the specified regular expression. For example, the following statement creates a filter for the rows whose first column or second column begin with letter U.

```java
RowFilter rowFilter = RowFilter.regexFilter("U.*", int[]{0, 1});
```

The second argument in the regexFilter method specifies a set of column indices. If no indices are specified, all columns are searched in the filter.

To enable filtering, you have to associate a filter with a TableRowSorter, which is set to the JTable’s rowSorter property.

Listing 40.5 gives an example that demonstrates auto sort and filtering in JTable.

Listing 40.5 TestTableSortFilter.java

```
<margin note line 7: column names>
<margin note line 11: row data>
<margin note line 22: create table>
<margin note line 25: create TableRowSorter>
```
```java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.awt.BorderLayout;

public class TestTableSortFilter extends JApplet {

    private String[] columnNames = {

    private Object[][] data = {
        {"USA", "Washington DC", 280, true},
        {"Canada", "Ottawa", 32, true},
        {"United Kingdom", "London", 60, true},
        {"Germany", "Berlin", 83, true},
        {"France", "Paris", 60, true},
        {"Norway", "Oslo", 4.5, true},
        {"India", "New Delhi", 1046, true}
    };

    private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(data, columnNames);

    private TableRowSorter<TableModel> sorter =
        new TableRowSorter<TableModel>(jTable1.getModel());

    private JTextField jtfFilter = new JTextField();
    private JButton btFilter = new JButton("Filter");

    public TestTableSortFilter() {
        // Enable auto sorter
        jTable1.setRowSorter(sorter);
        JPanel panel = new JPanel(new java.awt.BorderLayout());
        panel.add(new JLabel("Specify a word to match:"),
            BorderLayout.WEST);
        panel.add(jtfFilter, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        panel.add(btFilter, BorderLayout.EAST);
        add(panel, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        add(new JScrollPane(jTable1), BorderLayout.CENTER);
        btFilter.addActionListener(new java.awt.event.ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(java.awt.event.ActionEvent e) {
                String text = jtfFilter.getText();
                if (text.trim().length() == 0)
                    sorter.setRowFilter(null);
                else
                    sorter.setRowFilter(RowFilter.regexFilter(text));
            }
        });
    }
}
```
The example creates a TableRowSorter (line 25) and sets the sorter in jTable1 (line 33). The program lets the user enter a filter pattern from a text field, as shown in Figure 40.12. If nothing is entered, no filter is set (line 48). If a regex is entered, clicking the Filter button sets the filter to jTable1 (line 50).

**Figure 40.12**
(a) Filter the table with regex U.*. (b) Filter the table with regex w.

### 40.5 Case Study: Modifying Rows and Columns

This case study demonstrates the use of table models, table column models, list-selection models, and the TableColumn class. The program allows the user to choose selection mode and selection type, add or remove rows and columns, and save, clear, or restore the table, as shown in Figure 40.13a.

**Figure 40.13**
You can add, remove, and modify rows and columns in a table interactively.

The Add New Row button adds a new empty row before the currently selected row, as shown in Figure 40.13b. If no row is currently selected, a new empty row is appended to the end of the table.

When you click the Add New Column button, an input dialog box is displayed to receive the title of the column, as shown in Figure 40.14a. The new column is appended in the table, as shown in Figure 40.14b.
Figure 40.14

You can add a new column in a table.

The Delete Selected Row button deletes the first selected row. The Delete Selected Column button deletes the first selected column.

The Save button saves the current table data and column names. The Clear button clears the row data in the table. The Restore button restores the saved table.

Listing 40.6 gives the program.

Listing 40.6 ModifyTable.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.util.Vector;

public class ModifyTable extends JApplet {
    ...
```
private String[] columnNames = {

private Object[][] rowData = {
    {"USA", "Washington DC", 280, true},
    {"Canada", "Ottawa", 32, true},
    {"United Kingdom", "London", 60, true},
    {"Germany", "Berlin", 83, true},
    {"France", "Paris", 60, true},
    {"Norway", "Oslo", 4.5, true},
    {"India", "New Delhi", 1046, true}
};

private DefaultTableModel tableModel = new DefaultTableModel(rowData, columnNames);

private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(tableModel);

private JButton jbtAddRow = new JButton("Add New Row");
private JButton jbtAddColumn = new JButton("Add New Column");
private JButton jbtDeleteRow = new JButton("Delete Selected Row");
private JButton jbtDeleteColumn = new JButton("Delete Selected Column");
private JButton jbtSave = new JButton("Save");
private JButton jbtClear = new JButton("Clear");
private JButton jbtRestore = new JButton("Restore");

private JComboBox jcboSelectionMode = new JComboBox(new String[] {
    "SINGLE_SELECTION", 
    "SINGLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION", 
    "MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION"});

private JCheckBox jchkRowSelectionAllowed = new JCheckBox("RowSelectionAllowed", true);
private JCheckBox jchkColumnSelectionAllowed = new JCheckBox("ColumnSelectionAllowed", false);

public ModifyTable() {
    JPanel panel1 = new JPanel();
    panel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
    panel1.add(jbtAddRow);
    panel1.add(jbtAddColumn);
    panel1.add(jbtDeleteRow);
    panel1.add(jbtDeleteColumn);
    JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
    panel2.add(jbtSave);
    panel2.add(jbtClear);
    panel2.add(jbtRestore);
    JPanel panel3 = new JPanel();
    panel3.setLayout(new BorderLayout(5, 0));
    panel3.add(new JLabel("Selection Mode"), BorderLayout.WEST);
    panel3.add(jcboSelectionMode, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    JPanel panel4 = new JPanel();
    panel4.setLayout(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT));
    panel4.add(jchkRowSelectionAllowed);
    panel4.add(jchkColumnSelectionAllowed);
JPanel panel5 = new JPanel();
panel5.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 1));
panel5.add(panel3);
panel5.add(panel4);

JPanel panel6 = new JPanel();
panel6.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
panel6.add(panel1, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
panel6.add(panel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(panel5, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(new JScrollPane(jTable1), BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(panel6, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

// Initialize table selection mode
jTable1.setSelectionMode(ListSelectionModel.SINGLE_SELECTION);

jbtAddRow.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        if (jTable1.getSelectedRow() >= 0)
            tableModel.insertRow(jTable1.getSelectedRow(),
                                 new java.util.Vector<String>());
        else
            tableModel.addRow(new java.util.Vector<String>());
    }
});

jbtAddColumn.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        String name = JOptionPane.showInputDialog("New Column Name");
tableModel.addColumn(name, new java.util.Vector());
    }
});

jbtDeleteRow.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        if (jTable1.getSelectedRow() >= 0)
            tableModel.removeRow(jTable1.getSelectedRow());
    }
});

jbtDeleteColumn.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        if (jTable1.getSelectedColumn() >= 0) {
            TableColumnModel columnModel = jTable1.getColumnModel();
            TableColumn tableColumn =
                columnModel.getColumn(jTable1.getSelectedColumn());
            columnModel.removeColumn(tableColumn);
        }
    }
});

jbtSave.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        try {
            ObjectOutputStream out = new ObjectOutputStream(
                new FileOutputStream("tablemodel.dat"));
            out.writeObject(tableModel.getDataVector());
            out.writeObject(getColumnNames());
            out.close();
        }
    }
});
catch (Exception ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
}
A table model is created using `DefaultTableModel` with row data and column names (lines 25-26). This model is used to create a `JTable` (line 29).

The GUI objects (buttons, combo box, check boxes) are created in lines 32-50 and are placed in the UI in lines 53-88.

The table-selection mode is the same as the list-selection mode. By default, the selection mode is `MULTIPLE_INTERVAL_SELECTION`. To match the initial value in the selection combo box (`jcboSelectionMode`), the table's selection mode is set to `SINGLE_SELECTION`.

The `Add New Row` button action is processed in lines 93-102. The `insertRow` method inserts a new row before the selected row (lines 97-98). If no row is currently selected, the `addRow` method appends a new row into the table model (line 100).

The `Add New Column` button action is processed in lines 104-110. The `addColumn` method appends a new column into the table model (line 108).

The `Delete Selected Row` button action is processed in lines 112-118. The `removeRow(rowIndex)` method removes the selected row from the table model (line 116).

The `Delete Selected Column` button action is processed in lines 120-130. To remove a column, you have to use the `removeColumn` method in `TableColumnModel` (line 127).

The `Save` button action is processed in lines 132-146. It writes row data and column names to an output file using object stream (lines 136-140). The column names are obtained using the `getColumnNames()` method (lines 209-216). You may attempt to save `tableModel`, because `tableModel` is an instance of `DefaultTableModel` (lines 25-26) and `DefaultTableModel` is serializable. However, `tableModel` may contain nonserializable listeners for `TableModel` event.

The `Clear` button action is processed in lines 148-153. It clears the table by setting the row count to 0 (line 151).

The `Restore` button action is processed in lines 155-171. It reads row data and column names from the file using object stream (lines 159-165) and sets the new data and column names to the table model (line 164).

### 40.6 Table Renderers and Editors
Table cells are painted by cell renderers. By default, a cell object's string representation (toString()) is displayed and the string can be edited as it was in a text field. JTable maintains a set of predefined renderers and editors, listed in Table 40.1, which can be specified to replace default string renderers and editors.

Table 40.1

Predefined renderers and editors for tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Renderer</th>
<th>Editor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>JLabel</td>
<td>JTextField</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>JLabel (right aligned)</td>
<td>JTextField</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>JLabel (right aligned)</td>
<td>JTextField</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ImageIcon</td>
<td>JLabel (center aligned)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boolean</td>
<td>JCheckBox (center aligned)</td>
<td>JCheckBox (center aligned)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predefined renderers and editors are automatically located and loaded to match the class returned from the getColumnClass() method in the table model. To use a predefined renderer or editor for a class other than String, you need to create your own table model by extending a subclass of TableModel. In your table model class, you need to override the getColumnClass() method to return the class of the column, as follows:

```java
public Class getColumnClass(int column) {
    return getValueAt(0, column).getClass();
}
```

By default, all cells are editable. To prohibit a cell from being edited, override the isCellEditable(int rowIndex, int columnIndex) method in TableModel to return false. By default, this method returns true in AbstractTableModel.

To demonstrate predefined table renderers and editors, let us write a program that displays a table for books. The table consists of three rows with the column names Title, Copies Needed, Publisher, Date Published, In-Stock, and Book Photo, as shown in Figure 40.15. Assume that dates and icons are not editable; prohibit users from editing these two columns.

You need to use a custom table model to enable predefined renderers for Boolean and image cells.
Listing 40.7 gives a custom table model named MyTableModel that overrides the getColumnClass method (lines 15-17) to enable predefined renderers for Boolean and image cells. MyTableModel also overrides the isCellEditable() method (lines 20-24). By default, isCellEditable() returns true. The example does not allow the user to edit image icons and dates, so this method is overridden to return false to disable editing of date and image columns. For a cell to be editable, both isCellEditable() in the table model must be true.

Listing 40.7 MyTableModel.java

Listing 40.7 MyTableModel.java

```
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.util.*;

public class MyTableModel extends DefaultTableModel {

    public MyTableModel() {
    }

    /** Construct a table model with specified data and columnNames */
    public MyTableModel(Object[][] data, Object[] columnNames) {
        super(data, columnNames);
    }

    /** Override this method to return a class for the column */
    public Class getColumnClass(int column) {
        return getValueAt(0, column).getClass();
    }

    /** Override this method to return true if cell is editable */
    public boolean isCellEditable(int row, int column) {
        Class columnClass = getColumnClass(column);
        return columnClass != ImageIcon.class &&
               columnClass != Date.class;
    }
}
```

If you create a JTable using a table model created from MyTableModel, the default renderers and editors for numbers, Boolean values, dates, and icons are used to display and edit these columns. Listing 40.8 gives a test program. The program creates a table model using MyTableModel (line 36). JTable assigns a predefined cell renderer and a predefined editor to the cell, whose class is specified in the getColumnClass() method in MyTableModel.

Listing 40.8 TableCellRendererEditorDemo.java

Listing 40.8 TableCellRendererEditorDemo.java

```
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.util.*;

public class TableCellRendererEditorDemo extends JApplet {

    // Create table column names
    private String[] columnNames = {
        "Title", "Copies Needed", "Publisher", "Date Published",
        "In-stock", "Book Photo"};

    // Create table row data
    private Object[][] data = {
        {null, 10L, "Pearson", 2010, true, null},
        {null, 20L, "Addison-Wesley", 2009, true, null},
        {null, 40L, "O'Reilly", 2012, true, null},
        {null, 50L, "Cisco Press", 2013, true, null}
    };

    public void main(String[] args) {
        JTable table = new JTable(data, columnNames);
        JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(table);
        add(scrollPane);
    }
}
```
// Create image icons
private ImageIcon intro1eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro1e.gif"));
private ImageIcon intro2eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro2e.gif"));
private ImageIcon intro3eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro3e.jpg"));

// Create table data
private Object[][] rowData = {
    {"Introduction to Java Programming", 120,  
     "Que Education & Training",  
     new GregorianCalendar(1998, 1-1, 6).getTime(),  
     false, intro1eImageIcon},
    {"Introduction to Java Programming, 2E", 220,  
     "Que Education & Training",  
     new GregorianCalendar(1999, 1-1, 6).getTime(),  
     false, intro2eImageIcon},
    {"Introduction to Java Programming, 3E", 220,  
     "Prentice Hall",  
     new GregorianCalendar(2000, 12-1, 0).getTime(),  
     true, intro3eImageIcon},
};

// Create a table model
private MyTableModel tableModel = new MyTableModel(rowData, columnNames);

// Create a table
private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(tableModel);

public TableCellRendererEditorDemo()
{
    jTable1.setRowHeight(60);
    add(new JScrollPane(jTable1), BorderLayout.CENTER);
}

The example defines two classes: MyTableModel and TableCellRendererEditorDemo. MyTableModel is an extension of DefaultTableModel. The purpose of MyTableModel is to override the default implementation of the getColumnClass() method to return the class of the column, so that an appropriate predefined JTable can be used for the column. By default, getColumnClass() returns Object.class.

40.7 Custom Table Renderers and Editors

Predefined renderers and editors are convenient and easy to use, but their functions are limited. The predefined image icon renderer displays the image icon in a label. The image icon cannot be scaled. If you want the whole image to fit in a cell, you need to create a custom renderer.

A custom renderer can be created by extending the DefaultTableCellRenderer, which is a default implementation for the TableCellRenderer interface. The custom renderer must override the getTableCellRendererComponent method to return a component for rendering the table cell. The getTableCellRendererComponent method is defined as follows:

```java
public Component getTableCellRendererComponent
    (JTable table, Object value, boolean isSelected,  
     boolean isFocused, int row, int column)
```
This method signature is very similar to the
getListCellRendererComponent() method used to create custom list
cell renderers.

This method is passed with a JTable, the value associated with
the cell, information regarding whether the value is selected and
whether the cell has the focus, and the row and column indices of
the value. The component returned from the method is painted on
the cell in the table. The class in Listing 40.9,
MyImageCellRenderer, defines a renderer for displaying image
icons in a panel.

Listing 40.9 MyImageCellRenderer.java

import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.awt.*;
public class MyImageCellRenderer extends DefaultTableCellRenderer {
    /** Override this method in DefaultTableCellRenderer */
    public Component getTableCellRendererComponent
        (JTable table, Object value, boolean isSelected,
         boolean isFocused, int row, int column) {
        Image image = ((ImageIcon)value).getImage();
        ImageViewer imageViewer = new ImageViewer(image);
        return imageViewer;
    }
}

You can also create a custom editor. JTable provides the
DefaultCellEditor class, which can be used to edit a cell in a
text field, a check box, or a combo box. To use it, simply create
a text field, a check box, or a combo box, and pass it to
DefaultCellEditor's constructor to create an editor.

Using a custom renderer and editor, the preceding example can be
revised to display scaled images and to use a custom combo editor
to edit the cells in the Publisher column, as shown in Figure
40.16. The program is given in Listing 40.10.

Figure 40.16

A custom renderer displays a scaled image, and a custom editor
edits the Publisher column using a combo box.

Listing 40.10 CustomTableCellRendererEditorDemo.java

<margin note line 8: column names>
import java.awt.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.util.*;

public class CustomTableCellRendererEditorDemo extends JApplet {
    // Create table column names
    private String[] columnNames = {
        "Title", "Copies Needed", "Publisher", "Date Published",  
        "In-stock", "Book Photo"};

    // Create image icons
    private ImageIcon intro1eImageIcon =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro1e.gif"));
    private ImageIcon intro2eImageIcon =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro2e.gif"));
    private ImageIcon intro3eImageIcon =
        new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("image/intro3e.jpg"));

    // Create table data
    private Object[][] rowData = {
        {"Introduction to Java Programming", 120,  
        "Que Education & Training",  
        new GregorianCalendar(1998, 1-1, 6).getTime(),  
        false, intro1eImageIcon},
        {"Introduction to Java Programming, 2E", 220,  
        "Que Education & Training",  
        new GregorianCalendar(1999, 1-1, 6).getTime(),  
        false, intro2eImageIcon},
        {"Introduction to Java Programming, 3E", 220,  
        "Prentice Hall",  
        new GregorianCalendar(2000, 12-1, 0).getTime(),  
        true, intro3eImageIcon},
    };

    // Create a table model
    private MyTableModel tableModel = new MyTableModel(rowData, columnNames);

    // Create a table
    JTable jTable1 = new JTable(tableModel);

    public CustomTableCellRendererEditorDemo() {
        // Set custom renderer for displaying images
        TableColumn bookCover = jTable1.getColumn("Book Photo");
        bookCover.setCellRenderer(new MyImageCellRenderer);

        // Create a combo box for publishers
        JComboBox jcboPublishers = new JComboBox();
        jcboPublishers.addItem("Prentice Hall");
        jcboPublishers.addItem("Que Education & Training");
        jcboPublishers.addItem("McGraw-Hill");

        // Set combo box as the editor for the publisher column
        TableColumn publisherColumn = jTable1.getColumn("Publisher");
        publisherColumn.setCellEditor(new DefaultCellEditor(jcboPublishers));

        jTable1.setRowHeight(60);
        JScrollPane scrollPane = new JScrollPane(jTable1);
        add(scrollPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
}
This example uses the same table model (MyTableModel) that was created in the preceding example (lines 37-38). By default, image icons are displayed using the predefined image icon renderer. To use MyImageCellRenderer to display the image, you have to explicitly specify the MyImageCellRenderer renderer for the Book Photo column (line 46). Likewise, you have to explicitly specify the combo box editor for the Publisher column (lines 56-57); otherwise the default editor would be used.

When you edit a cell in the Publisher column, a combo box of three items is displayed. When you select an item from the box, it is displayed in the cell. You did not write the code for handling selections. The selections are handled by the DefaultCellEditor class.

When you resize the Book Photo column, the image is resized to fit into the whole cell. With the predefined image renderer, you can see only part of the image if the cell is smaller than the image.

### 40.8 Table Model Events

JTable does not fire table events. It fires events like MouseEvent, KeyEvent, and ComponentEvent that are inherited from its superclass, JComponent. Table events are fired by table models, table column models, and table-selection models whenever changes are made to these models. Table models fireTableModelEvent when table data are changed. Table column models fire TableColumnModelEvent when columns are added, removed, or moved, or when a column is selected. Table-selection models fire ListSelectionEvent when a selection is made.

To listen for these events, a listener must be registered with an appropriate model and implement the correct listener interface. Listing 40.11 gives an example that demonstrates how to use these events. The program displays messages on a text area when a row or a column is selected, when a cell is edited, or when a column is removed. Figure 40.17 is a sample run of the program.

![Figure 40.17](image)

**Figure 40.17**

Table event handlers display table events on a text area.

Listing 40.11 TableEventsDemo.java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import java.util.*;

public class TableEventsDemo extends JApplet {

    // Create table column names
    private String[] columnNames = {
        "Title", "Copies Needed", "Publisher", "Date Published",
        "In-stock", "Book Photo"};

    // Create image icons
    private ImageIcon intro1eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/intro1e.gif");
    private ImageIcon intro2eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/intro2e.gif");
    private ImageIcon intro3eImageIcon = new ImageIcon(getClass().getResource("/image/intro3e.jpg");

    // Create table data
    private Object[][] rowData = {
        {"Introduction to Java Programming", 120, "Que Education & Training", new GregorianCalendar(1998, 1-1, 6).getTime(), false, intro1eImageIcon},
        {"Introduction to Java Programming, 2E", 220, "Que Education & Training", new GregorianCalendar(1999, 1-1, 6).getTime(), false, intro2eImageIcon},
        {"Introduction to Java Programming, 3E", 220, "Prentice Hall", new GregorianCalendar(2000, 12-1, 0).getTime(), true, intro3eImageIcon},
    };

    // Create a table model
    private MyTableModel tableModel = new MyTableModel(rowData, columnNames);

    // Create a table
    private JTable jTable1 = new JTable(tableModel);

    // Get table column model
    private TableColumnModel tableColumnModel = jTable1.getColumnModel();

    // Get table selection model
    private ListSelectionModel selectionModel = jTable1.getSelectionModel();

    // Create a text area
private JTextArea jtaMessage = new JTextArea();

// Create a button
private JButton jbtDeleteColumn =
    new JButton("Delete Selected Column");

public TableEventsDemo() {
    // Create a custom renderer for displaying images
    TableColumn bookCover = jTable1.getColumn("Book Photo");
    bookCover.setCellRenderer(new MyImageCellRenderer());

    // Create a combo box for publishers
    JComboBox jcboPublishers = new JComboBox();
    jcboPublishers.addItem("Prentice Hall");
    jcboPublishers.addItem("Que Education & Training");
    jcboPublishers.addItem("McGraw-Hill");

    // Set combo box as the editor for the publisher column
    TableColumn publisherColumn = jTable1.getColumn("Publisher");
    publisherColumn.setCellEditor(new DefaultCellEditor(jcboPublishers));

    jTable1.setRowHeight(60);
    jTable1.setColumnNameSelectionAllowed(true);

    JSplitPane jSplitPane1 = new JSplitPane(JSplitPane.VERTICAL_SPLIT);
    jSplitPane1.add(new JScrollPane(jTable1), JSplitPane.LEFT);
    jSplitPane1.add(new JScrollPane(jtaMessage), JSplitPane.RIGHT);
    add(jbtDeleteColumn, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(jSplitPane1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
}

TableModel.addTableModelListener(new TableModelListener() {
    @Override
    public void tableChanged(TableModelEvent e) {
        jtaMessage.append("Table changed at row "+
        e.getFirstRow() + " and column " + e.getColumn() + "\n");
    }
});

 TableColumnModel.addColumnModelListener( new TableColumnModelListener() {
    @Override
    public void columnRemoved(TableColumnModelEvent e) {
        jtaMessage.append("Column indexed at " + e.getFromIndex() + " is deleted \n");
    }
    @Override
    public void columnAdded(TableColumnModelEvent e) {
    }
    @Override
    public void columnMoved(TableColumnModelEvent e) {
    }
    @Override
    public void columnMarginChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
    }
    @Override
    public void columnSelectionChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
    }
});

jbtDeleteColumn.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {...})
```java
@Override
public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
    if (jTable1.getSelectedColumn() >= 0) {
        TableColumnModel columnModel = jTable1.getColumnModel();
        TableColumn tableColumn =
            columnModel.getColumn(jTable1.getSelectedColumn());
        columnModel.removeColumn(tableColumn);
    }
}
```

A table model is created using `MyTableModel` (lines 39-40), which was given in Listing 40.7. When a table is created (line 43), its default column model and selection model are also created. Therefore, you can obtain the table column model and selection model from the table (lines 46-51).

When a row or a column is selected, a `ListSelectionEvent` is fired by `selectionModel`, which invokes the handler to display the selected row and column in the text area (lines 134-138). When the content or structure of the table is changed, a `TableModelEvent` is fired by `tableModel`, which invokes the handler to display the last row and last column of the changed data in the text area (lines 88-91). When a column is deleted by clicking the `Delete Selected Column` button, a `ColumnModelEvent` is fired by `tableColumnModel`, which invokes the handler to display the index of the deleted column (lines 97-100).

### 40.9 JTree

`JTree` is a Swing component that displays data in a treelike hierarchy, as shown in Figure 40.18.
Figure 40.18

**JTree** displays data in a treelike hierarchy.

All the nodes displayed in the tree are in the form of a hierarchical indexed list. The tree can be used to navigate structured data with hierarchical relationships. A node can have child nodes. A node is called a *leaf* if it has no children; a node with no parent is called the *root* of its tree. A tree may consist of many subtrees, each node acting as the root for its own subtree.

A nonleaf node can be expanded or collapsed by double-clicking on the node or on the node's handle in front of the node. The handle usually has a visible sign to indicate whether the node is expanded or collapsed. For example, on Windows, the + symbol indicates that the node can be expanded, and the − symbol, that it can be collapsed.

Like **JTable**, **JTree** is a very complex component with many supporting interfaces and classes. **JTree** is in the `javax.swing` package, but its supporting interfaces and classes are all included in the `javax.swing.tree` package. The supporting interfaces are **TreeModel**, **TreeSelectionModel**, **TreeNode**, and **MutableTreeNode**, and the supporting classes are **DefaultTreeModel**, **DefaultMutableTreeNode**, **DefaultTreeCellEditor**, **DefaultTreeCellRenderer**, and **TreePath**.

While **JTree** displays the tree, the data representation of the tree is handled by **TreeModel**, **TreeNode**, and **TreePath**. **TreeModel** represents the entire tree, **TreeNode** represents a node, and **TreePath** represents a path to a node. Unlike the **ListModel** or **TableModel**, **TreeModel** does not directly store or manage tree data. Tree data are stored and managed in **TreeNode** and **TreePath**. **DefaultTreeModel** is a concrete implementation of **TreeModel**. **MutableTreeNode** is a subinterface of **TreeNode**, which represents a tree node that can be mutated by adding or removing child nodes, or by changing the contents of a user object stored in the node.

The **TreeSelectionModel** interface handles tree node selection. The **DefaultTreeCellRenderer** class provides a default tree node renderer that can display a label and/or an icon in a node. The **DefaultTreeCellEditor** can be used to edit the cells in a text field.

A **TreePath** is an array of **Objects** that are vended from a **TreeModel**. The elements of the array are ordered such that the
root is always the first element (index 0) of the array. Figure 40.19 shows how these interfaces and classes are interrelated.

**Figure 40.19**

*JTree* contains many supporting interfaces and classes.

Figure 40.20 shows the constructors, frequently used properties, and methods of *JTree*. 
The **JTree** class is for creating, customizing, and manipulating trees.

The **JTree** class contains seven constructors for creating trees. You can create a tree using its no-arg constructor, a tree model, a tree node, a Hashtable, an array, or a vector. Using the no-arg constructor, a sample tree is created as shown in Figure 40.18. Using a Hashtable, an array, or a vector, a root is created but not displayed. All the keys in a Hashtable, all the objects in an array, and all the elements in a vector are added into the tree as children of the root. If you wish the root to be displayed, set the **rootVisible** property to true.
All the methods related to path selection are also defined in the TreeSelectionModel interface, which will be covered in §40.12, “TreePath and TreeSelectionModel.”

Listing 40.12 gives an example that creates four trees: a default tree using the no-arg constructor, a tree created from an array of objects, a tree created from a vector, and a tree created from a hash table, as shown in Figure 40.21. Enable the user to dynamically set the properties for rootVisible, rowHeight, and showsRootHandles.

Figure 40.21
You can dynamically set the properties for rootVisible, rowHeight, and showRootHandles in a tree.

Listing 40.12 SimpleTreeDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import java.util.*;

public class SimpleTreeDemo extends JApplet {
    // Create a default tree
    private JTree jTree1 = new JTree();

    // Create a tree with an array of Objects.
    private JTree jTree2 = new JTree(new String[]{
        "dog", "cow", "cat", "pig", "rabbit"});

    // Create a tree with aHashtable
    private Vector<Object> vector = new Vector<Object>(Arrays.asList(
        new Object[] {"red", "green", "black", "white", "purple"}));
    private JTree jTree3 = new JTree(vector);

    // Create a combo box for selecting rootVisible
    private JComboBox jcboRootVisible = new JComboBox(
        new String[]{"false", "true"});

    // Create a combo box for selecting showRootHandles
```
private JComboBox jcboShowsRootHandles = new JComboBox(
    new String[] {"false", "true"});

// Create a spinner for selecting row height
private JSpinner jSpinnerRowHeight = new JSpinner(
    new SpinnerNumberModel(16, 1, 50, 1));

public SimpleTreeDemo() {
    jTree1.setRootVisible("false");
    hashtable.put(1, "red");
    hashtable.put(2, "green");
    hashtable.put(3, "blue");
    hashtable.put(4, "yellow");
    jTree4 = new JTree(hashtable);

    JPanel panel1 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(1, 4));
    panel1.add(new JScrollPane(jTree1));
    panel1.add(new JScrollPane(jTree2));
    panel1.add(new JScrollPane(jTree3));
    panel1.add(new JScrollPane(jTree4));

    JPanel panel2 = new JPanel();
    panel2.add(new JLabel("rootVisible"));
    panel2.add(jcboRootVisible);
    panel2.add(new JLabel("rowHeight"));
    panel2.add(jSpinnerRowHeight);
    panel2.add(new JLabel("showsRootHandles"));
    panel2.add(jcboShowsRootHandles);

    add(panel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(panel2, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

    jcboRootVisible.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            boolean rootVisible =
                jcboRootVisible.getSelectedItem().equals("true");
            jTree1.setRootVisible(rootVisible);
            jTree2.setRootVisible(rootVisible);
            jTree3.setRootVisible(rootVisible);
            jTree4.setRootVisible(rootVisible);
        }
    });

    jcboShowsRootHandles.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            boolean showsRootHandles =
                jcboShowsRootHandles.getSelectedItem().equals("true");
            jTree1.setShowsRootHandles(showsRootHandles);
            jTree2.setShowsRootHandles(showsRootHandles);
            jTree3.setShowsRootHandles(showsRootHandles);
            jTree4.setShowsRootHandles(showsRootHandles);
        }
    });

    jSpinnerRowHeight.addChangeListener(new ChangeListener() {
        public void stateChanged(ChangeEvent e) {
            int height =
                ((Integer)(jSpinnerRowHeight.getValue())).intValue();
            jTree1.setRowHeight(height);
            jTree2.setRowHeight(height);
            jTree3.setRowHeight(height);
            jTree4.setRowHeight(height);
        }
    });
Four trees are created in this example. The first is created using the no-arg constructor (line 9) with a default sample tree. The second is created using an array of objects (lines 12-13). All the objects in the array become the children of the root. The third is created using a vector (lines 16-18). All the elements in the vector become the children of the root. The fourth is created using a hash table (lines 39-43). A Hashtable is like a Map. Hashtable was introduced earlier than Java 2 and has since been replaced by Map. It is used in the Java API (e.g., JTree), which was developed before Java 2. The keys of the hash table become the children of the root.

JTree doesn't directly support scrolling. To create a scrollable tree, create a JScrollPane and add an instance of JTree to the scroll pane (lines 46-49).

The example enables you to specify whether the root is visible and whether the root handles are visible from two combo boxes (lines 63-83). It also lets you specify the row height of the node in a spinner (lines 85-94).

40.10 TreeModel and DefaultTreeModel

The TreeModel interface represents the entire tree. Unlike ListModel or TableModel, TreeModel does not directly store or manage tree data. TreeModel contains the structural information about the tree, and tree data are stored and managed by TreeNode.

DefaultTreeModel is a concrete implementation for TreeModel that uses TreeNode. Figure 40.22 shows TreeModel and DefaultTreeModel.
### javax.swing.tree.TreeModel

- `getChild(parent: Object, index: int): Object` - Returns the child of the parent at the index in the parent's child array.
- `getChildCount(parent: Object): int` - Returns the number of children of the specified parent in the tree model.
- `getIndexOfChild(parent: Object, child: Object): int` - Returns the index of the child in the parent. If the parent or child is null, returns -1.
- `getRoot(): Object` - Returns the root of the tree. Returns null if the tree is empty.
- `isLeaf(node: Object): boolean` - Returns true if the specified node is a leaf.
- `addTreeModelListener(listener: TreeModelListener): void` - Adds a listener for the TreeModelEvent posted after the tree changes.
- `removeTreeModelListener(listener: TreeModelListener): void` - Removes a listener previously added with addTreeModelListener.
- `valueForPathChanged(path: TreePath, newValue: Object): void` - Messaged when the user has altered the value for the item identified by path to newValue.

### javax.swing.tree.DefaultTreeModel

- `#asksAllowsChildren: boolean` - Tells how leaf nodes are determined. True if only nodes that do not allow children are leaf nodes, false if nodes that have no children are leaf nodes.
- `#root: TreeNode` - The root of the tree.
- `DefaultTreeModel(root: TreeNode)` - Creates a DefaultTreeModel with the specified root.
- `DefaultTreeModel(root: TreeNode, asksAllowsChildren: boolean)` - Creates a DefaultTreeModel with the specified root and decides whether a node is a leaf node in the specified manner.
- `asksAllowsChildren(): boolean` - Returns asksAllowsChildren.
- `getPathToRoot(aNode: TreeNode): TreeNode[]` - Returns the nodes in an array from root to the specified node.
- `reload(): void` - Reloads the model (invoke this method if the tree has been modified).
- `removeNodeFromParent(node: MutableTreeNode): void` - Removes the node from its parent.

#### Figure 40.22

TreeModel represents an entire tree and DefaultTreeModel is a concrete implementation of it.

Once a tree is created, you can obtain its tree model using the `getModel` method. Listing 40.13 gives an example that traverses all the nodes in a tree using the tree model. Line 1 creates a tree using JTree's no-arg constructor with the default sample nodes, as shown in Figure 40.18. The tree model for the tree is obtained in line 4. Line 5 invokes the traversal method to traverse the nodes in the tree.

#### Listing 40.13 TestTreeModel.java

```java
public class TestTreeModel {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        javax.swing.JTree jTree1 = new javax.swing.JTree();
```
```java
javax.swing.tree.TreeModel model = jTree1.getModel();
traversal(model, model.getRoot());
```

```java
private static void traversal
    (javax.swing.tree.TreeModel model, Object root) {
    System.out.print(root + " ");
    if (model.isLeaf(root)) return;
    for (int i = 0; i < model.getChildCount(root); i++) {
        traversal(model, model.getChild(root, i));
    }
}
```

The traversal method starts from the root of the tree. The root is obtained by invoking the getRoot method (line 5). If the root is a leaf, the method returns (line 11). Otherwise, it recursively invokes the traversal method to start from the children of the root (line 13).

40.11 TreeNode, MutableTreeNode, and DefaultMutableTreeNode

While TreeModel represents the entire tree, TreeNode stores a single node of the tree. MutableTreeNode defines a subinterface of TreeNode with additional methods for changing the content of the node, for inserting and removing a child node, for setting a new parent, and for removing the node itself.

DefaultMutableTreeNode is a concrete implementation of MutableTreeNode that maintains a list of children in a vector and provides the operations for creating nodes, for examining and modifying a node's parent and children, and also for examining the tree to which the node belongs. Normally, you should use DefaultMutableTreeNode to create a tree node. Figure 40.23 shows TreeNode, MutableTreeNode, and DefaultMutableTreeNode.
TreeNode represents a node.

NOTE
In graph theory, depth-first traversal is defined the same as preorder traversal, but in the depthFirstEnumeration() method in DefaultMutableTreeNode, it is the same as postorder traversal.

NOTE

You can create a JTree from a root using new JTree(TreeNode) or from a model using new JTree(TreeModel). To create a tree model, you first create an instance of TreeNode to represent the root of the tree, and then create an instance of DefaultTreeModel fitted with the root.

Listing 40.14 gives an example that creates two trees to display world, continents, countries, and states. The two trees share the same nodes and thus display identical contents. The program also displays the properties of the tree in a text area, as shown in Figure 40.24.

The two trees have the same data because their roots are the same.

Listing 40.14 TreeNodeDemo.java

```
1 import java.awt.*;
2 import javax.swing.*;
3 import javax.swing.tree.*;
4 import java.util.*;
5
6 public class TreeNodeDemo extends JApplet {
7   public TreeNodeDemo() {
8     // Create the first tree
9     DefaultMutableTreeNode root, europe, northAmerica, us;
10
11     europe = new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Europe");
12     europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("UK"));
13     europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Germany"));
```
You can create a JTree using a TreeNode root (line 33) or a TreeModel (line 34), whichever is convenient. A TreeModel is actually created using a TreeNode root (line 34). The two trees have the same contents because the root is the same. However, it is important to note that the two JTree objects are different, and so are their TreeModel objects, although both trees have the same root.

A tree is created by adding the nodes to the tree (lines 9-29). Each node is created using the DefaultMutableTreeNode class. This class provides many methods to manipulate the tree (e.g., adding a child, removing a child) and obtaining information about the tree (e.g., level, depth, number of children, number of leaves,
traversals). Some examples of using these methods are given in lines 43-60.

As shown in this example, often you don’t have to directly use TreeModel. Using DefaultMutableTreeNode is sufficient, since the tree data are stored in DefaultMutableTreeNode, and DefaultMutableTreeNode contains all the methods for modifying the tree and obtaining tree information.

40.12 TreePath and TreeSelectionModel

The JTree class contains the methods for selecting tree paths. The TreePath class represents a path from an ancestor to a descendant in a tree. Figure 40.25 shows TreePath.

```
javax.swing.tree.TreePath
+TreePath(singlePath: Object)
+TreePath(path: Object[])
+getLastPathComponent(): Object
+getParentPath(): TreePath
+getPath(): Object[]
+getPathComponent(element: int): Object
+getPathCount(): int
+isDescendant(aTreePath: TreePath): boolean
+pathByAddingChild(child: Object): TreePath
```

Figure 40.25

TreePath represents a path from an ancestor to a descendant in a tree.

<margin note: obtain tree paths>

You can construct a TreePath from a single object or an array of objects, but often instances of TreePath are returned from the methods in JTree and TreeSelectionModel. For instance, the getLeadSelectionPath() method in JTree returns the path from the root to the selected node. There are many ways to extract the nodes from a tree path. Often you use the getPathComponent() method to obtain the last node in the path, and then the getParent() method to get all the nodes in the path upward through the link.

The selection of tree nodes is defined in the TreeSelectionModel interface, as shown in Figure 40.26. The DefaultTreeSelectionModel class is a concrete implementation of the TreeSelectionModel that maintains an array of TreePath objects representing the current selection. The last TreePath selected, called the lead path, can be obtained using the getLeadSelectionPath() method. To obtain all the selection paths, use the getSelectionPaths() method, which returns an array of tree paths.
The `TreeSelectionModel` handles selection in a tree and `DefaultTreeSelectionModel` is a concrete implementation of it.

<margin note: tree selection modes>
TreeSelectionModel supports three selection modes: contiguous selection, discontiguous selection, and single selection. Single selection allows only one item to be selected. Contiguous selection allows multiple selections, but the selected items must be contiguous. Discontiguous selection is the most flexible; it allows any item to be selected at a given time. The default tree selection mode is discontiguous. To set a selection mode, use the `setSelectionMode(int mode)` method in `TreeSelectionModel`. The constants for the three modes are:

- CONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION
- DISCONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION
- SINGLE_TREE_SELECTION

NOTE

<margin note: bypass TreeSelectionModel>
When you create a JTree, a DefaultTreeSelectionModel is automatically created, and thus you rarely need to create an instance of TreeSelectionModel explicitly. Since most of the methods in TreeSelectionModel are also in JTree, you can get selection paths and process the selection without directly dealing with TreeSelectionModel.

Listing 40.15 gives an example that displays a selected path or selected paths in tree. The user may select a node or multiple nodes and click the Show Path button to display the properties of the first selected path or the Show Paths button to display all
the selected paths in a text area, as shown in Figure 40.27. The Show Path button displays a path from the last node up to the root.

Figure 40.27
The selected path(s) are processed.

Listing 40.15 TestTreePath.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.tree.*;

public class TestTreePath extends JApplet {

    private JTree jTree = new JTree();
    private JTextArea jtaOutput = new JTextArea();
    private JButton jbtShowPath = new JButton("Show Path");
    private JButton jbtShowPaths = new JButton("Show Paths");

    public TestTreePath() {
        JSplitPane splitPane = new JSplitPane(JSplitPane.HORIZONTAL_SPLIT,
                                             new JScrollPane(jTree), new JScrollPane(jtaOutput));

        JPanel panel = new JPanel();
        panel.add(jbtShowPath);
        panel.add(jbtShowPaths);
        add(splitPane, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(panel, BorderLayout.NORTH);

        jbtShowPath.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            @Override
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
                TreePath path = jTree.getSelectionPath();
            }
        });
    }

    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        TreePath path = jTree.getSelectionPath();
    }
}
```
The `getSelectionPath()` method invoked from a `JTree` returns a `TreePath` in line 25. The first node in the path is always the root of the tree. The `getPathCount()` invoked from a `TreePath` returns the number of the nodes in the path (line 27). The `getLastPathComponent()` invoked from a `TreePath` returns the last node in the path (line 29). The return node type is `Object`. You need to cast it to a `TreeNode` (line 31) in order to invoke the `getParent()` method from a `TreeNode` (line 34).

While the `getSelectionPath()` method (line 25) returns the first selected path, the `getSelectionPaths()` method (line 41) returns all the selected paths in an array of paths.

### 40.13 Case Study: Modifying Trees

Write a program to create two trees that display the same contents: world, continents, countries, and states, as shown in Figure 40.28. For the tree on the left, enable the user to choose a selection mode, specify whether it can be edited, add a new child under the first selected node, and remove all the selected nodes.

![Figure 40.28](image_url)

You can rename a node, add a child, and remove nodes in a tree dynamically.
You can choose a selection mode from the selectionMode combo box. You can specify whether the left tree nodes can be edited from the editable check box.

When you click a button, if no nodes are currently selected in the left tree, a message dialog box is displayed, as shown in Figure 40.29a. When you click the Add a Child for Selected Node button, an input dialog box is displayed to prompt the user to enter a child name for the selected node, as shown in Figure 40.29b. The new node becomes a child of the first selected node. When you click the Remove Selected Nodes button, all the selected nodes in the left tree are removed.

![Figure 40.29](image)

You can add a new node to the tree.

Listing 40.16 gives the program.

Listing 40.16 ModifyTree.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.tree.*;

public class ModifyTree extends JApplet {

// Create a combo box for choosing selection modes
private JComboBox jcboSelectionMode = new JComboBox(new String[]{
  "CONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION", "DISCONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION",
  "SINGLE_TREE_SELECTION"});

// Create a check box for specifying editable
```

45
private JCheckBox jchkEditable = new JCheckBox();

// Create two buttons
private JButton jbtAdd =
    new JButton("Add a Child for Selected Node");
private JButton jbtRemove = new JButton("Remove Selected Nodes");

// Declare two trees
private JTree jTree1, jTree2;

public ModifyTree() {
    // Create the first tree
    DefaultMutableTreeNode root, europe, northAmerica, us;
    europe = new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Europe");
    europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("UK");
    europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Germany");
    europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("France");
    europe.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Norway");
    northAmerica = new DefaultMutableTreeNode("North America");
    us = new DefaultMutableTreeNode("US");
    us.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("California");
    us.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Texas");
    us.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("New York");
    us.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Florida");
    us.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode("Illinois");
    northAmerica.add(us);
    root = new DefaultMutableTreeNode("World");
    root.add(europe);
    root.add(northAmerica);
    jcboSelectionMode.setSelectedIndex(1);
    JPanel p1 = new JPanel();
    p1.add(new JLabel("selectionMode");
    p1.add(jcboSelectionMode);
    p1.add(new JLabel("editable");
    p1.add(jchkEditable);
    JPanel p2 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(1, 2));
    p2.add(new JScrollPane(jTree1 = new JTree(root)));
    p2.add(new JScrollPane(jTree2 =
        new JTree(new DefaultTreeModel(root)))); // Same root as jTree
    JPanel p3 = new JPanel();
    p3.add(jbtAdd);
    p3.add(jbtRemove);
    add(p1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(p2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(p3, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

    // Register listeners
    jcboSelectionMode.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        @Override
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
            if (jcboSelectionMode.getSelectedItem().equals("CONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION"))
                jTree1.getSelectionModel().setSelectionMode(TreeSelectionModel.CONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION);
            else if (jcboSelectionMode.getSelectedItem().equals("DISCONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION"))
                jTree1.getSelectionModel().setSelectionMode(}
TreeSelectionModel.DISCONTIGUOUS_TREE_SELECTION);

    else
        jTree1.getSelectionModel().setSelectionMode(
            TreeSelectionModel.SINGLE_TREE_SELECTION);
    }
});

jchkEditable.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jTree1.setEditable(jchkEditable.isSelected());
    }
});

jbtAdd.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    @Override
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        DefaultMutableTreeNode parent = (DefaultMutableTreeNode) jTree1.getLastSelectedPathComponent();
        if (parent == null) {
            JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "No node in the left tree is selected");
            return;
        }

        // Enter a new node
        String nodeName = JOptionPane.showInputDialog(null, "Enter a child node for "+ parent, "Add a Child",
                                                    JOptionPane.QUESTION_MESSAGE);

        // Insert the new node as a child of treeNode
        parent.add(new DefaultMutableTreeNode(nodeName));

        // Reload the model since a new tree node is added
        ((DefaultTreeModel)(jTree1.getModel())).reload();
        ((DefaultTreeModel)(jTree2.getModel())).reload();
    }
});

jbtRemove.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        // Get all selected paths
        TreePath[] paths = jTree1.getSelectionPaths();
        if (paths == null) {
            JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "No node in the left tree is selected");
            return;
        }

        // Remove all selected nodes
        for (int i = 0; i < paths.length; i++) {
            DefaultMutableTreeNode node = (DefaultMutableTreeNode) paths[i].getLastPathComponent();
            if (node.isRoot()) {
                JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Cannot remove the root");
            } else
                node.removeFromParent();
        }

        // Reload the model since a new tree node is added
        ((DefaultTreeModel)(jTree1.getModel())).reload();
    }
});
Two JTree objects (jTree1 and jTree2) are created with the same root (lines 56-58), but each has its own TreeSelectionModel. When you choose a selection mode in the combo box, the new selection mode is set in jTree1's selection model (line 69-83). The selection mode for jTree2 is not affected.

When the editable check box is checked or unchecked, the editable property in jTree1 is set accordingly. If editable is true, you can edit a node in the left tree.

When you click the Add a Child for Selected Node button, the first selected node is returned as parent (lines 93-94). Suppose you selected Europe, UK, and US in this order; parent is Europe. If parent is null, no node is selected in the left tree (lines 96-100). Otherwise, prompt the user to enter a new node from an input dialog box (lines 103-105) and add this node as a child of parent (line 108). Since the tree has been modified, you need to invoke the reload() method to notify that the models for both trees have been changed (lines 111-112). Otherwise, the new node may not be displayed in jTree1 and jTree2.

When you click the Remove Selected Nodes button, all the tree paths for each selected node are obtained in paths (line 119). Suppose you selected Europe, UK, and US in this order; three tree paths are obtained. Each path starts from the root to a selected node. If no node is selected, paths is null. To delete a selected node is to delete the last node in each selected tree path (128-138). The last node in a path is obtained using getLastPathComponent(). If the node is the root, it cannot be removed (lines 132-135). The removeFromParent() method removes a node (line 137).

### 40.14 Tree Node Rendering and Editing

JTree delegates node rendering to a renderer. All renderers are instances of the TreeCellRenderer interface, which defines a single method, getTreeCellRendererComponent, as follows:

```java
public Component getTreeCellRendererComponent
    (JTree tree, Object value, boolean selected, boolean expanded,
    boolean leaf, int row, boolean hasFocus);
```

You can create a custom tree cell renderer by implementing the TreeCellRenderer interface, or use the DefaultTreeCellRenderer class, which provides a default implementation for TreeCellRenderer. When a new JTree is created, an instance of DefaultTreeCellRenderer is assigned to the tree renderer. The DefaultTreeCellRenderer class maintains three icon properties named leafIcon, openIcon, and closedIcon for leaf nodes, expanded nodes, and collapsed nodes. It also provides colors for text and background. The following code sets new leaf, open and closed icons, and new background selection color in the tree:

```java
DefaultTreeCellRenderer renderer = new DefaultTreeCellRenderer();
renderer.setLeafIcon(leafIcon);
renderer.setOpenIcon(openIcon);
renderer.setClosedIcon(closedIcon);
renderer.setBackground(new Color(backgroundColor));
```
(DefaultTreeCellRenderer) jTrel.getCellRenderer();
renderer.setLeafIcon(yourCustomLeafImageIcon);
renderer setOpenIcon(yourCustomOpenImageIcon);
renderer.setClosedIcon(yourCustomClosedImageIcon);
renderer.setBackgroundSelectionColor(Color.red);

NOTE: The default leaf, open icon, and closed icon are dependent on the look-and-feel. For instance, on Windows look-and-feel, the open icon is - and the closed icon is +.

JTree comes with a default cell editor. If JTree's editable property is true, the default editor activates a text field for editing when the node is clicked three times. By default, this property is set to false. To create a custom editor, you need to extend the DefaultCellEditor class, which is the same class you used in table cell editing. You can use a text field, a check box, or a combo box, and pass it to DefaultCellEditor's constructor to create an editor. The following code uses a combo box for editing colors. The combo box editor is shown in Figure 40.30a.

```
// Customize editor
JComboBox jcboColor = new JComboBox();
jcboColor.addItem("red");
jcboColor.addItem("green");
jcboColor.addItem("blue");
jcboColor.addItem("yellow");
jcboColor.addItem("orange");

jTrel.setCellEditor(new javax.swing.DefaultCellEditor(jcboColor));
jTrel.setEditable(true);
```

![Figure 40.30](a) ![Figure 40.30](b)

You can supply a custom editor for editing tree nodes.

There are two annoying problems with the editor created in the preceding code. First, it is activated with just one mouse click. Second, it overlaps the node's icon, as shown in Figure 40.30a. These two problems can be fixed by using the DefaultTreeCellEditor, as shown in the following code:

```
jTrel.setCellEditor(
    new javax.swing.tree.DefaultTreeCellEditor(jTrel,
    new javax.swing.tree.DefaultTreeCellRenderer(),
    new javax.swing.DefaultCellEditor(jcboColor)));
```

The new editor is shown in Figure 40.30b. Editing using DefaultTreeCellEditor starts on a triple mouse click. The combo box does not overlap the node’s icon.
40.15 Tree Events

JTree can fire TreeSelectionEvent and TreeExpansionEvent, among many other events. Whenever a new node is selected, JTree fires a TreeSelectionEvent. Whenever a node is expanded or collapsed, JTree fires a TreeExpansionEvent. To handle the tree-selection event, a listener must implement the TreeSelectionListener interface, which contains a single handler named valueChanged method. TreeExpansionListener contains two handlers named treeCollapsed and treeExpanded for handling node expansion or node closing.

The following code displays a selected node in a listener class for TreeSelectionEvent:

```java
public void valueChanged(TreeSelectionEvent e) {
    TreePath path = e.getNewLeadSelectionPath();
    TreeNode treeNode = (TreeNode)path.getLastPathComponent();
    System.out.println("The selected node is " + treeNode.toString());
}
```

Chapter Summary

1. JTable has three supporting models: a table model, a column model, and a list-selection model. The table model is for storing and processing data. The column model represents all the columns in the table. The list-selection model is the same as the one used by JList for selecting rows, columns, and cells in a table. JTable also has two useful supporting classes, TableColumn and JTableHeader. TableColumn contains the information on a particular column. JTableHeader can be used to display the header of a JTable. Each column has a default editor and renderer. You can also create a custom editor by implementing the TableCellEditor interface, and you can create a custom renderer by implementing the TableCellRenderer interface.

2. Like JTable, JTree is a very complex component with many supporting interfaces and classes. While JTree displays the tree, the data representation of the tree is handled by TreeModel, TreeNode, and TreePath. TreeModel represents the entire tree, TreeNode represents a node, and TreePath represents a path to a node. Unlike the ListModel or TableModel, the tree model does not directly store or manage tree data. Tree data are stored and managed in TreeNode and TreePath. A TreePath is an array of Objects that are vended from a TreeModel. The elements of the array are ordered such that the root is always the first element (index 0) of the array. The TreeSelectionModel interface handles tree node selection. The DefaultTreeCellRenderer class provides a default tree node renderer that can display a label and/or an icon in a node. The DefaultTreeCellEditor can be used to edit the cells in a text field. The TreePath class is a support class that represents a set of nodes in a path.
3. JTable and JTree are in the javax.swing package, but their supporting interfaces and classes are all included in the javax.swing.table and javax.swing.tree packages, respectively.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 40.2-40.7

40.1 How do you initialize a table? Can you specify the maximum number of visible rows in a table without scrolling? How do you specify the height of a table cell? How do you specify the horizontal margin of table cells?

40.2 How do you modify table contents? How do you add or remove a row? How do you add or remove a column?

40.3 What is autoresizing of a table column? How many types of autoresizing are available?

40.4 What are the properties that show grids, horizontal grids, and vertical grids? What are the properties that specify the table row height, vertical margin, and horizontal margin?

40.5 What are the default table renderers and editors? How do you create a custom table cell renderer and editor?

40.6 What are the default tree renderers and editors? How do you create a custom tree cell renderer and editor?

40.7 How do you disable table cell editing?

Sections 40.8-40.14

40.8 How do you create a tree? How do you specify the row height of a tree node? How do you obtain the default tree model and tree-selection model from an instance of JTree?

40.9 How do you initialize data in a tree using TreeModel? How do you add a child to an instance of DefaultMutableTreeNode?

40.10 How do you enable tree node editing?

40.11 How do you add or remove a node from a tree?

40.12 How do you obtain a selected tree node?

Programming Exercises

Sections 40.2-40.7

40.1* (Create a table for a loan schedule) Exercise 31.5 displays an amortization schedule in a text area. Write a program that
enables the user to enter or choose the loan amount, number of years, and interest rate from spinners and displays the schedule in a table, as shown in Figure 40.31. The step for loan amount is $500, for number of years is 1, and for annual interest rate is 0.125%.

![Figure 40.31](image)

*Figure 40.31*

The table shows the loan schedule.

40.2*

*(Delete rows and columns)* Listing 40.6, ModifyTable.java, allows you to delete only the first selected row or column. Enable the program to delete all the selected rows or columns. Also enable the program to delete a row or a column by pressing the DELETE key.

40.3**

*(Create a student table)* Create a table for student records. Each record consists of name, birthday, class status, in-state, and a photo, as shown in Figure 40.32a. The name is of the String type; birthday is of the Date type; class status is one of the following five values: Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, or Graduate; in-state is a boolean value indicating whether the student is a resident of the state; and photo is an image icon. Use the default editors for name, birthday, and in-state. Supply a combo box as custom editor for class status.

![Figure 40.32](image)

(a) The table displays student records. (b) The data in the file are displayed in a JTable.

40.4*
Exercise 36.4: Table from a Text File

Suppose that a table named Exercise36_4Table.txt is stored in a text file. The first line in the file is the header, and the remaining lines correspond to rows in the table. The elements are separated by commas. Write a program to display the table using the JTable component. For example, the following text file is displayed in a table, as shown in Figure 40.32b.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Democracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Washington DC</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Ottawa</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Oslo</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>New Delhi</td>
<td>1046</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40.5***

Exercise 36.5: Controller Using JTable

In Exercise 35.1, you created a chart model (ChartModel) and two views (PieChart and BarChart). Create a controller that enables the user to modify the data, as shown in Figure 40.33. You will see the changes take effect in the pie-chart view and the bar-chart view. Your exercise consists of the following classes:

- The controller named ChartController. This class uses a table to display data. You can modify the data in the table. Click the Insert button to insert a new row above the selected row in the table, click the Delete button to delete the selected row in the table, and click the Update button to update the changes you made in the table.
- The class MyTableModel. This class extends DefaultTableModel to override the getColumnClass method so that you can use the JTable’s default editor for numerical values. This class is same as in Listing 40.7.
- The classes ChartModel, PieChart, and BarChart from Exercise 35.1.
- The main class Exercise36_5. This class creates a user interface with a controller and two buttons, View Pie Chart and View Bar Chart. Click the View Pie Chart button to pop up a frame to display a pie chart, and click the View Bar Chart button to pop up a frame to display a bar chart.

Figure 40.33

You can modify the data in the controller. The views are synchronized with the controller.
Sections 40.8-40.14

40.6*

(Create a tree for book chapters) Create a tree to display the table of contents for a book. When a node is selected in the tree, display a paragraph to describe the selected node, as shown in Figure 40.34.

Figure 40.34
The content of the node is displayed in a text area when the node is clicked.

40.7*

(Store and restore trees) Modify Listing 40.16, ModifyTree.java, to add two buttons, as shown in Figure 40.35 to store and restore trees. Use the object I/O to store the tree model.

Figure 40.35
You can store tree data to a file and restore them later.

40.8*

(Traverse trees) Create a tree using the default JTree constructor and traverse the nodes in breadth-first, depth-first, preorder, and postorder.

40.9***

(File explorer) Use JTree to develop a file explorer. The program lets the user enter a directory and displays all files under the directory, as shown in Figure 40.36.
Figure 40.36

The file explorer explores the files in a directory.

40.10**

(Add and delete tree nodes using the INSERT and DELETE keys) Modify Listing 40.16, ModifyTree.java, to add a new child node by pressing the INSERT key, and delete a node by pressing the DELETE key.

40.11*

(Find tables and show their contents) Revise Programming Exercise 33.6 to display the table contents in a JTable rather than in a text area.
CHAPTER 41

Advanced Java Database Programming

Objectives

- To create a universal SQL client for accessing local or remote database (§41.2).
- To execute SQL statements in a batch mode (§41.3).
- To process updatable and scrollable result sets (§41.4).
- To simplify Java database programming using RowSet (§41.5).
- To create a custom table model for RowSet (§41.5).
- To store and retrieve images in JDBC (§41.7).
41.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter introduced JDBC’s basic features. This chapter covers its advanced features. You will learn how to develop a universal SQL client for accessing any local or remote relational database, learn how to execute statements in a batch mode to improve performance, learn scrollable result sets and how to update a database through result sets, learn how to use RowSet to simplify database access, and learn how to store and retrieve images.

41.2 A Universal SQL Client

In the preceding chapter, you used various drivers to connect to the database, created statements for executing SQL statements, and processed the results from SQL queries. This section presents a universal SQL client that enables you to connect to any relational database and execute SQL commands interactively, as shown in Figure 41.1. The client can connect to any JDBC data source and can submit SQL SELECT commands and non-SELECT commands for execution. The execution result is displayed for the SELECT queries, and the execution status is displayed for the non-SELECT commands. Listing 41.1 gives the program.

![Figure 41.1](image.png)

You can connect to any JDBC data source and execute SQL commands interactively.

Listing 41.1 SQLClient.java

```java
// connection
// statement
// URLs
// drivers
// create UI
// execute SQL
// connect database
// clear command
// connect to database
// load driver
// connect to database
// process SQL select
```
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.sql.*;
import java.util.*;

public class SQLClient extends JApplet {
    // Connection to the database
    private Connection connection;

    // Statement to execute SQL commands
    private Statement statement;

    // Text area to enter SQL commands
    private JTextArea jtasqlCommand = new JTextArea();

    // Text area to display results from SQL commands
    private JTextArea jtaSQLResult = new JTextArea();

    // JDBC info for a database connection
    JTextField jtfUsername = new JTextField();
    JPasswordField jpfPassword = new JPasswordField();
    JComboBox jcboURL = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook",
        "jdbc:mysql://liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl"},
        "jdbc:odbc:exampleMUDDataSource",
        "jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl"));
    JComboBox jcboDriver = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver"});

    JButton jbtExecuteSQL = new JButton("Execute SQL Command");
    JButton jbtClearSQLCommand = new JButton("Clear");
    JButton jbtConnectDB1 = new JButton("Connect to Database");
    JButton jbtClearSQLResult = new JButton("Clear Result");

    // Create titled borders
    Border titledBorder1 = new TitledBorder("Enter an SQL Command");
    Border titledBorder2 = new TitledBorder("SQL Execution Result");
    Border titledBorder3 = new TitledBorder("Enter Database Information");

    JLabel jlblConnectionStatus = new JLabel("No connection now");

    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        JScrollPane jScrollPane1 = new JScrollPane(jtasqlCommand);
        jScrollPane1.setBorder(titledBorder1);
        JScrollPane jScrollPane2 = new JScrollPane(jtaSQLResult);
        jScrollPane2.setBorder(titledBorder2);
        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.RIGHT));
        jPanel1.add(jbtClearSQLCommand);
        jPanel1.add(jbtExecuteSQL);
        JPanel jPanel2 = new JPanel();
        jPanel1.add(jPanel2);
        jPanel2.add(jbtConnectDB1);
        jPanel2.add(jbtClearSQLResult);
    }
}
jPanel2.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jPanel2.add(jScrollPane1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jPanel2.add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
jPanel2.setPreferredSize(new Dimension(100, 100));

JPanel jPanel3 = new JPanel();
jPanel3.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jPanel3.add(jlblConnectionStatus, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jPanel3.add(jbtConnectDB1, BorderLayout.EAST);

JPanel jPanel4 = new JPanel();
jPanel4.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 1, 10, 5));
jPanel4.add(jcboDriver);
jPanel4.add(jcboURL);
jPanel4.add(jtfUsername);
jPanel4.add(jpfPassword);

JPanel jPanel5 = new JPanel();
jPanel5.setLayout(new GridLayout(4, 1));
jPanel5.add(new JLabel("JDBC Driver"));
jPanel5.add(new JLabel("Database URL"));
jPanel5.add(new JLabel("Username"));
jPanel5.add(new JLabel("Password"));

JPanel jPanel6 = new JPanel();
jPanel6.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jPanel6.add(jPanel4, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jPanel6.add(jPanel5, BorderLayout.WEST);

JPanel jPanel7 = new JPanel();
jPanel7.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jPanel7.add(jPanel3, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
jPanel7.add(jPanel6, BorderLayout.CENTER);

JPanel jPanel8 = new JPanel();
jPanel8.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
jPanel8.add(jPanel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
jPanel8.add(jPanel7, BorderLayout.WEST);

JPanel jPanel9 = new JPanel(new FlowLayout(FlowLayout.LEFT));
jPanel9.add(jbtClearSQLResult);

jcboURL.setEditable(true);
jcboDriver.setEditable(true);

add(jPanel8, BorderLayout.NORTH);
add(jScrollPane2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
add(jPanel9, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

jbtExecuteSQL.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        executeSQL();
    }
});

jbtConnectDB1.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        connectToDB();
    }
});
jbtClearSQLCommand.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jtasqlCommand.setText(null);
    }
});

jbtClearSQLResult.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent e) {
        jtaSQLResult.setText(null);
    }
});

/** Connect to DB */
private void connectToDB() {
    // Get database information from the user input
    String driver = (String)jcboDriver.getSelectedItem();
    String url = (String)jcboURL.getSelectedItem();
    String username = jtfUsername.getText().trim();
    String password = new String(jpfPassword.getPassword());

    // Connection to the database
    try {
        connection = DriverManager.getConnection(url, username, password);
        jlblConnectionStatus.setText("Connected to " + url);
    }
    catch (java.lang.Exception ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}

/** Execute SQL commands */
private void executeSQL() {
    if (connection == null) {
        jtaSQLResult.setText("Please connect to a database first");
        return;
    }
    else {
        String sqlCommands = jtasqlCommand.getText().trim();
        String[] commands = sqlCommands.replace("\n", " ").split(";");
        for (String aCommand: commands) {
            if (aCommand.trim().toUpperCase().startsWith("SELECT")) {
                processSQLSelect(aCommand);
            } else {
                processSQLNonSelect(aCommand);
            }
        }
    }
}

/** Execute SQL SELECT commands */
private void processSQLSelect(String sqlCommand) {
    try {
        // Get a new statement for the current connection
        statement = connection.createStatement();

        // Execute a SELECT SQL command
        ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery(sqlCommand);
    } catch (SQLException e) {
        e.printStackTrace();
    }
}
// Find the number of columns in the result set
int columnCount = resultSet.getMetaData().getColumnCount();
String row = "";

// Display column names
for (int i = 1; i <= columnCount; i++) {
    row += resultSet.getMetaData().getColumnName(i) + "\t";
}
jtaSQLResult.append(row + '\n');

while (resultSet.next()) {
    // Reset row to empty
    row = "";
    for (int i = 1; i <= columnCount; i++) {
        // A non-String column is converted to a string
        row += resultSet.getString(i) + "\t";
    }
jtaSQLResult.append(row + '\n');
}
}
catch (SQLException ex) {
    jtaSQLResult.setText(ex.toString());
}

/** Execute SQL DDL, and modification commands */
private void processSQLNonSelect(String sqlCommand) {
    try {
        // Get a new statement for the current connection
        statement = connection.createStatement();

        // Execute a non-SELECT SQL command
        statement.executeUpdate(sqlCommand);

        jtaSQLResult.setText("SQL command executed");
    } catch (SQLException ex) {
        jtaSQLResult.setText(ex.toString());
    }
}

The user selects or enters the JDBC driver, database URL, username, and password, and clicks the Connect to Database button to connect to the specified database using the connectToDB() method (lines 130-147).

When the user clicks the Execute SQL Command button, the executeSQL() method is invoked (lines 150-168) to get the SQL commands from the text area (jtaSQLCommand) and extract each command separated by a semicolon (;). It then determines whether the command is a SELECT query or a DDL or data modification statement (lines 160-165). If the command is a SELECT query, the processSQLSelect method is invoked (lines 171-205). This method uses the executeQuery method (line 177) to obtain the query result. The result is displayed in the text area jtaSQLResult (line 188). If the command is a non-SELECT query, the processSQLNonSelect()
method is invoked (lines 208-221). This method uses the `executeUpdate` method (line 214) to execute the SQL command.

The `getMetaData` method (lines 180, 185) in the `ResultSet` interface is used to obtain an instance of `ResultSetMetaData`. The `getColumnCount` method (line 180) returns the number of columns in the result set, and the `getColumnName(i)` method (line 185) returns the column name for the ith column.

### 41.3 Batch Processing

In all the preceding examples, SQL commands are submitted to the database for execution one at a time. This is inefficient for processing a large number of updates. For example, suppose you wanted to insert a thousand rows into a table. Submitting one `INSERT` command at a time would take nearly a thousand times longer than submitting all the `INSERT` commands in a batch at once. To improve performance, JDBC introduced the batch update for processing nonselect SQL commands. A batch update consists of a sequence of nonselect SQL commands. These commands are collected in a batch and submitted to the database all together.

To use the batch update, you add nonselect commands to a batch using the `addBatch` method in the `Statement` interface. After all the SQL commands are added to the batch, use the `executeBatch` method to submit the batch to the database for execution.

For example, the following code adds a create table command, adds two insert statements in a batch, and executes the batch.

```java
Statement statement = connection.createStatement();
// Add SQL commands to the batch
statement.addBatch("create table T (C1 integer, C2 varchar(15))");
statement.addBatch("insert into T values (100, 'Smith')");
statement.addBatch("insert into T values (200, 'Jones')");

// Execute the batch
int count[] = statement.executeBatch();
```

The `executeBatch()` method returns an array of counts, each of which counts the number of rows affected by the SQL command. The first count returns 0 because it is a DDL command. The other counts return 1 because only one row is affected.

Note: To find out whether a driver supports batch updates, invoke `supportsBatchUpdates()` on a `DatabaseMetaData` instance. If the driver supports batch updates, it will return `true`. The JDBC drivers for MySQL, Access, and Oracle all support batch updates.

To demonstrate batch processing, consider writing a program that gets data from a text file and copies the data from the text file to a table, as shown in Figure 41.2. The text file consists of lines that correspond to a row in the table. The fields in a row are separated by commas. The string values in a row are enclosed in single quotes. You can view the text file by clicking the View File button and copy the text to the table by clicking the Copy button. The table must already be defined in the database. Figure 41.2 shows the text file table.txt copied to table Person. Person is created using the following statement:
create table Person (  
    firstName varchar(20),  
    mi char(1),  
    lastName varchar(20)  
)

Figure 41.2

The CopyFileToTable utility copies text files to database tables.

Listing 41.2 gives the solution to the problem.

Listing 41.2 CopyFileToTable.java

```
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.sql.*;
import java.util.*;

public class CopyFileToTable extends JFrame {
    // Text file info
    private JTextField jtfFilename = new JTextField();
    private JTextArea jtaFile = new JTextArea();
    
    // JDBC and table info
    private JComboBox jcboDriver = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver"});
    private JComboBox jcboURL = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook",
        "jdbc:odbc:exampleMDBDataSource",
    
```
public CopyFileToTable() {
    JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
    jPanel1.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Filename"), BorderLayout.WEST);
    jPanel1.add(jbtViewFile, BorderLayout.EAST);
    jPanel1.add(jtfFilename, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    JPanel jPanel2 = new JPanel();
    jPanel2.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    jPanel2.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Source Text File"));
    jPanel2.add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    jPanel2.add(new JScrollPane(jtaFile), BorderLayout.CENTER);
    JPanel jPanel3 = new JPanel();
    jPanel3.setLayout(new GridLayout(5, 0));
    jPanel3.add(new JLabel("JDBC Driver"));
    jPanel3.add(new JLabel("Database URL"));
    jPanel3.add(new JLabel("Username"));
    jPanel3.add(new JLabel("Password"));
    jPanel3.add(new JLabel("Table Name"));
    JPanel jPanel4 = new JPanel();
    jPanel4.setLayout(new GridLayout(5, 0));
    jcbDriver.setEditable(true);
    jPanel4.add(jcbDriver);
    jcbURL.setEditable(true);
    jPanel4.add(jcbURL);
    jPanel4.add(jtfUsername);
    jPanel4.add(jtfPassword);
    jPanel4.add(jtfTableName);
    JPanel jPanel5 = new JPanel();
    jPanel5.setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    jPanel5.setBorder(new TitledBorder("Target Database Table"));
    jPanel5.add(jbtCopy, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
    jPanel5.add(jPanel3, BorderLayout.WEST);
    jPanel5.add(jPanel4, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
    add(new JScrollPane(jSplitPane), BorderLayout.CENTER);
    jbtViewFile.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            showFile();
        }
    });
    jbtCopy.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            try {

// Display the file in the text area
private void showFile() {
  Scanner input = null;
  try {
    // Use a Scanner to read text from the file
    input = new Scanner(new File(jtfFilename.getText().trim()));
    // Read a line and append the line to the text area
    while (input.hasNext())
      jtaFile.append(input.nextLine() + '\n');
  }
  catch (FileNotFoundException ex) {
    System.out.println("File not found: " + jtfFilename.getText());
  }
  catch (IOException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
  }
  finally {
    if (input != null) input.close();
  }
}

private void copyFile() throws Exception {
  // Load the JDBC driver
  Class.forName(((String)jcboDriver.getSelectedItem()).trim());
  System.out.println("Driver loaded");
  // Establish a connection
  Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
    (((String)jcboURL.getSelectedItem()).trim(),
     jtfUsername.getText().trim(),
     String.valueOf(jtfPassword.getPassword()).trim());
  System.out.println("Database connected");
  // Read each line from the text file and insert it to the table
  insertRows(conn);
}

private void insertRows(Connection connection) {
  // Build the SQL INSERT statement
  String sqlInsert = "insert into " + jtfTableName.getText()
     + " values (";
  // Use a Scanner to read text from the file
  Scanner input = null;
  // Get file name from the text field
  String filename = jtfFilename.getText().trim();
  try {
    // Create a scanner

The `insertRows` method (lines 128-195) uses the batch updates to submit SQL INSERT commands to the database for execution, if the driver supports batch updates. Lines 152-164 check whether the driver supports batch updates.
batch updates. If the driver does not support the operation, an
UnsupportedOperationException exception will be thrown (line 162) when
the supportsBatchUpdates() method is invoked.

The tables must already be created in the database. The file format and
contents must match the database table specification. Otherwise, the SQL
INSERT command will fail.

In Exercise 41.1, you will write a program to insert a thousand records
to a database and compare the performance with and without batch
updates.

41.4 Scrollable and Updatable Result Set

The result sets used in the preceding examples are read sequentially. A
result set maintains a cursor pointing to its current row of data.
Initially the cursor is positioned before the first row. The next() method moves the cursor forward to the next row. This is known as
sequential forward reading. It is the only way of processing the rows in
a result set that is supported by JDBC 1.

With the new versions of JDBC, you can scroll the rows both forward and
backward and move the cursor to a desired location using the first,
last, next, previous, absolute, or relative method. Additionally, you
can insert, delete, or update a row in the result set and have the
changes automatically reflected in the database.

To obtain a scrollable or updatable result set, you must first create a
statement with an appropriate type and concurrency mode. For a static
statement, use

```java
Statement statement = connection.createStatement
                           (int resultSetType, int resultSetConcurrency);
```

For a prepared statement, use

```java
PreparedStatement statement = connection.prepareStatement
                           (String sql, int resultSetType, int resultSetConcurrency);
```

The possible values of resultSetType are the constants defined in the
ResultSet:

- **TYPE FORWARD ONLY**: The result set is accessed forward
  sequentially.

- **TYPE SCROLL INSENSITIVE**: The result set is scrollable, but not
  sensitive to changes in the database.

- **TYPE SCROLL SENSITIVE**: The result set is scrollable and
  sensitive to changes made by others. Use this type if you want
  the result set to be scrollable and updatable.

The possible values of resultSetConcurrency are the constants defined in
the ResultSet:

- **CONCUR READ ONLY**: The result set cannot be used to update the
database.
• CONCUR UPDATABLE: The result set can be used to update the database.

For example, if you want the result set to be scrollable and updatable, you can create a statement, as follows:

```java
Statement statement = connection.createStatement
    (ResultSet.TYPE_SCROLL_SENSITIVE, ResultSet.CONCUR_UPDATABLE);
```

You use the `executeQuery` method in a `Statement` object to execute an SQL query that returns a result set as follows:

```java
ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery(query);
```

You can now use the methods `first()`, `next()`, `previous()`, and `last()` to move the cursor to the first row, next row, previous row, and last row. The `absolute(int row)` method moves the cursor to the specified row; and the `getXxx(int columnIndex)` or `getXxx(String columnName)` method is used to retrieve the value of a specified field at the current row. The methods `insertRow()`, `deleteRow()`, and `updateRow()` can also be used to insert, delete, and update the current row. Before applying `insertRow` or `updateRow`, you need to use the method `updateXxx(int columnIndex, Xxx value)` or `update(String columnName, Xxx value)` to write a new value to the field at the current row. The `cancelRowUpdates()` method cancels the updates made to a row. The `close()` method closes the result set and releases its resource. The `wasNull()` method returns true if the last column read had a value of SQL NULL.

Listing 41.3 gives an example that demonstrates how to create a scrollable and updatable result set. The program creates a result set for the `StateCapital` table. The `StateCapital` table is defined as follows:

```sql
create table StateCapital {
    state varchar(40),
    capital varchar(40)
}
```

Listing 41.3 ScrollUpdateResultSet.java

```java
import java.sql.*;
```
public class ScrollUpdateResultSet {
    public static void main(String[] args)
        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
    // Load the JDBC driver
    Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver");
    System.out.println("Driver loaded");
    
    // Connect to a database
    Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection
        ("jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl",
         "scott", "tiger");
    connection.setAutoCommit(true);
    System.out.println("Database connected");
    
    // Get a new statement for the current connection
    Statement statement = connection.createStatement(
        ResultSet.TYPE_SCROLL_SENSITIVE, ResultSet.CONCUR_UPDATABLE);
    
    // Get ResultSet
    ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery
        ("select state, capital from StateCapital");
    System.out.println("Before update ");
    displayResultSet(resultSet);
    
    // Update the second row
    resultSet.absolute(2); // Move cursor to the second row
    resultSet.updateString("state", "New S"); // Update the column
    resultSet.updateString("capital", "New C"); // Update the column
    resultSet.updateRow(); // Update the row in the data source
    
    // Insert after the last row
    resultSet.last();
    resultSet.moveToInsertRow(); // Move cursor to the insert row
    resultSet.updateString("state", "Florida");
    resultSet.updateString("capital", "Tallahassee");
    resultSet.insertRow(); // Insert the row
    resultSet.moveToCurrentRow(); // Move the cursor to the current row
    
    // Delete fourth row
    resultSet.absolute(4); // Move cursor to the 5th row
    resultSet.deleteRow(); // Delete the second row
    
    System.out.println("After update ");
    resultSet = statement.executeQuery
        ("select state, capital from StateCapital");
    displayResultSet(resultSet);
    
    // Close the connection
    resultSet.close();
    }
}

private static void displayResultSet(ResultSet resultSet)
    throws SQLException {
    ResultSetMetaData rsMetaData = resultSet.getMetaData();
    resultSet.beforeFirst();
    while (resultSet.next()) {
        for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
            System.out.printf("%-12s	", resultSet.getObject(i));
        System.out.println();
    }
}
Driver loaded
Database connected

Before update
Indiana     Indianapolis
Illinois    Springfield
California  Sacramento
Georgia     Atlanta
Texas       Austin

After update
Indiana     Indianapolis
New S       New C
California  Sacramento
Texas       Austin
Florida     Tallahassee

The code in lines 18–19 creates a Statement for producing scrollable and updatable result sets.

The program moves the cursor to the second row in the result set (line 29), updates two columns in this row (lines 30–31), and invokes the updateRow() method to update the row in the underlying database (line 32).

An updatable ResultSet object has a special row associated with it that serves as a staging area for building a row to be inserted. This special row is called the insert row. To insert a row, first invoke the moveToInsertRow() method to move the cursor to the insert row (line 36), then update the columns using the updateXxx method (lines 37–38), and finally insert the row using the insertRow() method (line 39). Invoking moveToCurrentRow() moves the cursor to the current inserted row (lines 40).

The program moves to the fourth row and invokes the deleteRow() method to delete the row from the database (lines 43–44).

NOTE: Not all current drivers support scrollable and updatable result sets. The example is tested using Oracle ojdbc6 driver. You can use supportsResultSetType(int type) and supportsResultSetConcurrency(int type, int concurrency) in the DatabaseMetaData interface to find out which result type and currency modes are supported by the JDBC driver. But even if a driver supports the scrollable and updatable result set, a result set for a
complex query might not be able to perform an update. For example, the result set for a query that involves several tables is likely not to support update operations.

NOTE: The program may not work, if lines 22–23 are replaced by

```java
ResultSet resultSet = statement.executeQuery("select * from StateCapital");
```

### 41.5 RowSet, JdbcRowSet, and CachedRowSet

<margin note: extends ResultSet>

JDBC introduced a new RowSet interface that can be used to simplify database programming. The RowSet interface extends java.sql.ResultSet with additional capabilities that allow a RowSet instance to be configured to connect to a JDBC url, username, and password, set an SQL command, execute the command, and retrieve the execution result. In essence, it combines Connection, Statement, and ResultSet into one interface.

NOTE: <margin note: supported?>

Not all JDBC drivers support RowSet. Currently, the JDBC-ODBC driver does not support all features of RowSet.

#### 41.5.1 RowSet Basics

<margin note: connected vs. disconnected>

There are two types of RowSet objects: connected and disconnected. A connected RowSet object makes a connection with a data source and maintains that connection throughout its life cycle. A disconnected RowSet object makes a connection with a data source, executes a query to get data from the data source, and then closes the connection. A disconnected rowset may make changes to its data while it is disconnected and then send the changes back to the original source of the data, but it must reestablish a connection to do so.

There are several versions of RowSet. Two frequently used are JdbcRowSet and CachedRowSet. Both are subinterfaces of RowSet. JdbcRowSet is connected, while CachedRowSet is disconnected. Also, JdbcRowSet is neither serializable nor cloneable, while CachedRowSet is both. The database vendors are free to provide concrete implementations for these interfaces. Sun has provided the reference implementation JdbcRowSetImpl for JdbcRowSet and CachedRowSetImpl for CachedRowSet. Figure 41.3 shows the relationship of these components.
The `JdbcRowSetImpl` and `CachedRowSetImpl` are concrete implementations of `RowSet`.

The `RowSet` interface contains the JavaBeans properties with get and set methods. You can use the set methods to set a new url, username, password, and command for an SQL statement. Using a `RowSet`, Listing 37.1 can be simplified, as shown in Listing 41.4.

**Listing 41.4 SimpleRowSet.java**

```java
import java.sql.SQLException;
import javax.sql.RowSet;
import com.sun.rowset.*;

public class SimpleRowSet {
    public static void main(String[] args)
        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Create a row set
        RowSet rowSet = new JdbcRowSetImpl();

        // Set RowSet properties
        rowSet.setUrl("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook");
        rowSet.setUsername("scott");
        rowSet.setPassword("tiger");
```
rowSet.setCommand("select firstName, mi, lastName " +
"from Student where lastName = 'Smith'");
rowSet.execute();

// Iterate through the result and print the student names
while (rowSet.next())
    System.out.println(rowSet.getString(1) + "\t" +
                      rowSet.getString(2) + "\t" + rowSet.getString(3));

// Close the connection
rowSet.close();

Line 13 creates a RowSet object using JdbcRowSetImpl. The program uses the RowSet’s set method to set a URL, username, and password (lines 16-18) and a command for a query statement (line 19). Line 24 executes the command in the RowSet. The methods next() and getString(int) for processing the query result (lines 25-26) are inherited from ResultSet.

<margin note: using CachedRowSet>
If you replace JdbcRowSet with CachedRowSet in line 13, the program will work just fine. Note that the JDBC-ODBC driver supports JdbcRowSetImpl, but not CachedRowSetImpl.

TIP
<margin note: obtain metadata>
Since RowSet is a subinterface of ResultSet, all the methods in ResultSet can be used in RowSet. For example, you can obtain ResultSetMetaData from a RowSet using the getMetaData() method.

41.5.2 RowSet for PreparedStatement
The discussion in §37.5, “PreparedStatement,” introduced processing parameterized SQL statements using the PreparedStatement interface. RowSet has the capability to support parameterized SQL statements. The set methods for setting parameter values in PreparedStatement are implemented in RowSet. You can use these methods to set parameter values for a parameterized SQL command. Listing 41.5 demonstrates how to use a parameterized statement in RowSet. Line 19 sets an SQL query statement with two parameters for lastName and mi in a RowSet. Since these two parameters are strings, the setString method is used to set actual values in lines 21-22.

Listing 41.5 RowSetPreparedStatement.java

<margin note line 9: load driver>
<margin note line 13: create RowSet>
<margin note line 16: set url>
<margin note line 19: SQL with parameters>
<margin note line 21: set parameter>
<margin note line 22: set parameter>
<margin note line 23: execute>
<margin note line 25: metadata>
<margin note line 38: close connection>
import java.sql.*;
import javax.sql.RowSet;
import com.sun.rowset.*;

public class RowSetPreparedStatement {
    public static void main(String[] args)
            throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Create a row set
        RowSet rowSet = new JdbcRowSetImpl();

        // Set RowSet properties
        rowSet.setUrl("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook");
        rowSet.setUsername("scott");
        rowSet.setPassword("tiger");
        rowSet.setCommand("select * from Student where lastName = ? " +
                                "and mi = ?");
        rowSet.setString(1, "Smith");
        rowSet.setString(2, "R");
        rowSet.execute();

        ResultSetMetaData rsMetaData = rowSet.getMetaData();
        for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
            System.out.printf("%-12s\t", rsMetaData.getColumnName(i));
        System.out.println();

        // Iterate through the result and print the student names
        while (rowSet.next()) {
            for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
                System.out.printf("%-12s\t", rowSet.getObject(i));
            System.out.println();
        }

        // Close the connection
        rowSet.close();
    }
}

41.5.3 Scrolling and Updating RowSet

By default, a ResultSet object is neither scrollable nor updatable.
However, a RowSet object is both. It is easier to scroll and update a
database through a RowSet than through a ResultSet. Listing 41.6
rewrites Listing 41.3 using a RowSet. You can use methods such as
absolute(int) to move the cursor and methods such as delete(),
updateRow(), and insertRow() to update the database.

Listing 41.6 ScrollUpdateRowSet.java

<margin note line 9: load driver>
<margin note line 13: create a RowSet>
import java.sql.*;
import javax.sql.RowSet;
import com.sun.rowset.JdbcRowSetImpl;

public class ScrollUpdateRowSet {
    public static void main(String[] args)
        throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Create a row set
        RowSet rowSet = new JdbcRowSetImpl();

        // Set RowSet properties
        rowSet.setUrl("jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl");
        rowSet.setUsername("scott");
        rowSet.setPassword("tiger");
        rowSet.setCommand("select state, capital from StateCapital");
        rowSet.execute();

        System.out.println("Before update ");
        displayRowSet(rowSet);

        // Update the second row
        rowSet.absolute(2); // Move cursor to the 2nd row
        rowSet.updateString("state", "New S"); // Update the column
        rowSet.updateString("capital", "New C"); // Update the column
        rowSet.updateRow(); // Update the row in the data source

        // Insert after the second row
        rowSet.last();
        rowSet.moveToInsertRow(); // Move cursor to the insert row
        rowSet.updateString("state", "Florida");
        rowSet.updateString("capital", "Tallahassee");
        rowSet.insertRow(); // Insert the row
        rowSet.moveToCurrentRow(); // Move the cursor to the current row

        // Delete fourth row
        rowSet.absolute(4); // Move cursor to the fifth row
        rowSet.deleteRow(); // Delete the second row
System.out.println("After update ");
displayRowSet(rowSet);

// Close the connection
rowSet.close();

private static void displayRowSet(RowSet rowSet)
throws SQLException {
ResultSetMetaData rsMetaData = rowSet.getMetaData();
rowSet.beforeFirst();
while (rowSet.next()) {
    for (int i = 1; i <= rsMetaData.getColumnCount(); i++)
        System.out.printf("%-12s\t", rowSet.getObject(i));
    System.out.println();
}
}

If you replace JdbcRowSet with CachedRowSet in line 13, the database is not changed. To make the changes on the CachedRowSet effective in the database, you must invoke the acceptChanges() method after you make all the changes, as follows:

// Write changes back to the database
((com.sun.rowset.CachedRowSetImpl)rowSet).acceptChanges();

This method automatically reconnects to the database and writes all the changes back to the database.

41.5.4 RowSetEvent
A RowSet object fires a RowSetEvent whenever the object’s cursor has moved, a row has changed, or the entire row set has changed. This event can be used to synchronize a RowSet with the components that rely on the RowSet. For example, a visual component that displays the contents of a RowSet should be synchronized with the RowSet. The RowSetEvent can be used to achieve synchronization. The handlers in RowSetListener are cursorMoved(RowSetEvent), rowChanged(RowSetEvent), and cursorSetChanged(RowSetEvent).

Listing 41.7 gives an example that demonstrates RowSetEvent. A listener for RowSetEvent is registered in lines 14-26. When rowSet.execute() (line 33) is executed, the entire row set is changed, so the listener’s rowSetChanged handler is invoked. When rowSet.last() (line 35) is executed, the cursor is moved, so the listener’s cursorMoved handler is invoked. When rowSet.updateRow() (line 37) is executed, the row is updated, so the listener’s rowChanged handler is invoked.

Listing 41.7 TestRowSetEvent.java

<margin note line 9: load driver>
<margin note line 13: create RowSet>
<margin note line 14: register listener>
```java
import java.sql.*;
import javax.sql.*;
import com.sun.rowset.*;

public class TestRowSetEvent {
    public static void main(String[] args)
            throws SQLException, ClassNotFoundException {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Create a row set
        RowSet rowSet = new JdbcRowSetImpl();
        rowSet.addRowSetListener(new RowSetListener() {
            public void cursorMoved(RowSetEvent e) {
                System.out.println("Cursor moved");
            }

            public void rowChanged(RowSetEvent e) {
                System.out.println("Row changed");
            }

            public void rowSetChanged(RowSetEvent e) {
                System.out.println("row set changed");
            }
        });

        // Set RowSet properties
        rowSet.setUrl("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook");
        rowSet.setUsername("scott");
        rowSet.setPassword("tiger");
        rowSet.setCommand("select * from Student");
        rowSet.execute();

        rowSet.last(); // Cursor moved
        rowSet.updateString("lastName", "Yao"); // Update column
        rowSet.updateRow(); // Row updated

        // Close the connection
        rowSet.close();
    }
}

41.6 Custom RowSetTableModel

Often you need to display a query result set in a JTable. You may define a table model for a row set and plug this model to a JTable. To define a table model, extend the AbstractTableModel class and implement at least three methods: getRowCount(), getColumnCount(), and getValueAt(int row,
int column). The AbstractTableModel class was introduced in §40.3, “Table Models and Table Column Models.”

Listing 41.8 shows the RowSetTableModel class.

Listing 41.8 RowSetTableModel.java

```java
import java.sql.*;
import javax.sql.*;
import javax.swing.table.AbstractTableModel;

public class RowSetTableModel extends AbstractTableModel
    implements RowSetListener {
    // RowSet for the result set
    private RowSet rowSet;

    /** Return the rowset */
    public RowSet getRowSet() {
        return rowSet;
    }

    /** Set a new rowset */
    public void setRowSet(RowSet rowSet) {
        if (rowSet != null) {
            this.rowSet = rowSet;
            rowSet.addRowSetListener(this);
            fireTableStructureChanged();
        }
    }

    /** Return the number of rows in the row set */
    public int getRowCount() {
        try {
            rowSet.last();
            return rowSet.getRow(); // Get the current row number
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
        return 0;
    }
}
```
/** Return the number of columns in the row set */
public int getColumnCount() {
  try {
    if (rowSet != null) {
      return rowSet.getMetaData().getColumnCount();
    }
  }
  catch (SQLException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
  }
  return 0;
}

/** Return value at the specified row and column */
public Object getValueAt(int row, int column) {
  try {
    rowSet.absolute(row + 1);
    return rowSet.getObject(column + 1);
  }
  catch (SQLException sqlex) {
    sqlex.printStackTrace();
  }
  return null;
}

/** Return the column name at a specified column */
public String getColumnName(int column) {
  try {
    return rowSet.getMetaData().getColumnLabel(column + 1);
  }
  catch (SQLException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
  }
  return "";
}

/** Implement rowSetChanged */
public void rowSetChanged(RowSetEvent e) {
  System.out.println("RowSet changed");
  fireTableStructureChanged();
}

/** Implement rowChanged */
public void rowChanged(RowSetEvent e) {
  System.out.println("Row changed");
  fireTableDataChanged();
}

/** Implement cursorMoved */
public void cursorMoved(RowSetEvent e) {
The RowSetTableModel class defines the rowSet property with get and set methods (lines 11-22). The setRowSet method sets a new rowSet in the model. The model becomes a listener for the rowSet (line 19) in response to the changes in the rowSet. The fireTableStructureChanged() method defined in AbstractTableModel is invoked to refill the model with the data in rowSet (line 20).

The getRowCount() method returns the number of rows in the rowSet. Invoking rowSet.last() moves the cursor to the last row (line 27), and rowSet.getRow() returns the row number (line 28).

The getColumnCount() method returns the number of columns in the rowSet. The number of the columns in the rowSet can be obtained from the metadata (line 41).

The getValueAt(row, column) method returns the cell value at the specified row and column (lines 52-62). The getColumn_name(column) method returns the column name for the specified column (lines 65-74).

**NOTE**<margin note: index inconsistency>
The index of row and column in JTable is 0-based. However, the index of row and column in RowSet is 1-based.

The RowSetTableModel implements the RowSetListener (lines 77-91). So, a RowSetTableModel can be a listener for RowSet events.

Now let us turn our attention to developing a useful utility that displays a row set in a JTable. As shown in Figure 41.4, you enter or select a JDBC driver and database, enter a username and a password, and specify a table name to connect the database and display the table contents in the JTable. You can then use the buttons First, Next, Prior, and Last to move the cursor to the first row, next row, previous row, and last row in the table, use the Delete button to delete a selected row, and use the Commit button to save the change in the database.

**Figure 41.4**
The program enables you to navigate the table and delete rows.

The status bar at the bottom of the window shows the current row in the row set. The cursor in the row set and the row in the JTable are synchronized. You can move the cursor by using the navigation buttons or by selecting a row in the JTable.
Define two classes: `TestTableEditor` (Listing 41.9) and `TableEditor` (Listing 41.10). `TestTableEditor` is the main class that enables the user to enter the database connection information and a table name. Once the database is connected, the table contents are displayed in an instance of `TableEditor`. The `TableEditor` class can be used to browse a table and modify a table.

**Listing 41.9 TestTableEditor.java**

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.sql.RowSet;
import com.sun.rowset.CachedRowSetImpl;

public class TestTableEditor extends JApplet {
    private JComboBox jcboDriver = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "sun.jdbc.odbc.JdbcOdbcDriver",
        "com.mysql.jdbc.Driver",
        "oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver"
    });
    private JComboBox jcboURL = new JComboBox(new String[] {
        "jdbc:odbc:exampleMDBDataSource",
        "jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook",
        "jdbc:oracle:thin:@liang.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl"
    });
    private JButton jbtConnect = new JButton("Connect to DB & Get Table");
    private JTextField jtfUserName = new JTextField();
    private JPasswordField jpfPassword = new JPasswordField();
    private JTextField jtfTableName = new JTextField();
    private TableEditor tableEditor1 = new TableEditor();
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel();

    /** Creates new form TestTableEditor */
    public TestTableEditor() {
        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel(new GridLayout(5, 0));
        jPanel1.add(jcboDriver);
        jPanel1.add(jcboURL);
        JPanel jPanel2 = new JPanel(new BorderLayout);
        jPanel2.add(jbtConnect, BorderLayout.NORTH);
        jPanel2.add(jtfUserName, BorderLayout.WEST);
        jPanel2.add(jpfPassword, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        jPanel2.add(jtfTableName, BorderLayout.EAST);
        jlblStatus.setText("Status");
        jPanel2.add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        setLayout(new BorderLayout);
        add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
        add(jPanel2, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }
```
When the user clicks the Connect to DB & Get Table button, a CachedRowSet is created (line 61). The url, username, password, and a command are set in the row set (lines 62-66). The row set is executed (line 67) and is plugged to the TableEditor (line 69).

Listing 41.10 TableEditor.java
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.table.*;
import javax.swing.event.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.sql.*;
import com.sun.rowset.CachedRowSetImpl;

public class TableEditor extends JPanel {
    private JButton jbtFirst = new JButton("First");
    private JButton jbtNext = new JButton("Next");
    private JButton jbtPrior = new JButton("Prior");
    private JButton jbtLast = new JButton("Last");
    private JButton jbtDelete = new JButton("Delete");
    private JButton jbtCommit = new JButton("Commit");
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel();

    private RowSetTableModel tableModel = new RowSetTableModel();
    private DefaultListSelectionModel listSelectionModel =
        new DefaultListSelectionModel();
    private JTable jTable1 = new JTable();
    private RowSet rowSet;

    /** Set a new row set */
    public void setRowSet(RowSet rowSet) {
        this.rowSet = rowSet;
        tableModel.setRowSet(rowSet);
        jTable1.setModel(tableModel);
        // Enable auto sort on columns
        TableRowSorter<TableModel> sorter =
            new TableRowSorter<TableModel>(tableModel);
        jTable1.setRowSorter(sorter);
    }
}
/** Create a TableEditor */
public TableEditor() {
    JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
    jPanel1.add(jbtFirst);
    jPanel1.add(jbtNext);
    jPanel1.add(jbtPrior);
    jPanel1.add(jbtLast);
    jPanel1.add(jbtDelete);
    jPanel1.add(jbtCommit);

    setLayout(new BorderLayout());
    add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    add(new JScrollPane(jTable1), BorderLayout.CENTER);
    add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);

    // Set selection model for the table
    jTable1.setSelectionModel(listSelectionModel);

    // Register listeners
    jbtFirst.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            moveCursor("first");
        }
    });
    jbtNext.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            moveCursor("next");
        }
    });
    jbtPrior.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            moveCursor("previous");
        }
    });
    jbtLast.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            moveCursor("last");
        }
    });
    jbtDelete.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            delete();
        }
    });
    jbtCommit.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
        public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
            try {
                ((CachedRowSetImpl)rowSet).acceptChanges();
            } catch (java.sql.SQLException ex) {
                ex.printStackTrace();
            }
        }
    });
```java
listSelectionModel.addListSelectionListener(
    new ListSelectionListener() {
        public void valueChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
            handleSelectionValueChanged(e);
        }
    });

/* Delete a row */
private void delete() {
    try {
        int currentRow = rowSet.getRow();
        rowSet.deleteRow();
        if (rowSet.isAfterLast())
            rowSet.last();
        else if (rowSet.getRow() >= currentRow)
            rowSet.absolute(currentRow);
        setTableCursor();
    } catch (java.sql.SQLException ex) {
        jlblStatus.setText(ex.toString());
    }
}

/** Set cursor in the table and set the row number in the status */
private void setTableCursor() throws java.sql.SQLException {
    int row = rowSet.getRow();
    listSelectionModel.setSelectionInterval(row - 1, row - 1);
    jlblStatus.setText("Current row number: " + row);
}

/** Move cursor to the specified location */
private void moveCursor(String whereToMove) {
    try {
        if (whereToMove.equals("first"))
            rowSet.first();
        else if (whereToMove.equals("next") && !rowSet.isLast())
            rowSet.next();
        else if (whereToMove.equals("previous") && !rowSet.isFirst())
            rowSet.previous();
        else if (whereToMove.equals("last"))
            rowSet.last();
        setTableCursor();
    } catch (java.sql.SQLException ex) {
        jlblStatus.setText(ex.toString());
    }
}

/** Handle the selection in the table */
private void handleSelectionValueChanged(ListSelectionEvent e) {
```
int selectedRow = jTable1.getSelectedRow();

try {
    if (selectedRow != -1) {
        rowSet.absolute(selectedRow + 1);
        setTableCursor();
    }
} catch (java.sql.SQLException ex) {
    jlblStatus.setText(ex.toString());
}

The `setRowSet` method (lines 26-35) sets a new row set in `TableEditor`. The `rowSet` is plugged into the table model (line 29) and the table model is attached to the table (line 32). The code in lines 32-34 enables the column names to be sorted.

The handling of the navigation buttons `First`, `Next`, `Prior`, and `Last` is simply to invoke the methods `first()`, `next()`, `previous()`, and `last()` to move the cursor in the `rowSet` and (lines 126-133), at the same time, set the selected row in `JTable` by invoking `setTableCursor()` (line 134).

To implement the `Delete` button, invoke the `deleteRow()` method (line 104) to remove the row from the `rowSet`. After the row is removed, set the cursor to the next row in the `rowSet` (lines 105-108) and synchronize the cursor in the table (line 109).

Note that the `deleteRow()` method removes the row from the `CachedRowSet`. The `Commit` button actually saves the changes into the database (line 84).

To implement the handler for list-selection events on `jTable1`, set the cursor in the row set to match the row selected in `jTable1` (lines 142-154).

### 41.7 Storing and Retrieving Images in JDBC

A database can store not only numbers and strings, but also images. SQL3 introduced a new data type called BLOB (Binary Large Object) for storing binary data, which can be used to store images. Another new SQL3 type is CLOB (Character Large Object) for storing a large text in the character format. JDBC introduced the interfaces `java.sql.Blob` and `java.sql.Clob` to support mapping for these new SQL types. You can use `getBlob`, `setBinaryStream`, `getClob`, `setBlob`, and `setClob`, to access SQL BLOB and CLOB values in the interfaces `ResultSet` and `PreparedStatement`.

To store an image into a cell in a table, the corresponding column for the cell must be of the BLOB type. For example, the following SQL statement creates a table whose type for the flag column is BLOB.

    create table Country(name varchar(30), flag blob, description varchar(255));
In the preceding statement, the description column is limited to 255 characters, which is the upper limit for MySQL. For Oracle, the upper limit is 32,672 bytes. For a large character field, you can use the CLOB type for Oracle, which can store up to two GB characters. MySQL does not support CLOB. However, you can use BLOB to store a long string and convert binary data into characters.

NOTE

Access does not support the BLOB and CLOB types.

To insert a record with images to a table, define a prepared statement like this one:

```java
PreparedStatement pstmt = connection.prepareStatement("insert into Country values(?, ?, ?)"_callable);
```

Images are usually stored in files. You may first get an instance of `InputStream` for an image file and then use the `setBinaryStream` method to associate the input stream with a cell in the table, as follows:

```java
// Store image to the table cell
File file = new File(imageFilename);
InputStream inputImage = new FileInputStream(file);
pstmt.setBinaryStream(2, inputImage, (int)(file.length()));
```

To retrieve an image from a table, use the `getBlob` method, as shown below:

```java
// Store image to the table cell
Blob blob = rs.getBlob(1);
ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon(blob.getBytes(1, (int)blob.length()));
```

Listing 41.11 gives a program that demonstrates how to store and retrieve images in JDBC. The program first creates the Country table and stores data to it. Then the program retrieves the country names from the table and adds them to a combo box. When the user selects a name from the combo box, the country’s flag and description are displayed, as shown in Figure 41.5.

**Figure 41.5**

The program enables you to retrieve data, including images, from a table and displays them.
import java.sql.*;
import java.io.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class StoreAndRetrieveImage extends JApplet {
    // Connection to the database
    private Connection connection;
    
    // Statement for static SQL statements
    private Statement stmt;
    
    // Prepared statement
    private PreparedStatement pstmt = null;
    private DescriptionPanel descriptionPanel1 = new DescriptionPanel();

    private JComboBox jcboCountry = new JComboBox();

    /** Creates new form StoreAndRetrieveImage */
    public StoreAndRetrieveImage() {
        try {
            connectDB(); // Connect to DB
            storeDataToTable(); // Store data to the table (including image)
            fillDataInComboBox(); // Fill in combo box
            retrieveFlagInfo((String)(jcboCountry.getSelectedItem()));
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
        jcboCountry.addItemListener(new ItemListener() {
            public void itemStateChanged(ItemEvent evt) {
                retrieveFlagInfo((String)(evt.getItem()));
            }
        });
        add(jcboCountry, BorderLayout.NORTH);
        add(descriptionPanel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    }

    private void connectDB() throws Exception {
        // Load the driver
```java
Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
System.out.println("Driver loaded");
// Establish connection
connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
System.out.println("Database connected");
// Create a statement for static SQL
stmt = connection.createStatement();
// Create a prepared statement to retrieve flag and description
pstmt = connection.prepareStatement("select flag, description " + "from Country where name = ?");
}
private void storeDataToTable() {
    String[] countries = {"Canada", "UK", "USA", "Germany", "Indian", "China"};
    String[] imageFilenames = {"image/ca.gif", "image/uk.gif", "image/us.gif", "image/germany.gif", "image/india.gif", "image/china.gif"};
    String[] descriptions = {"A text to describe Canadian " + "flag is omitted", "British flag ...", "American flag ...", "German flag ...", "Indian flag ...", "Chinese flag ..."};
    try {
        // Create a prepared statement to insert records
        PreparedStatement pstmt = connection.prepareStatement("insert into Country values(?, ?, ?)");
        // Store all predefined records
        for (int i = 0; i < countries.length; i++) {
            pstmt.setString(1, countries[i]);
            // Store image to the table cell
            java.net.URL url = this.getClass().getResource(imageFilenames[i]);
            InputStream inputImage = url.openStream();
            pstmt.setBinaryStream(2, inputImage, (int)inputImage.available());
            pstmt.setString(3, descriptions[i]);
            pstmt.executeUpdate();
        }
    }
    catch (Exception ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}
private void fillDataInComboBox() throws Exception {
    ResultSet rs = stmt.executeQuery("select name from Country");
    while (rs.next()) {
        cboCountry.addItem(rs.getString(1));
    }
```

private void retrieveFlagInfo(String name) {
    try {
        pstmt.setString(1, name);
        ResultSet rs = pstmt.executeQuery();
        if (rs.next()) {
            Blob blob = rs.getBlob(1);
            ImageIcon imageIcon = new ImageIcon(
                blob.getBytes(1, (int)blob.length()));
            descriptionPanel1.setImageIcon(imageIcon);
            descriptionPanel1.setName(name);
            String description = rs.getString(2);
            descriptionPanel1.setDescription(description);
        }
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        System.err.println(ex);
    }
}

DescriptionPanel (line 14) is a component for displaying a country (name, flag, and description). This component was presented in Listing 17.2, DescriptionPanel.java.

The storeDataToTable method (lines 58-95) populates the table with data. The fillDataInComboBox method (lines 97-102) retrieves the country names and adds them to the combo box. The retrieveFlagInfo(name) method (lines 104-121) retrieves the flag and description for the specified country name.

Key Terms

- BLOB type
- CLOB type
- batch mode
- cached row set
- row set
- scrollable result set
- updatable result set

Chapter Summary

1. This chapter developed a universal SQL client that can be used to access any local or remote relational database.
2. You can use the addBatch(String) method to add SQL statements to a statement for batch processing.
3. You can create a statement to specify that the result set be scrollable and updatable. By default, the result set is neither of these.
4. The RowSet can be used to simplify Java database programming. A RowSetObject is scrollable and updatable. A RowSet can fire a RowSetEvent.
5. You can store and retrieve image data in JDBC using the SQL BLOB type.
Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Section 41.3
41.1 What is batch processing in JDBC? What are the benefits of using batch processing?
41.2 How do you add an SQL statement to a batch? How do you execute a batch?
41.3 Can you execute a SELECT statement in a batch?
41.4 How do you know whether a JDBC driver supports batch updates?

Section 41.4
41.5 What is a scrollable result set? What is an updatable result set?
41.6 How do you create a scrollable and updatable ResultSet?
41.7 How do you know whether a JDBC driver supports a scrollable and updatable ResultSet?

Sections 41.5-41.6
41.8 What are the advantages of RowSet?
41.9 What are JdbcRowSet and CachedRowSet? What are the differences between them?
41.10 How do you create a JdbcRowSet and a CachedRowSet?
41.11 Can you scroll and update a RowSet? What method must be invoked to write the changes in a CachedRowSet to the database?
41.12 Describe the handlers in RowSetListener.

Section 41.7
41.13 How do you store images into a database?
41.14 How do you retrieve images from a database?
41.15 Does Oracle support the SQL3 BLOB type and CLOB type? What about MySQL and Access?

Exercises

41.1*

(Batch update) Write a program that inserts a thousand records to a database, and compare the performance with and without batch updates, as shown in Figure 41.6a. Suppose the table is defined as follows:

```
create table Temp(num1 double, num2 double, num3 double)
```
Use the Math.random() method to generate random numbers for each record. Create a dialog box that contains DBConnectionPanel, discussed in Exercise 37.3. Use this dialog box to connect to the database. When you click the Connect to Database button in Figure 41.6a, the dialog box in Figure 41.6b is displayed.

![Image of DBConnectionPanel](image1)

(a) ![Image of Connect to Database dialog box](image2) (b)

**Figure 41.6**

The program demonstrates the performance improvements that result from using batch updates.

**41.2**

(Streamable result set) Write a program that uses the buttons First, Next, Prior, Last, Insert, Delete, and Update, and modify a single record in the Address table, as shown in Figure 41.7.

![Image of Address table](image3)

**Figure 41.7**

You can use the buttons to display and modify a single record in the Address table.

**41.3**

(ResultSetTableModel) Listing 41.8, RowSetTableModel.java, defines a table model for RowSet. Develop a new class named ResultSetTableModel for ResultSet. ResultSetTableModel extends AbstractTableModel. Write a test program that displays the Course table to a JTable, as shown in Figure 41.8. Enable autosort on columns.
The Course table is displayed in a JTable using ResultSetTableModel.

(Revise SQLClient.java) Rewrite Listing 41.1, SQLClient.java, to display the query result in a JTable, as shown in Figure 41.9.

The query result is displayed in a JTable.

(Edit table using RowSet) Rewrite Listing 41.10 to add an Insert button to insert a new row and an Update button to update the row.

(Display images from database) Write a program that uses JTable to display the Country table created in Listing 41.11, StoreAndRetrieveImage.java, as shown in Figure 41.10.
The Country table is displayed in a JTable instance.

41.7**
(Store and retrieve images using RowSet) Rewrite the example in Listing 41.11, StoreAndRetrieveImage.java, using RowSet.

41.8*
(Populate Salary table) Rewrite Exercise 33.8 using a batch mode to improve performance.
CHAPTER 42

Servlets

Objectives

- To explain how a servlet works (§42.2).
- To create/develop/run servlets (§42.3).
- To deploy servlets on application servers such as Tomcat and GlassFish (§42.3).
- To describe the servlets API (§42.4).
- To create simple servlets (§42.5).
- To create and process HTML forms (§42.6).
- To develop servlets to access databases (§42.7).
- To use hidden fields, cookies, and HttpSession to track sessions (§42.8).
- To send images from servlets (§42.9).
42.1 Introduction

Servlets are Java programs that run on a Web server. They can be used to process client requests or produce dynamic Web pages. For example, you can write servlets to generate dynamic Web pages that display stock quotes or process client registration forms and store registration data in a database. This chapter introduces the concept of Java servlets. You will learn how to develop Java servlets using NetBeans.

NOTE:

You can develop servlets without using an IDE. However, using an IDE such as NetBeans can greatly simplify the development task. The tool can automatically create the supporting directories and files. We choose NetBeans because it has the best support for Java Web development. You can still use your favorite IDE or no IDE for this chapter.

NOTE:

Servlets are the foundation of Java Web technologies. JSP, JSF, and Java Web services are based on servlets. A good understanding of servlets helps you see the big picture of Java Web technology and learn JSP, JSF, and Web services.

42.2 HTML and Common Gateway Interface

Java servlets run in the Web environment. To understand Java servlets, let us review HTML and the Common Gateway Interface (CGI).

42.2.1 Static Web Contents

You create Web pages using HTML. Your Web pages are stored as files on the Web server. The files are usually stored in the /htdocs directory on Unix, as shown in Figure 42.1. A user types a URL for the file from a Web browser. The browser contacts the Web server and requests the file. The server finds the file and returns it to the browser. The browser then displays the file to the user. This works fine for static information that does not change regardless of who requests it or when it is requested. Static information is stored in files. The information in the files can be updated, but at any given time every request for the same document returns exactly the same result.

![Figure 42.1](http://www.webservlet.com/index.html)
A Web browser requests a static HTML page from a Web server.

42.2.2 Dynamic Web Contents and Common Gateway Interface

Not all information, however, is static in nature. Stock quotes are updated whenever a trade takes place. Election vote counts are updated constantly on Election Day. Weather reports are frequently updated. The balance in a customer’s bank account is updated whenever a transaction takes place. To view up-to-date information on the Web, the HTML pages for displaying this information must be generated dynamically. Dynamic Web pages are generated by Web servers. The Web server needs to run certain programs to process user requests from Web browsers in order to produce a customized response.

<Side Remark: CGI>

The Common Gateway Interface, or CGI, was proposed to generate dynamic Web content. The interface provides a standard framework for Web servers to interact with external programs, known as CGI programs. As shown in Figure 42.2, the Web server receives a request from a Web browser and passes it to the CGI program. The CGI program processes the request and generates a response at runtime. CGI programs can be written in any language, but the Perl language is the most popular choice. CGI programs are typically stored in the /cgi-bin directory. Here is a pseudocode example of a CGI program for displaying a customer’s bank account balance:

1. Obtain account ID and password.
2. Verify account ID and password. If it fails, generate an HTML page to report incorrect account ID and password, and exit.
3. Retrieve account balance from the database; generate an HTML page to display the account ID and balance.

Figure 42.2

A Web browser requests a dynamic HTML page from a Web server.

42.2.3 The GET and POST Methods
The two most common HTTP requests, also known as methods, are GET and POST. The Web browser issues a request using a URL or an HTML form to trigger the Web server to execute a CGI program. HTML forms will be introduced in §42.6, “HTML Forms.” When issuing a CGI request directly from a URL, the GET method is used. This URL is known as a query string. The URL query string consists of the location of the CGI program, the parameters, and their values. For example, the following URL causes the CGI program getBalance to be invoked on the server side:

http://www.webserverhost.com/cgi-bin/getBalance.cgi?accountId=scott+smith&password=tiger

The ? symbol separates the program from the parameters. The parameter name and value are associated using the = symbol. Parameter pairs are separated using the & symbol. The + symbol denotes a space character. So, here accountId is scott smith.

When issuing a request from an HTML form, either a GET method or a POST method can be used. The form explicitly specifies one of these. If the GET method is used, the data in the form are appended to the request string as if it were submitted using a URL. If the POST method is used, the data in the form are packaged as part of the request file. The server program obtains the data by reading the file. The POST method is more secure than the GET method.

NOTE

The GET and POST methods both send requests to the Web server. The POST method always triggers the execution of the corresponding CGI program. The GET method may not cause the CGI program to be executed, if the previous same request is cached in the Web browser. Web browsers often cache Web pages so that the same request can be quickly responded to without contacting the Web server. The browser checks the request sent through the GET method as a URL query string. If the results for the exact same URL are cached on a disk, then the previous Web pages for the URL may be displayed. To ensure that a new Web page is always displayed, use the POST method. For example, use a POST method if the request will actually update the database. If your request is not time sensitive, such as finding the address of a student in the database, use the GET method to speed up performance.

42.2.4 From CGI to Java Servlets

CGI provides a relatively simple approach for creating dynamic Web applications that accept a user request, process it on the server side, and return responses to the Web browser. But CGI is very slow when handling a large number of requests simultaneously, because the Web server spawns a process for executing each CGI program. Each process has its own runtime environment that contains and runs the CGI program. It is not difficult to imagine what will happen if many CGI programs were executed simultaneously. System resource would be quickly exhausted, potentially causing the server to crash.

Several new approaches have been developed to remedy the performance problem of CGI programs. Java servlets are one successful technology for
this purpose. Java servlets are Java programs that function like CGI programs. They are executed upon request from a Web browser. All servlets run inside a servlet container, also referred to as a servlet server or a servlet engine. A servlet container is a single process that runs in a Java Virtual Machine. The JVM creates a thread to handle each servlet. Java threads have much less overhead than full-blown processes. All the threads share the same memory allocated to the JVM. Since the JVM persists beyond the life cycle of a single servlet execution, servlets can share objects already created in the JVM. For example, if multiple servlets access the same database, they can share the connection object. Servlets are much more efficient than CGI.

Servlets have other benefits that are inherent in Java. As Java programs, they are object oriented, portable, and platform independent. Since you know Java, you can develop servlets immediately with the support of Java API for accessing databases and network resources.

42.3 Creating and Running Servlets

To run Java servlets, you need a servlet container. Many servlet containers are available for free. Two popular ones are Tomcat (developed by Apache, www.apache.org) and GlassFish (developed by Sun, glassfish.dev.java.net). Both Tomcat and GlassFish are bundled and integrated with NetBeans 7 (Java EE version). When you run a servlet from NetBeans, Tomcat or GlassFish will be automatically started. You can choose to use either of them, or any other application server. GlassFish has more features than Tomcat and it takes more system resource.

42.3.1 Creating a Servlet

Before our introduction to the servlet API, let us look at a simple example to see how servlets work. A servlet to some extent resembles an applet. Every Java applet is a subclass of the Applet class. You need to override appropriate methods in the Applet class to implement the applet. Every servlet is a subclass of the HttpServlet class. You need to override appropriate methods in the HttpServlet class to implement the servlet. Listing 42.1 is a servlet that generates a response in HTML using the doGet method.

Listing 42.1 FirstServlet.java

```
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;

public class FirstServlet extends HttpServlet {
    /** Handle the HTTP GET method. */
    @param request servlet request
    @param response servlet response
    */
    protected void doGet(HttpServletRequest request,
```
HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, java.io.IOException {
    response.setContentType("text/html");
    java.io.PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
    // output your page here
    out.println("<html>");
    out.println("<head>");
    out.println("<title>Servlet</title>");
    out.println("</head>");
    out.println("<body>");
    out.println("Hello, Java Servlets");
    out.println("</body>");
    out.println("</html>");
    out.close();
}

42.3.2 Creating Servlets in NetBeans

NetBeans is updated frequently. The current version is 7.0 at the time of this writing. To create a servlet in NetBeans 7, you have to first create a Web project, as follows:

1. Choose File › New Project to display the New Project dialog box. Choose Java Web in the Categories section and Web Application in the Projects section, as shown in Figure 42.3a. Click Next to display the New Web Application dialog box, as shown in Figure 42.3b.
2. Enter liangweb in the Project Name field and c:\book in the Project Location field. Check Set as Main Project. Click Next to display the dialog box for specifying server and settings, as shown in Figure 42.4.
3. Select Apache Tomcat 7.0.11 for server and Java EE 5 for J2EE Version. Click Finish to create the Web project, as shown in Figure 42.5.
Figure 42.3

(a) Choose Web Application to create a Web project. (b) Specify project name and location.

Figure 42.4

Choose servers and settings.

Figure 42.5

A new Web project is created.

Now you can create a servlet in the project, as follows:

.Side Remark: create a servlet

1. Right-click the liangweb node in the project pane to display a context menu. Choose New › Servlet to display the New Servlet dialog box, as shown in Figure 42.6.
2. Enter FirstServlet in the Class Name field and chapter42 in the Package field and click Next to display the Configure Servlet Deployment dialog box, as shown in Figure 42.7.
3. Select the checkbox to add the servlet information to web.xml and click Finish to create the servlet. A servlet template is now created in the project, as shown in Figure 42.8.
4. Replace the code in the content pane for the servlet using the code in Listing 42.1.

**Side Remark: run a servlet**

5. Right-click liangweb node in the Project pane to display a context menu and choose Run to launch the Web server. In the Web browser, enter `http://localhost:8084/liangweb/FirstServlet` in the URL. You will now see the servlet result displayed, as shown in Figure 42.9.

---

**Figure 42.6**

You can create a servlet in the New Servlet dialog box.

**Figure 42.7**

You need to click the checkbox to add servlet information to web.xml.
Figure 42.8

A new servlet class is created in the project.

Figure 42.9

Servlet result is displayed in a Web browser.

NOTE

<Side Remark: IDE issues>
If the servlet is not displayed in the browser, do the following: 1. Make sure you have you have added the servlet in the xml.web file. 2. Right-click liangweb and choose Clean and Build. 3. Right-click liangweb and choose Run. Reenter http://localhost:8084/liangweb/FirstServlet in the URL. If still not working, exit NetBeans and restart it.

***End of NOTE

NOTE

<Side Remark: port number>
Depending on the server setup, you may have a port number other than 8084.

***End of NOTE

TIP

<Side Remark: deploy Web project>
<Side Remark: WAR file>
You can deploy a Web application using a Web archive file (WAR) to a Web application server (e.g., Tomcat). To create a WAR file for the liangweb project, right-click liangweb and choose **Build Project**. You can now locate liangweb.war in the c:\book\liangweb\dist folder. To deploy on Tomcat, simply place liangweb.war into the webapps directory. When Tomcat starts, the .war file will be automatically installed.

**NOTE:**

If you wish to use NetBeans as the development tool and Tomcat as the deployment server, please see Supplement V.E, "Tomcat Tutorial."

### 42.4 The Servlet API

You have to know the servlet API in order to understand the source code in FirstServlet.java. The servlet API provides the interfaces and classes that support servlets. These interfaces and classes are grouped into two packages, javax.servlet and javax.servlet.http, as shown in Figure 42.10. The `javax.servlet` package provides basic interfaces, and the `javax.servlet.http` package provides classes and interfaces derived from them, which provide specific means for servicing HTTP requests.

**Figure 42.10**

The servlet API contains interfaces and classes that you use to develop and run servlets.

#### 42.4.1 The `Servlet` Interface

The `javax.servlet.Servlet` interface defines the methods that all servlets must implement. The methods are listed below:

```java
/** Invoked for every servlet constructed */
public void init() throws ServletException;

/** Invoked to respond to incoming requests */
```
```java
public void service(ServletRequest request, ServletResponse response)
    throws ServletException, IOException;

/** Invoked to release resource by the servlet */
public void destroy();
```

**<Side Remark: servlet life cycle>**

The init, service, and destroy methods are known as *life-cycle methods* and are called in the following sequence (see Figure 42.11):

1. The init method is called when the servlet is first created and is not called again as long as the servlet is not destroyed. This resembles an applet’s init method, which is invoked after the applet is created and is not invoked again as long as the applet is not destroyed.
2. The service method is invoked each time the server receives a request for the servlet. The server spawns a new thread and invokes service.
3. The destroy method is invoked after a timeout period has passed or as the Web server is terminated. This method releases resources for the servlet.

![Figure 42.11](image)

The JVM uses the **init**, **service**, and **destroy** methods to control the servlet.

### 42.4.2 The `GenericServlet` Class, `ServletConfig` Interface, and `HttpServlet` Class

The `javax.servlet.GenericServlet` class defines a generic, protocol-independent servlet. It implements `javax.servlet.Servlet` and `javax.servlet.ServletConfig`. `ServletConfig` is an interface that defines four methods (`getInitParameter`, `getInitParameterNames`, `getServletContext`, and `getServletName`) for obtaining information from a Web server during initialization. All the methods in `Servlet` and `ServletConfig` are implemented in `GenericServlet` except `service`. Therefore, `GenericServlet` is an abstract class.

The `javax.servlet.http.HttpServlet` class defines a servlet for the HTTP protocol. It extends `GenericServlet` and implements the `service` method. The `service` method is implemented as a dispatcher of HTTP requests. The HTTP requests are processed in the following methods:

- **doGet** is invoked to respond to a GET request.
- **doPost** is invoked to respond to a POST request.
- **doDelete** is invoked to respond to a DELETE request. Such a request is normally used to delete a file on the server.
- **doPut** is invoked to respond to a PUT request. Such a request is normally used to send a file to the server.

- **doOptions** is invoked to respond to an OPTIONS request. This returns information about the server, such as which HTTP methods it supports.

- **doTrace** is invoked to respond to a TRACE request. Such a request is normally used for debugging. This method returns an HTML page that contains appropriate trace information.

All these methods use the following signature:

```java
protected void doXxx(HttpServletRequest req, HttpServletResponse resp)
    throws ServletException, java.io.IOException
```

The HttpServlet class provides default implementation for these methods. You need to override **doGet**, **doPost**, **doDelete**, and **doPut** if you want the servlet to process a GET, POST, DELETE, or PUT request. By default, nothing will be done. Normally, you should not override the **doOptions** method unless the servlet implements new HTTP methods beyond those implemented by HTTP 1.1. Nor is there any need to override the **doTrace** method.

**NOTE:** GET and POST requests are often used, whereas DELETE, PUT, OPTIONS, and TRACE are not. For more information about these requests, please refer to the HTTP 1.1 specification from [www.cis.ohio-state.edu/htbin/rfc/rfc2068.html](http://www.cis.ohio-state.edu/htbin/rfc/rfc2068.html).

**NOTE:** Although the methods in HttpServlet are all nonabstract, HttpServlet is defined as an abstract class. Thus you cannot create a servlet directly from HttpServlet. Instead you have to define your servlet by extending HttpServlet.

The relationship of these interfaces and classes is shown in Figure 42.12.
HttpServlet inherits abstract class GenericServlet, which implements interfaces Servlet and ServletConfig.

### 42.4.3 The ServletRequest Interface and HttpServletRequest Interface

Every doXxx method in the HttpServlet class has a parameter of the HttpServletRequest type, which is an object that contains HTTP request information, including parameter name and values, attributes, and an input stream. HttpServletRequest is a subinterface of ServletRequest. ServletRequest defines a more general interface to provide information for all kinds of clients. The frequently used methods in these two interfaces are shown in Figure 42.13.

**HttpServletRequest**

Returns the value of a request parameter as a String, or null if the parameter does not exist. Request parameters are extra information sent with the request. For HTTP servlets, parameters are contained in the query string or posted from data. Only use this method when you are sure that the parameter has only one value. If it has more than one value, use getParameterValues.

Returns the Internet Protocol (IP) address of the client that sent the request.

Returns the fully qualified name of the client that sent the request, or the IP address of the client if the name cannot be determined.

**ServletRequest** defines a more general interface to provide information for all kinds of clients. The frequently used methods in these two interfaces are shown in Figure 42.13.

### 42.4.4 The ServletResponse Interface and HttpServletResponse Interface

Every doXxx method in the HttpServlet class has a parameter of the HttpServletResponse type, which is an object that assists a servlet in sending a response to the client. HttpServletResponse is a subinterface of ServletResponse. ServletResponse defines a more general interface for sending output to the client.

The frequently used methods in these two interfaces are shown in Figure 42.14.
Servlets are the opposite of Java applets. Java applets run from a Web browser on the client side. To write Java programs, you define classes. To write a Java applet, you define a class that extends the Applet class. The Web browser runs and controls the execution of the applet through the methods defined in the Applet class. Similarly, to write a Java servlet, you define a class that extends the HttpServlet class. The servlet container runs and controls the execution of the servlet through the methods defined in the HttpServlet class. Like a Java applet, a servlet does not have a main method. A servlet depends on the servlet engine to call the methods. Every servlet has a structure like the one shown below:

```java
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;

public class MyServlet extends HttpServlet {
    /** Called by the servlet engine to initialize servlet */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        ...
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response)
            throws ServletException, IOException {
        ...
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Post request */
    public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response)
            throws ServletException, IOException {
        ...
    }

    /** Called by the servlet engine to release resource */
```
public void destroy() {
    ...
}
// Other methods if necessary

The servlet engine controls the servlets using `init`, `doGet`, `doPost`, `destroy`, and other methods. By default, the `doGet` and `doPost` methods do nothing. To handle a GET request, you need to override the `doGet` method; to handle a POST request, you need to override the `doPost` method.

Listing 42.2 gives a simple Java servlet that generates a dynamic Web page for displaying the current time, as shown in Figure 42.15.

![Figure 42.15](image)

*Figure 42.15*

Servlet **CurrentTime** displays the current time.

**Listing 42.2 CurrentTime.java**

```java
package chapter42;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
public class CurrentTime extends HttpServlet {
    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
        out.println("The current time is " + new java.util.Date());
        out.close(); // Close stream
    }
}
```

The `HttpServlet` class has a `doGet` method. The `doGet` method is invoked when the browser issues a request to the servlet using the GET method. Your servlet class should override the `doGet` method to respond to the GET request. In this case, you write the code to display the current time.

Servlets return responses to the browser through an `HttpServletResponse` object. Since the `setContentType("text/html")` method sets the MIME type to “text/html,” the browser will display the response in HTML. The `getWriter` method returns a `PrintWriter` object for sending HTML back to the client.
NOTE: The URL query string uses the GET method to issue a request to the servlet. The current time may not be current if the Web page for displaying the current time is cached. To ensure that a new current time is displayed, refresh the page in the browser. In the next example, you will write a new servlet that uses the POST method to obtain the current time.

42.6 HTML Forms

HTML forms enable you to submit data to the Web server in a convenient form. As shown in Figure 42.16, the form can contain text fields, text area, check boxes, combo boxes, lists, radio buttons, and buttons.

![Figure 42.16](image)

Figure 42.16

An HTML form may contain text fields, radio buttons, combo boxes, lists, check boxes, text areas, and buttons.

**<Side Remark: HTML/XHTML Tutorial>**
The HTML code for creating the form in Figure 42.16 is given in Listing 42.3. (If you are unfamiliar with HTML, please see Supplement V.A, “HTML and XHTML Tutorial.”)

**Listing 42.3 StudentRegistrationForm.html**

```html
<!--An HTML Form Demo-->
```
Student Registration Form

<form action="GetParameters" method="get">
  <!-- Name text fields -->
  <p>
    <label>Last Name</label>
    <input type="text" name="lastName" size="20" />
  </p>
  <p>
    <label>First Name</label>
    <input type="text" name="firstName" size="20" />
  </p>
  <p>
    <label>Mi</label>
    <input type="text" name="mi" size="1" />
  </p>

  <!-- Gender radio buttons -->
  <p>
    <label>Gender:</label>
    <input type="radio" name="gender" value="M" checked />
    Male
    <input type="radio" name="gender" value="F" />
    Female
  </p>

  <!-- Major combo box -->
  <p>
    <label>Major</label>
    <select name="major" size="1">
      <option value="CS">Computer Science</option>
      <option value="Math">Mathematics</option>
      <option value="English">English</option>
      <option value="Chinese">Chinese</option>
    </select>
  </p>

  <!-- Minor list -->
  <p>
    <label>Minor</label>
    <select name="minor" size="2" multiple>
      <option>Computer Science</option>
      <option>Mathematics</option>
      <option>English</option>
      <option>Chinese</option>
    </select>
  </p>

  <!-- Hobby check boxes -->
  <p>
    <label>Hobby:</label>
    <input type="checkbox" name="tennis" /> Tennis
    <input type="checkbox" name="golf" /> Golf
    <input type="checkbox" name="pingPong" checked /> Ping Pong
  </p>

  <!-- Remark text area -->
  <p>
    <label>Remarks:</label>
    <textarea name="remarks" rows="3" cols="56"></textarea>
  </p>

  <!-- Submit and Reset buttons -->
  <p>
    <input type="submit" value="Submit" />
    <input type="reset" />
  </p>
</form>
The following HTML tags are used to construct HTML forms:

- `<form>` ... `</form>` defines a form body. The attributes for the `<form>` tag are `action` and `method`. The `action` attribute specifies the server program to be executed on the Web server when the form is submitted. The `method` attribute is either `get` or `post`.

- `<label>` ... `</label>` simply defines a label.

- `<input>` defines an input field. The attributes for this tag are `type`, `name`, `value`, `checked`, `size`, and `maxlength`. The `type` attribute specifies the input type. Possible types are `text` for a one-line text field, `radio` for a radio button, and `checkbox` for a check box. The `name` attribute gives a formal name for the attribute. This `name` attribute is used by the servlet program to retrieve its associated value. The names of the radio buttons in a group must be identical. The value attribute specifies a default value for a text field and text area. The `checked` attribute indicates whether a radio button or a check box is initially checked. The `size` attribute specifies the size of a text field, and the `maxlength` attribute specifies the maximum length of a text field.

- `<select>` ... `</select>` defines a combo box or a list. The attributes for this tag are `name`, `size`, and `multiple`. The `size` attribute specifies the number of rows visible in the list. The `multiple` attribute specifies that multiple values can be selected from a list. Set `size` to 1 and do not use a `multiple` for a combo box.

- `<option>` ... `</option>` tag. This tag may be used with the value attribute to specify a value for the selected option (e.g., `<option value = "CS">Computer Science</option>`). If no value is specified, the selected option is the value.

- `<textarea>` ... `</textarea>` defines a text area. The attributes are `name`, `rows`, and `cols`. The `rows` and `cols` attributes specify the number of rows and columns in a text area.

NOTE:
- `<Side Remark: create an HTML file>`
You can create the HTML file from NetBeans. Right-click liangweb and choose New, HTML, to display the New HTML File dialog box. Enter StudentRegistrationForm as the file name and click Finish to create the file.

42.6.1 Obtaining Parameter Values from HTML Forms

To demonstrate how to obtain parameter values from an HTML form, Listing 42.4 creates a servlet to obtain all the parameter values from the preceding student registration form in Figure 42.16 and display their values, as shown in Figure 42.17.

Figure 42.17
The servlet displays the parameter values entered in Figure 42.16.

Listing 42.4 GetParameters.java

```java
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;

public class GetParameters extends HttpServlet {
    /** Process the HTTP Post request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

        // Obtain parameters from the client
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String gender = request.getParameter("gender");
        String major = request.getParameter("major");
        String[] minors = request.getParameterValues("minor");
        String tennis = request.getParameter("tennis");
        String golf = request.getParameter("golf");
        String pingPong = request.getParameter("pingPong");
```

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String remarks = request.getParameter("remarks");

out.println("Last Name: <b>" + lastName + "</b> First Name: <b>" + firstName + "</b> MI: <b>" + mi + "</b><br>
out.println("Gender: <b>" + gender + "</b><br>
out.println("Major: <b>" + major + "</b> Minor: <b>" + minors[i] + " </b> Tennis: <b>" + tennis + "</b> Golf: <b>" + golf + "</b> PingPong: <b>" + pingPong + "</b><br>
out.println("Remarks: <b>" + remarks + "</b>";
out.close(); // Close stream

The HTML form is already created in StudentRegistrationForm.html and displayed in Figure 42.16. Since the action for the form is GetParameters, clicking the Submit button invokes the GetParameters servlet.

Each GUI component in the form has a name attribute. The servlet uses the name attribute in the getParameter(attributeName) method to obtain the parameter value as a string. In case of a list with multiple values, use the getParameterValues(attributeName) method to return the parameter values in an array of strings (line 20).

You may optionally specify the value attribute in a text field, text area, combo box, list, check box, or radio button in an HTML form. For text field and text area, the value attribute specifies a default value to be displayed in the text field and text area. The user can type in new values to replace it. For combo box, list, check box, and radio button, the value attribute specifies the parameter value to be returned from the getParameter and getParameterValues methods. If the value attribute is not specified for a combo box or a list, it returns the selected string from the combo box or the list. If the value attribute is not specified for a radio button or a check box, it returns string on for a checked radio button or a checked check box, and returns null for an unchecked check box.

NOTE: If an attribute does not exist, the getParameter(attributeName) method returns null. If an empty value of the parameter is passed to the servlet, the getParameter(attributeName) method returns a string with an empty value. In this case, the length of the string is 0.

42.6.2 Obtaining Current Time Based on Locale and Time Zone

This example creates a servlet that processes the GET and POST requests. The GET request generates a form that contains a combo box for locale and a combo box for time zone, as shown in Figure 42.18a. The user can choose a locale and a time zone from this form to submit a POST request to obtain the current time based on the locale and time zone, as shown in Figure 42.18b.
Figure 42.18

The GET method in the TimeForm servlet displays a form in (a), and the POST method in the TimeForm servlet displays the time based on locale and time zone in (b).

Listing 42.5 gives the servlet.

Listing 42.5 TimeForm.java

```java
package chapter42;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.*;
public class TimeForm extends HttpServlet {
    private static final String CONTENT_TYPE = "text/html";
    private Locale[] allLocale = Locale.getAvailableLocales();
    private String[] allTimeZone = TimeZone.getAvailableIDs();

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse
            response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType(CONTENT_TYPE);
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
        out.println("<h3>Choose locale and time zone</h3>");
        out.println("<form method="post" action="TimeForm">");
        out.println("<Locale <select size="1" name="locale">");
        // Fill in all locales
        for (int i = 0; i < allLocale.length; i++) {
            out.println("<option value="" + i + "">" +
```
When you run this servlet, the servlet `TimeForm`'s `doGet` method is invoked to generate the time form dynamically. The method of the form is `POST`, and the action invokes the same servlet, `TimeForm`. When the form is submitted to the server, the `doPost` method is invoked to process the request.

The variables `allLocale` and `allTimeZone` (lines 11–12), respectively, hold all the available locales and time zone IDs. The names of the locales are displayed in the locale list. The values for the locales are the indexes of the locales in the array `allLocale`. The time zone IDs are strings. They are displayed in the time zone list. They are also the values for the list. The indexes of the locale and the time zone are passed to the servlet as parameters. The `doPost` method obtains the values of the parameters (lines 51–53) and finds the current time based on the locale and time zone.

**NOTE**

.Side Remark: set character encoding>
If you choose an Asian locale (e.g., Chinese, Korean, or Japanese), the time will not be displayed properly, because the default character encoding is UTF-8. To fix this problem, insert the following statement in line 48 to set an international character encoding:

```java
response.setCharacterEncoding("GB18030");
```

For information on encoding, see §31.6, “Character Encoding.”

***End of NOTE***

### 42.7 Database Programming in Servlets

Many dynamic Web applications use databases to store and manage data. Servlets can connect to any relational database via JDBC. In Chapter 37, “Java Database Programming,” you learned how to create Java programs to access and manipulate relational databases via JDBC. Connecting a servlet to a database is no different from connecting a Java application or applet to a database. If you know Java servlets and JDBC, you can combine them to develop interesting and practical Web-based interactive projects.

To demonstrate connecting to a database from a servlet, let us create a servlet that processes a registration form. The client enters data in an HTML form and submits the form to the server, as shown in Figure 42.19. The result of the submission is shown in Figure 42.20. The server collects the data from the form and stores them in a database.

![Figure 42.19](image1)

The HTML form enables the user to enter student information.

![Figure 42.20](image2)

John Smith is now registered in the database.
The servlet processes the form and stores data in a database.

The registration data are stored in an Address table consisting of the following fields: firstName, mi, lastName, street, city, state, zip, telephone, and email, defined in the following statement:

```sql
create table Address (
    firstname varchar(25),
    mi char(1),
    lastname varchar(25),
    street varchar(40),
    city varchar(20),
    state varchar(2),
    zip varchar(5),
    telephone varchar(10),
    email varchar(30)
)
```

MySQL, Oracle, and Access were used in Chapter 37. You can use any relational database. If the servlet uses a database driver other than the JDBC-ODBC driver (e.g., the MySQL JDBC driver and the Oracle JDBC driver), you need to add the JDBC driver (e.g., mysqljdbc.jar for MySQL and ojdbc6.jar for Oracle) into the Libraries node in the project.

Create an HTML file named SimpleRegistration.html in Listing 42.6 for collecting the data and sending them to the database using the post method.

**Listing 42.6 SimpleRegistration.html**

```html
<!-- SimpleRegistration.html -->
<html>
<head>
    <title>Simple Registration without Confirmation</title>
</head>
<body>
    Please register to your instructor's student address book.

    <form method = "post" action = "SimpleRegistration">
    <!-- SimpleRegistration.html -->
    <html>
    <head>
        <title>Simple Registration without Confirmation</title>
    </head>
    <body>
    Please register to your instructor's student address book.

    <form method = "post" action = "SimpleRegistration">
```

```html
    <p>Last Name <font color = "#FF0000">*</font></p>
        <input type = "text" name = "lastName">
    <p>First Name <font color = "#FF0000">*</font></p>
        <input type = "text" name = "firstName">
    <p>MI <input type = "text" name = "mi" size = "3">
    <p>Telephone <input type = "text" name = "telephone" size = "20">
    Email <input type = "text" name = "email" size = "28">
    <p>Street <input type = "text" name = "street" size = "50">
    <p>City <input type = "text" name = "city" size = "23">
```
Create the servlet named SimpleRegistration in Listing 42.7.

Listing 42.7 SimpleRegistration.java

```java
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.sql.*;

public class SimpleRegistration extends HttpServlet {
    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    /** Initialize variables */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Post request */
    public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

        // Obtain parameters from the client
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
```
String phone = request.getParameter("telephone");
String email = request.getParameter("email");
String address = request.getParameter("street");
String city = request.getParameter("city");
String state = request.getParameter("state");
String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

try {
    if (lastName.length() == 0 || firstName.length() == 0) {
        out.println("Last Name and First Name are required");
    } else {
        storeStudent(lastName, firstName, mi, phone, email,
                     address, city, state, zip);
        out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + 
                     " is now registered in the database");
    }
} catch (Exception ex) {
    out.println("Error: " + ex.getMessage());
} finally {
    out.close(); // Close stream
}

/** Initialize database connection */
private void initializeJdbc() {
    try {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
            ("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        // Create a Statement
        pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address " + 
                                    ", lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, " + 
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}

/** Store a student record to the database */
private void storeStudent(String lastName, String firstName,
                            String mi, String phone, String email, String address,
                            String city, String state, String zip) throws SQLException {
    pstmt.setString(1, lastName);
    pstmt.setString(2, firstName);
    pstmt.setString(3, mi);
    pstmt.setString(4, phone);
    pstmt.setString(5, email);
    pstmt.setString(6, address);
    pstmt.setString(7, city);
    pstmt.setString(8, state);
```java
    pstmt.setString(9, zip);
    pstmt.executeUpdate();
    }
  }

The `init` method (line 13) is executed once when the servlet starts. After the servlet has started, the servlet can be invoked many times as long as it is alive in the servlet container. Load the driver and connect to the database from the servlet’s `init` method (line 14). If a prepared statement or a callable statement is used, it should also be created in the `init` method. In this example, a prepared statement is desirable, because the servlet always uses the same insert statement with different values.

A servlet can connect to any relational database via JDBC. The `initializeJdbc` method in this example connects to a MySQL database (line 58). Once connected, it creates a prepared statement for inserting a student record into the database. MySQL is used in this example; you can replace it with any relational database.

Last name and first name are required fields. If either of them is empty, the servlet sends an error message to the client (lines 35–36). Otherwise, the servlet stores the data in the database using the prepared statement.

42.8 Session Tracking

Web servers use the Hyper-Text Transport Protocol (HTTP). HTTP is a stateless protocol. An HTTP Web server cannot associate requests from a client, and therefore treats each request independently. This protocol works fine for simple Web browsing, where each request typically results in an HTML file or a text file being sent back to the client. Such simple requests are isolated. However, the requests in interactive Web applications are often related. Consider the two requests in the following scenario:

Request 1: A client sends registration data to the server; the server then returns the data to the user for confirmation.

Request 2: The client confirms the data that was submitted in Request 1.

In Request 2, the data submitted in Request 1 are confirmed. These two requests are related in a session. A `session` can be defined as a series of related interactions between a single client and the Web server over a period of time. Tracking data among requests in a session is known as session tracking.

This section introduces three techniques for session tracking: using hidden values, using cookies, and using the session tracking tools from servlet API.

42.8.1 Session Tracking Using Hidden Values

You can track a session by passing data from the servlet to the client as hidden values in a dynamically generated HTML form by including a field like this one:

```html
  <input type = "hidden" name = "lastName" value = "Smith">
```
The next request will submit the data back to the servlet. The servlet retrieves this hidden value just like any other parameter value, using the `getParameter` method.

Let us use an example to demonstrate using hidden values in a form. The example creates a servlet that processes a registration form. The client submits the form using the GET method, as shown in Figure 42.21. The server collects the data in the form, displays them to the client, and asks the client for confirmation, as shown in Figure 42.22. The client confirms the data by submitting the request with the hidden values using the POST method. Finally, the servlet writes the data to a database.

![Figure 42.21](image1)

**Figure 42.21**

The registration form collects user information.

![Figure 42.22](image2)

**Figure 42.22**

The servlet asks the client for confirmation of the input.

Create an HTML form named Registration.html in Listing 42.8 for collecting the data and sending it to the database using the GET method for confirmation. This file is almost identical to Listing 42.6, SimpleRegistration.html except that the action is replaced by `Registration` (line 9).

**Listing 42.8 Registration.html**
Create the servlet named Registration in Listing 42.9.

Listing 42.9 Registration.java

```java
package chapter42;
```
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.sql.*;

public class Registration extends HttpServlet {
    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    /** Initialize variables */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

        // Obtain data from the form
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        if (lastName.length() == 0 || firstName.length() == 0) {
            out.println("Last Name and First Name are required");
        } else {
            // Ask for confirmation
            out.println("You entered the following data");
            out.println("<p>Last name: " + lastName);
            out.println("<br>First name: " + firstName);
            out.println("<br>MI: " + mi);
            out.println("<br>Telephone: " + telephone);
            out.println("<br>Email: " + email);
            out.println("<br>Address: " + street);
            out.println("<br>City: " + city);
            out.println("<br>State: " + state);
            out.println("<br>Zip: " + zip);

            // Set the action for processing the answers
            out.println("<p><form method="post" action="Registration">");
            // Set hidden values
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="lastName" name="lastName">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="firstName" name="firstName">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="mi" name="mi">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="telephone" name="telephone">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="email" name="email">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="street" name="street">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="city" name="city">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="state" name="state">");
            out.println("<p><input type="hidden" value="zip" name="zip">");
            out.println("</p>");
        }
    }
}
private void initializeJdbc() {
    try {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        // Create a Statement
        pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address " + "(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
    }
}
/** Initialize database connection */
private void initializeJdbc() {
    try {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        // Create a Statement
        pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address " + "(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
    }
}
/** Process the HTTP Post request */
public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
    response.setContentType("text/html");
    PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
    try {
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        storeStudent(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip);

        out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + " is now registered in the database");
    } catch(Exception ex) {
        out.println("Error: " + ex.getMessage());
    }
}
/** Process the HTTP Post request */
public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
    response.setContentType("text/html");
    PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
    try {
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        storeStudent(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip);

        out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + " is now registered in the database");
    } catch(Exception ex) {
        out.println("Error: " + ex.getMessage());
    }
}
/** Process the HTTP Post request */
public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
    response.setContentType("text/html");
    PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
    try {
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        storeStudent(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip);

        out.println(firstName + " " + lastName + " is now registered in the database");
    } catch(Exception ex) {
        out.println("Error: " + ex.getMessage());
    }
}
```java
catch (Exception ex) {
    System.out.println(ex);
}

/** Store a student record to the database */
private void storeStudent(String lastName, String firstName,
    String mi, String phone, String email, String address,
    String city, String state, String zip) throws SQLException {
    pstmt.setString(1, lastName);
    pstmt.setString(2, firstName);
    pstmt.setString(3, mi);
    pstmt.setString(4, phone);
    pstmt.setString(5, email);
    pstmt.setString(6, address);
    pstmt.setString(7, city);
    pstmt.setString(8, state);
    pstmt.setString(9, zip);
    pstmt.executeUpdate();
}
```

The servlet processes the GET request by generating an HTML page that displays the client’s input and asks for the client’s confirmation. The input data consist of hidden values in the newly generated forms, so they will be sent back in the confirmation request. The confirmation request uses the POST method. The servlet retrieves the hidden values and stores them in the database.

Since the first request does not write anything to the database, it is appropriate to use the GET method. Since the second request results in an update to the database, the POST method must be used.

NOTE: The hidden values could also be sent from the URL query string if the request used the GET method.

42.8.2 Session Tracking Using Cookies

You can track sessions using cookies, which are small text files that store sets of name/value pairs on the disk in the client’s computer. Cookies are sent from the server through the instructions in the header of the HTTP response. The instructions tell the browser to create a cookie with a given name and its associated value. If the browser already has a cookie with the key name, the value will be updated. The browser will then send the cookie with any request submitted to the same server. Cookies can have expiration dates set, after which they will not be sent to the server. The `javax.servlet.http.Cookie` is used to create and manipulate cookies, as shown in Figure 42.23.

<PD: UML Class Diagram>
javax.servlet.http.Cookie

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>getName()</td>
<td>Returns the name of the cookie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getValue()</td>
<td>Returns the value of the cookie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setValue()</td>
<td>Assigns a new value to a cookie after the cookie is created.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getMaxAge()</td>
<td>Returns the maximum age of the cookie, specified in seconds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setMaxAge()</td>
<td>Specifies the maximum age of the cookie. By default, this value is –1, which implies that the cookie persists until the browser exits. If you set this value to 0, the cookie is deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getSecure()</td>
<td>Returns true if the browser is sending cookies only over a secure protocol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setSecure()</td>
<td>Indicates to the browser whether the cookie should only be sent using a secure protocol, such as HTTPS or SSL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getComment()</td>
<td>Returns the comment describing the purpose of the cookie, or null if the cookie has no comment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setComment()</td>
<td>Sets the comment for this cookie.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Creates a cookie with the specified name-value pair.

Returns the name of the cookie.

Returns the value of the cookie.

Assigns a new value to a cookie after the cookie is created.

Returns the maximum age of the cookie, specified in seconds.

Specifies the maximum age of the cookie. By default, this value is –1, which implies that the cookie persists until the browser exits. If you set this value to 0, the cookie is deleted.

Returns true if the browser is sending cookies only over a secure protocol.

Indicates to the browser whether the cookie should only be sent using a secure protocol, such as HTTPS or SSL.

Returns the comment describing the purpose of this cookie, or null if the cookie has no comment.

Sets the comment for this cookie.

Figure 42.23

Cookie stores a name/value pair and other information about the cookie.

To send a cookie to the browser, use the addCookie method in the HttpServletResponse class, as shown below:

```java
response.addCookie(cookie);
```

where response is an instance of HttpServletResponse.

To obtain cookies from a browser, use

```java
request.getCookies();
```

where request is an instance of HttpServletRequest.

To demonstrate the use of cookies, let us create an example that accomplishes the same task as Listing 42.9, Registration.java. Instead of using hidden values for session tracking, it uses cookies.

Create the servlet named RegistrationWithHttpCookie in Listing 42.10.

Create an HTML file named RegistrationWithCookie.html that is identical to Registration.html except that the action is replaced by RegistrationWithCookie.

Listing 42.10 RegistrationWithCookie.java

```java
<Side Remark line 19: process GET>
<Side Remark line 25: get parameters>
<Side Remark line 40: create cookies>
<Side Remark line 42: add cookies>
<Side Remark line 62: client verification>
<Side Remark line 84: process POST>
<Side Remark line 100: get cookies>
<Side Remark line 125: store record>

package chapter42;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.sql.*;
```
public class RegistrationWithCookie extends HttpServlet {
    private static final String CONTENT_TYPE = "text/html";
    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    /** Initialize variables */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

        // Obtain data from the form
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        if (lastName.length() == 0 || firstName.length() == 0) {
            out.println("Last Name and First Name are required");
        } else {
            // Create cookies and send cookies to browsers
            Cookie cookieLastName = new Cookie("lastName", lastName);
            // cookieLastName.setMaxAge(1000);
            response.addCookie(cookieLastName);
            Cookie cookieFirstName = new Cookie("firstName", firstName);
            // cookieFirstName.setMaxAge(0);
            response.addCookie(cookieFirstName);
            Cookie cookieMi = new Cookie("mi", mi);
            response.addCookie(cookieMi);
            Cookie cookieTelephone = new Cookie("telephone", telephone);
            response.addCookie(cookieTelephone);
            Cookie cookieEmail = new Cookie("email", email);
            response.addCookie(cookieEmail);
            Cookie cookieStreet = new Cookie("street", street);
            response.addCookie(cookieStreet);
            Cookie cookieCity = new Cookie("city", city);
            response.addCookie(cookieCity);
            Cookie cookieState = new Cookie("state", state);
            response.addCookie(cookieState);
            Cookie cookieZip = new Cookie("zip", zip);
            response.addCookie(cookieZip);

            // Ask for confirmation
            out.println("You entered the following data");
            out.println("<p>Last name: " + lastName);
            out.println("<br>First name: " + firstName);
            out.println("<br>MI: " + mi);
            out.println("<br>Telephone: " + telephone);
            out.println("<br>Email: " + email);
        }
    }
}
```java
out.println("<br>Street: " + street);
out.println("<br>City: " + city);
out.println("<br>State: " + state);
out.println("<br>Zip: " + zip);

// Set the action for processing the answers
out.println("<p><form method="post" action="\"RegistrationWithCookie\">\n" +
out.println("<p><input type="submit" value="Confirm" >\n");
out.println("</form>\"));
out.close(); // Close stream
}

/** Process the HTTP Post request */
public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
    response.setContentType(CONTENT_TYPE);
    PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

    String lastName = "";
    String firstName = "";
    String mi = "";
    String telephone = "";
    String email = "";
    String street = "";
    String city = "";
    String state = "";
    String zip = "";

    // Read the cookies
    Cookie[] cookies = request.getCookies();

    // Get cookie values
    for (int i = 0; i < cookies.length; i++) {
        if (cookies[i].getName().equals("lastName"))
            lastName = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("firstName"))
            firstName = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("mi"))
            mi = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("telephone"))
            telephone = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("email"))
            email = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("street"))
            street = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("city"))
            city = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("state"))
            state = cookies[i].getValue();
        else if (cookies[i].getName().equals("zip"))
            zip = cookies[i].getValue();
    }

    try {
        storeStudent(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, state, zip);
        out.println(firstName + " " + lastName +
```
/** Initialize database connection */
private void initializeJdbc() {
    try {
        // Load the JDBC driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
            ("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
        System.out.println("Database connected");

        // Create a Statement
        pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address " +
            "(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, " +
            "state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
    }
    catch (Exception ex) {
        System.out.println(ex);
    }
}

/** Store a student record to the database */
private void storeStudent(String lastName, String firstName,
    String mi, String telephone, String email, String street,
    String city, String state, String zip) throws SQLException {
    pstmt.setString(1, lastName);
    pstmt.setString(2, firstName);
    pstmt.setString(3, mi);
    pstmt.setString(4, telephone);
    pstmt.setString(5, email);
    pstmt.setString(6, street);
    pstmt.setString(7, city);
    pstmt.setString(8, state);
    pstmt.setString(9, zip);
    pstmt.executeUpdate();
}

You have to create a cookie for each value you want to track, using the
Cookie class’s only constructor, which defines a cookie’s name and value
as shown below (line 40):

    Cookie cookieLastName = new Cookie("lastName", lastName);

To send the cookie to the browser, use a statement like this one (line
42):

    response.addCookie(cookieLastName);

If a cookie with the same name already exists in the browser, its value
is updated; otherwise, a new cookie is created.
Cookies are automatically sent to the Web server with each request from the client. The servlet retrieves all the cookies into an array using the `getCookies` method (line 100):

```java
Cookie[] cookies = request.getCookies();
```

To obtain the name of the cookie, use the `getName` method (line 104):

```java
String name = cookies[i].getName();
```

The cookie’s value can be obtained using the `getValue` method:

```java
String value = cookies[i].getValue();
```

Cookies are stored as strings just like form parameters and hidden values. If a cookie represents a numeric value, you have to convert it into an integer or a double, using the `parseInt` method in the `Integer` class or the `parseDouble` method in the `Double` class.

By default, a newly created cookie persists until the browser exits. However, you can set an expiration date, using the `setMaxAge` method, to allow a cookie to stay in the browser for up to 2,147,483,647 seconds (approximately 24,855 days).

### 42.8.3 Session Tracking Using the Servlet API

You have now learned both session tracking using hidden values and session tracking using cookies. These two session-tracking methods have problems. They send data to the browser either as hidden values or as cookies. The data are not secure, and anybody with knowledge of computers can obtain them. The hidden data are in HTML form, which can be viewed from the browser. Cookies are stored in the Cache directory of the browser. Because of security concerns, some browsers do not accept cookies. The client can turn the cookies off and limit their number. Another problem is that hidden data and cookies pass data as strings. You cannot pass objects using these two methods.

To address these problems, Java servlet API provides the `javax.servlet.http.HttpSession` interface, which provides a way to identify a user across more than one page request or visit to a Web site and to store information about that user. The servlet container uses this interface to create a session between an HTTP client and an HTTP server. The session persists for a specified time period, across more than one connection or page request from the user. A session usually corresponds to one user, who may visit a site many times. The session enables tracking of a large set of data. The data can be stored as objects and are secure because they are kept on the server side.

To use the Java servlet API for session tracking, first create a session object using the `getSession()` method in the `HttpServletRequest` interface:

```java
HttpSession session = request.getSession();
```

This obtains the session or creates a new session if the client does not have a session on the server.

The `HttpSession` interface provides the methods for reading and storing data to the session, and for manipulating the session, as shown in Figure 42.24.
HttpSession establishes a persistent session between a client with multiple requests and the server.

NOTE: HTTP is stateless. So how does the server associate a session with multiple requests from the same client? This is handled behind the scenes by the servlet container and is transparent to the servlet programmer.

To demonstrate using HttpSession, let us rewrite Listing 42.9, Registration.java, and Listing 42.10, RegistrationWithCookie.java. Instead of using hidden values or cookies for session tracking, it uses servlet HttpSession.

Create the servlet named RegistrationWithHttpSession in Listing 42.11. Create an HTML file named RegistrationWithHttpSession.html that is identical to Registration.html except that the action is replaced by RegistrationWithHttpSession.

Listing 42.11 RegistrationWithHttpSession.java

```java
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.sql.*;
```
public class RegistrationWithHttpSession extends HttpServlet {
    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    /** Initialize variables */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        // Set response type and output stream to the browser
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

        // Obtain data from the form
        String lastName = request.getParameter("lastName");
        String firstName = request.getParameter("firstName");
        String mi = request.getParameter("mi");
        String telephone = request.getParameter("telephone");
        String email = request.getParameter("email");
        String street = request.getParameter("street");
        String city = request.getParameter("city");
        String state = request.getParameter("state");
        String zip = request.getParameter("zip");

        if (lastName.length() == 0 || firstName.length() == 0) {
            out.println("Last Name and First Name are required");
        } else {
            // Create an Address object
            Address address = new Address();
            address.setLastName(lastName);
            address.setFirstName(firstName);
            address.setMi(mi);
            address.setTelephone(telephone);
            address.setEmail(email);
            address.setStreet(street);
            address.setCity(city);
            address.setState(state);
            address.setZip(zip);

            // Get an HttpSession or create one if it does not exist
            HttpSession httpSession = request.getSession();
            httpSession.setAttribute("address", address);

            // Ask for confirmation
            out.println("You entered the following data");
            out.println("<p>Last name: " + lastName);
            out.println("<p>First name: " + firstName);
            out.println("<p>MI: " + mi);
            out.println("<p>Telephone: " + telephone);
            out.println("<p>Email: " + email);
            out.println("<p>Address: " + street);
            out.println("<p>City: " + city);
            out.println("<p>State: " + state);
            out.println("<p>Zip: " + zip);
        }
    }
}
// Set the action for processing the answers
out.println("<p><form method="post" action=" +
"RegistrationWithHttpSession">;
out.println("<p><input type="submit" value="Confirm" >")
out.println("</form>"pdf);
}

} // Close stream

/** Process the HTTP Post request */
public void doPost(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse
response) throws ServletException, IOException {
// Set response type and output stream to the browser
response.setContentType("text/html");
PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();

// Obtain the HttpSession
HttpSession httpSession = request.getSession();
// Get the Address object in the HttpSession
Address address = (Address)(httpSession.getAttribute("address"));
try {
storeStudent(address);
out.println(address.getFirstName() + " " + address.getLastName()
+ " is now registered in the database");
out.close(); // Close stream
}
catch(Exception ex) {
out.println("Error: " + ex.getMessage());
}

/** Initialize database connection */
private void initializeJdbc() { try {
// Load the JDBC driver
Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
System.out.println("Driver loaded");
// Establish a connection
Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
System.out.println("Database connected");
// Create a Statement
pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address "+
"(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, "+"state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
} catch (Exception ex) {
System.out.println(ex);
}

/** Store an address to the database */
private void storeStudent(Address address) throws SQLException {
pstmt.setString(1, address.getLastName());
The statement (line 52)

```java
HttpSession httpSession = request.getSession();
```

obtains a session, or creates a new session if the session does not exist.

Since objects can be stored in HttpSession, this program defines an Address class. An Address object is created and is stored in the session using the `setAttribute` method, which binds the object with a name like the one shown below (line 55):

```java
httpSession.setAttribute("address", address);
```

To retrieve the object, use the following statement (line 90):

```java
Address address = (Address)(httpSession.getAttribute("address");
```

There is only one session between a client and a servlet. You can store any number of objects in a session. By default, the maximum inactive interval on many Web servers including Tomcat and GlassFish is 1800 seconds (i.e., a half-hour), meaning that the session expires if there is no activity for 30 minutes. You can change the default using the `setMaxInactiveInterval` method. For example, to set the maximum inactive interval to one hour, use

```java
httpSession.setMaxInactiveInterval(3600);
```

If you set a negative value, the session will never expire.

**<Side Remark: create Address class>**

For this servlet program to work, you have to create the Address class in NetBeans, as follows:

1. Choose New, Java Class from the context menu of the liangweb node in the project pane to display the New Java Class dialog box.
2. Enter Address as the Class Name and chapter42 as the package name. Click Finish to create the class.
3. Enter the code, as shown in Listing 42.12.

```java
Listing 42.12 Address.java
<pstmt.setString(2, address.getFirstName());
pstmt.setString(3, address.getMi());
pstmt.setString(4, address.getTelephone());
pstmt.setString(5, address.getEmail());
pstmt.setString(6, address.getStreet());
pstmt.setString(7, address.getCity());
pstmt.setString(8, address.getState());
pstmt.setString(9, address.getZip());
pstmt.executeUpdate();
```

```java
private String firstName;
private String mi;
private String lastName;
private String telephone;
```

```java
};
```

```
```
private String street;
private String city;
private String state;
private String email;
private String zip;

public String getFirstName() {
    return this.firstName;
}

public void setFirstName(String firstName) {
    this.firstName = firstName;
}

public String getMi() {
    return this.mi;
}

public void setMi(String mi) {
    this.mi = mi;
}

public String getLastName() {
    return this.lastName;
}

public void setLastName(String lastName) {
    this.lastName = lastName;
}

public String getTelephone() {
    return this.telephone;
}

public void setTelephone(String telephone) {
    this.telephone = telephone;
}

public String getEmail() {
    return this.email;
}

public void setEmail(String email) {
    this.email = email;
}

public String getStreet() {
    return this.street;
}

public void setStreet(String street) {
    this.street = street;
}

public String getCity() {
```java
text
public class Location {
    private String city;
    private String state;
    private String zip;

    public String getCity() {
        return this.city;
    }

    public void setCity(String city) {
        this.city = city;
    }

    public String getState() {
        return this.state;
    }

    public void setState(String state) {
        this.state = state;
    }

    public String getZip() {
        return this.zip;
    }

    public void setZip(String zip) {
        this.zip = zip;
    }
}
```

This support class will also be reused in the upcoming chapters.

42.9 Sending Images from Servlets

So far you have learned how to write Java servlets that generate dynamic HTML text. Java servlets are not limited to sending text to a browser. They can return images on demand. The images can be stored in files or created from programs.

42.9.1 Sending Image from Files

You can use the HTML `<img>` tag to send images from files. The syntax for the tag is:

```html
<img src= URL alt= text align= [top | middle | bottom | texttop]>
```

The attribute `src` specifies the source of the image. The attribute `alt` specifies an alternative text to be displayed in case the image cannot be displayed on the browser. The attribute `align` tells the browser where to place the image.

To demonstrate getting images from a file in a servlet, let us create a servlet that dynamically generates the flag of a country and a text that describes the flag, as shown in Figure 42.25. The flag is stored in an image file, and the text that describes the flag is stored in a text file.
The servlet returns an image along with the text.

Create the servlet named `ImageContent` in Listing 42.13.

Listing 42.13 `ImageContent.java`

```java
package chapter42;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;

public class ImageContent extends HttpServlet {
    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
        String country = request.getParameter("country");
        out.println("<img src = "resources/image/" + country + ".gif" + "\" align=left">");
        java.util.Scanner input = new java.util.Scanner(
            new File("c:\book\" + country + ".txt"));
        while (input.hasNext()) {
            out.println(input.nextLine());
        }
        out.close();
    }
}
```

You should create a directory `C:\book\liangweb\web\resources\image` and store image files in this directory.

The `country` parameter determines which image file and text file are displayed. The servlet sends the HTML contents to the browser. The contents contain an `<img>` tag (lines 16–17) that references to the image file.
The servlet reads the characters from the text file and sends them to the browser (lines 20–26).

42.9.2 Sending Images from the Image Object

The preceding example displays an image stored in an image file. You can also display an image dynamically created in the program.

Before the image is sent to a browser, it must be encoded into a format acceptable to the browser. Image encoders are not part of Java API, but several free encoders are available. One of them is the GifEncoder class (http://www.acme.com/java/software/Acme.JPM.Encoders.GifEncoder.html), which is included in \book\lib\acme.jar. Use the following statement to encode and send the image to the browser:

```java
new GifEncoder(image, out, true).encode();
```

where `out` is a binary output stream from the servlet to the browser, which can be obtained using the following statement:

```java
OutputStream out = response.getOutputStream();
```

To demonstrate dynamically generating images from a servlet, let us create a servlet that displays a clock to show the current time, as shown in Figure 42.26.

![Figure 42.26](image-content-with-drawing.gif)

**Figure 42.26**

The servlet returns a clock that displays the current time.

.Side Remark: acme.jar

Create the servlet named ImageContentWithDrawing in Listing 42.14. Add acme.jar in the Libraries node in the liangweb project in NetBeans. (acme.jar is in c:\book\lib.)

**Listing 42.14 ImageContentWithDrawing.java**

.Side Remark line 10: import GifEncoder
.Side Remark line 18: process GET
.Side Remark line 20: gif type
.Side Remark line 24: image
.Side Remark line 28: graphics
.Side Remark line 30: draw graphics
.Side Remark line 35: close stream
.Side Remark line 38: draw clock
package chapter42;

import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.image.BufferedImage;
import Acme.JPM.Encoders.GifEncoder;

public class ImageContentWithDrawing extends HttpServlet {
    /** Initialize variables */
    private final static int width = 300;
    private final static int height = 300;

    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("image/gif");
        OutputStream out = response.getOutputStream();
        // Create image
        Image image = new BufferedImage(width, height, BufferedImage.TYPE_INT_ARGB);
        // Get Graphics context of the image
        Graphics g = image.getGraphics();
        // Draw a clock on graphics
        drawClock(g);
        // Encode the image and send to the output stream
        new GifEncoder(image, out, true).encode();
        out.close(); // Close stream
    }

    private void drawClock(Graphics g) {
        // Initialize clock parameters
        int clockRadius = (int)(Math.min(width, height) * 0.7 * 0.5);
        int xCenter = width / 2;
        int yCenter = height / 2;
        // Draw circle
        g.setColor(Color.black);
        g.drawOval(xCenter - clockRadius, yCenter - clockRadius, 2 * clockRadius, 2 * clockRadius);
        g.drawString("12", xCenter - 5, yCenter - clockRadius + 12);
        g.drawString("9", xCenter - clockRadius + 3, yCenter + 5);
        g.drawString("3", xCenter + clockRadius - 10, yCenter + 3);
        g.drawString("6", xCenter - 3, yCenter + clockRadius - 3);
        // Get current time using GregorianCalendar
        TimeZone timeZone = TimeZone.getDefault();
        GregorianCalendar cal = new GregorianCalendar(timeZone);
        // Draw second hand
        int second = (int)cal.get(GregorianCalendar.SECOND);
        int sLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.9);
        int xSecond = (int)(xCenter + sLength * Math.sin(second *
(2 * Math.PI / 60));
            int ySecond = (int)(yCenter - sLength * Math.cos(second *
(2 * Math.PI / 60)));
            g.setColor(Color.red);
            g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xSecond, ySecond);
            // Draw minute hand
            int minute = (int)cal.get(GregorianCalendar.MINUTE);
            int mLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.75);
            int xMinute = (int)(xCenter + mLength * Math.sin(minute *
(2 * Math.PI / 60)));
            int yMinute = (int)(yCenter - mLength * Math.cos(minute *
(2 * Math.PI / 60)));
            g.setColor(Color.blue);
            g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xMinute, yMinute);
            // Draw hour hand
            int hour = (int)cal.get(GregorianCalendar.HOUR_OF_DAY);
            int hLength = (int)(clockRadius * 0.6);
            int xHour = (int)(xCenter + hLength * Math.sin((hour + minute/
60.0) * (2 * Math.PI / 12)));
            int yHour = (int)(yCenter - hLength * Math.cos((hour + minute/
60.0) * (2 * Math.PI / 12)));
            g.setColor(Color.green);
            g.drawLine(xCenter, yCenter, xHour, yHour);
            // Set display format in specified style, locale and time zone
            DateFormat formatter = DateFormat.getDateTimeInstance
(DateFormat.MEDIUM, DateFormat.LONG);
            // Display current date
            g.setColor(Color.red);
            String today = formatter.format(cal.getTime());
            FontMetrics fm = g.getFontMetrics();
            g.drawString(today, (width - fm.stringWidth(today)) / 2, yCenter + clockRadius + 30);
        }
    }

Since the image is sent to the browser as binary data, the content type of the response is set to image/gif (line 20). The GifEncoder class is used to encode the image into content understood by the browser (line 33). The content is sent to the OutputStream object out.

The program creates an image with the specified width, height, and image type, using the BufferedImage class (lines 24–25):

    Image image = new BufferedImage(width, height,
    BufferedImage.TYPE_INT_ARGB);

To draw things on the image, you need to get its graphics context using the getGraphics method (line 28):

    Graphics g = image.getGraphics();

You can use various drawing methods in the Graphics class to draw simple shapes, or you can use Java 2D to draw more sophisticated graphics. This example uses simple drawing methods to draw a clock that displays the current time.

42.9.3 Sending Images and Text Together
The servlet in the preceding example returns images. Often images are mixed with other contents. In this case, you have to set the content type to "image/gif" before sending images, and set the content type to "text/html" before sending the text. However, the content type cannot be changed in one request. To circumvent this restriction, you may embed a GET request for displaying the image in a `<img>` tag in the HTML content. When the HTML content is displayed, a separate GET request for retrieving the image is then sent to the server. Thus text and image are obtained through two separate GET requests.

To demonstrate mixing images and texts, let us create a servlet in Listing 42.15 that mixes the clock image created in the preceding example with some text, as shown in Figure 42.27.

![Figure 42.27](image.png)

The servlet returns an image along with the text.

Listing 42.15 MixedContent.java

```java
package chapter42;
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;

public class MixedContent extends HttpServlet {
    /** Process the HTTP Get request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request, HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        response.setContentType("text/html");
        PrintWriter out = response.getWriter();
        String country = request.getParameter("country");
        out.println("<img src = " +
```
The servlet generates an HTML file with the image tag

```html
<img src = "ImageContentWithDrawing" align = "right">
```

The HTML file is rendered by the browser. When the browser sees the image tag, it sends the request to the server. ImageContentWithDrawing, created in Listing 42.14, is invoked to send the image to the browser.

**Key Terms**

- Common Gateway Interface
- CGI programs
- cookie
- GET and POST methods
- GlassFish
- HTML form
- URL query string
- servlet
- servlet container (servlet engine)
- servlet life-cycle methods
- Tomcat

**Chapter Summary**

1. A servlet is a special kind of program that runs from a Web server. Tomcat and GlassFish are Web servers that can run servlets.

2. A servlet URL is specified by the host name, port, and request string (e.g., `http://localhost:8084/liangweb/ServletClass`). There are several ways to invoke a servlet: (1) by typing a servlet URL from a Web browser, (2) by placing a hyper link in an HTML page, and (3) by embedding a servlet URL in an HTML form. All the requests trigger the GET method, except that in the HTML form you can explicitly specify the POST method.

3. You develop a servlet by defining a class that extends the `HttpServlet` class, implements the `doGet(HttpServletRequest, HttpServletResponse)` method to respond to the GET method, and implements the `doPost(HttpServletRequest, HttpServletResponse)` method to respond to the POST method.

4. The request information passed from a client to the servlet is contained in an object of `HttpServletRequest`. You can use the methods `getParameter`, `getParameterValues`, `getRemoteAddr`, `getRemoteHost`, `getHeader`, `getQueryString`, `getCookies`, and `getSession` to obtain the information from the request.

5. The content sent back to the client is contained in an object of `HttpServletResponse`. To send content to the client, first set the type of the content (e.g., `html/plain`) using the `setContentType(contentType)` method, then output the content.
through an I/O stream on the HttpServletResponse object. You can obtain a character PrintWriter stream using the getWriter() method and obtain a binary OutputStream using the getOutputStream() method.

6. A servlet may be shared by many clients. When the servlet is first created, its init method is called. It is not called again as long as the servlet is not destroyed. The service method is invoked each time the server receives a request for the servlet. The server spawns a new thread and invokes service. The destroy method is invoked after a timeout period has passed or the Web server is stopped.

7. There are three ways to track a session. You can track a session by passing data from the servlet to the client as a hidden value in a dynamically generated HTML form by including a field such as <input type="hidden" name="lastName" value="Smith">. The next request will submit the data back to the servlet. The servlet retrieves this hidden value just like any other parameter value using the getParameter method.

8. You can track sessions using cookies. A cookie is created using the constructor new Cookie(String name, String value). Cookies are sent from the server through the object of HttpServletResponse using the addCookie(aCookie) method to tell the browser to add a cookie with a given name and its associated value. If the browser already has a cookie with the key name, the value will be updated. The browser will then send the cookie with any request submitted to the same server. Cookies can have expiration dates set, after which they will not be sent to the server.

9. Java servlet API provides a session-tracking tool that enables tracking of a large set of data. A session can be obtained using the getSession() method through an HttpServletRequest object. The data can be stored as objects and are secure because they are kept on the server side using the setAttribute(String name, Object value) method.

10. Java servlets are not limited to sending text to a browser. They can return images in GIF, JPEG, or PNG format.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 42.1-42.2
42.1 What is the common gateway interface?

42.2 What are the differences between the GET and POST methods in an HTML form?

42.3 Can you submit a GET request directly from a URL? Can you submit a POST request directly from a URL?

42.4 What is wrong in the following URL for submitting a GET request to the servlet FindScore on host liang at port 8084 with parameter name?

   http://liang:8084/findScore?name="P Yates"

42.5 What are the differences between CGI and servlets?
Section 42.3
42.6 Can you display an HTML file (e.g. c:\test.html) by typing the complete file name in the Address field of Internet Explorer? Can you run a servlet by simply typing the servlet class file name?

42.7 How do you create a Web project in NetBeans?

42.8 How do you create a servlet in NetBeans?

42.9 How do you run a servlet in NetBeans?

42.10 When you run a servlet from NetBeans, what is the port number by default? What happens if the port number is already in use?

42.11 What is the .war file? How do you obtain a .war file for a Web project in NetBeans?

Section 42.4
42.12 Describe the life cycle of a servlet.

42.13 Suppose that you started the Web server, ran the following servlet twice by issuing an appropriate URL from the Web browser, and finally stopped Tomcat. What was displayed on the console when the servlet was first invoked? What was displayed on the console when the servlet was invoked for the second time? What was displayed on the console when Tomcat was shut down?

```java
import javax.servlet.*;
import javax.servlet.http.*;
import java.io.*;

public class Test extends HttpServlet {
    public Test() {
        System.out.println("Constructor called");
    }

    /** Initialize variables */
    public void init() throws ServletException {
        System.out.println("Init called");
    }

    /** Process the HTTP GET request */
    public void doGet(HttpServletRequest request,
                       HttpServletResponse response) throws ServletException, IOException {
        System.out.println("doGet called");
    }

    /** Clean up resources */
    public void destroy() {
        System.out.println("destroy called");
    }
}
```

Sections 42.5-42.7
42.14 What would be displayed if you changed the content type to "html/plain" in Listing 42.2, CurrentTime.java?
42.15 The statement `out.close()` is used to close the output stream to response. Why isn’t this statement enclosed in a try-catch block?

42.16 What happens when you invoke `request.getParameter(paramName)` if `paramName` does not exist?

42.17 How do you write a text field, combo box, check box, and text area in an HTML form?

42.18 How do you retrieve the parameter value for a text field, combo box, list, check box, radio button, and text area from an HTML form?

42.19 If the servlet uses a database driver other than the JDBC-ODBC driver, where should the driver be placed in NetBeans?

Section 42.8

42.20 What is session tracking? What are three techniques for session tracking?

42.21 How do you create a cookie, send a cookie to a browser, get cookies from a browser, get the name of a cookie, set a new value in the cookie, and set cookie expiration time?

42.22 Do you have to create five `Cookie` objects in the servlet in order to send five cookies to the browser?

42.23 How do you get a session, set object value for the session, and get object value from the session?

42.24 Suppose you inserted the following code in line 53 in Listing 42.11.

```java
httpSession.setMaxInactiveInterval(1);
```

What would happen after the user clicked the `Confirm` button from the browser? Test your answer by running the program.

42.25 Suppose you inserted the following code in line 53 in Listing 42.11.

```java
httpSession.setMaxInactiveInterval(-1);
```

What would happen after the user clicked the `Confirm` button from the browser?

Section 42.9

42.26 What output stream should you use to send images to the browser? What content type do you have to set for the response?

42.27 How do you deal with dynamic contents with images and text?

**Programming Exercises**

Note: Solutions to even-numbered exercises in this chapter are in `exercise\servle texercise` from `evennumberedexercise.zip`, which can be downloaded from the Companion Website.

Section 42.5
42.1*

(Factorial table) Write a servlet to display a table that contains factorials for the numbers from 0 to 10, as shown in Figure 42.28a.

![Factorial Table](image)

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Number} & \text{Factorial} \\
\hline
0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 \\
2 & 2 \\
3 & 6 \\
4 & 24 \\
5 & 120 \\
6 & 720 \\
7 & 5040 \\
8 & 40320 \\
9 & 362880 \\
10 & 3628800 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Figure 42.28

(a) The servlet displays factorials for the numbers from 0 to 10 in a table. (b) The servlet displays the multiplication table.

42.2*

(Multiplication table) Write a servlet to display a multiplication table, as shown in Figure 42.28(b).

42.3*

(Visit count) Develop a servlet that displays the number of visits on the servlet. Also display the client’s host name and IP address, as shown in Figure 42.29.

![Visit Count](image)

Figure 42.29

The servlet displays the number of visits and the client’s host name, IP address, and request URL.

Implement this program in three different ways:

1. Use an instance variable to store count. When the servlet is created for the first time, \texttt{count} is 0. \texttt{count} is incremented every time the servlet’s \texttt{doGet} method is invoked. When the Web server stops, \texttt{count} is lost.
2. Store the count in a file named Exercise39_3.dat, and use
RandomAccessFile to read the count in the servlet’s init
method. The count is incremented every time the servlet’s
doGet method is invoked. When the Web server stops, store
the count back to the file.

3. Instead of counting total visits from all clients, count the
visits by each client identified by the client’s IP address.
Use Map to store a pair of IP addresses and visit counts.
For the first visit, an entry is created in the map. For
subsequent visits, the visit count is updated.

Section 42.6
42.4*

(Calculate tax) Write an HTML form to prompt the user to enter
taxable income and filing status, as shown in Figure 42.30a. Clicking
the Compute Tax button invokes a servlet to compute and display the
tax, as shown in Figure 42.30b. Use the computeTax method introduced
in Listing 3.7, ComputingTax.java, to compute tax.

![Figure 42.30](image)

The servlet computes the tax.

42.5*

(Calculate loan) Write an HTML form that prompts the user to enter
loan amount, interest rate, and number of years, as shown in Figure
42.31a. Clicking the Compute Loan Payment button invokes a servlet to
compute and display the monthly and total loan payments, as shown in
Figure 42.31b. Use the Loan class given in Listing 10.2, Loan.java,
to compute the monthly and total payments.

![Figure 42.31](image)
The servlet computes the loan payment.

42.6**

(Find scores from text files) Write a servlet that displays the student name and the current score, given the SSN and class ID. For each class, a text file is used to store the student name, SSN, and current score. The file is named after the class ID with .txt extension. For instance, if the class ID were csci1301, the file name would be csci1301.txt. Suppose each line consists of student name, SSN, and score. These three items are separated by the # sign. Create an HTML form that enables the user to enter the SSN and class ID, as shown in Figure 42.32a. Upon clicking the Submit button, the result is displayed, as shown in Figure 42.32b. If the SSN or the class ID does not match, report an error. Assume three courses are available: CSC11301, CSC11302, and CSC113720.

![Figure 42.32](image)

(a) The HTML form accepts the SSN and class ID from the user and sends them to the servlet to obtain the score.

(b) The result is displayed.

Section 42.7

42.7**

(Find scores from database tables) Rewrite the preceding servlet. Assume that for each class, a table is used to store the student name, ssn, and score. The table name is the same as the class ID. For instance, if the class ID were csci1301, the table name would be csci1301.

42.8*

(Change the password) Write a servlet that enables the user to change the password from an HTML form, as shown in Figure 42.33a. Suppose that the user information is stored in a database table named Account with three columns: username, password, and name, where name is the real name of the user. The servlet performs the following tasks:

a. Verify that the username and old password are in the table. If not, report the error and redisplay the HTML form.

b. Verify that the new password and the confirmed password are the same. If not, report this error and redisplay the HTML form.

c. If the user information is entered correctly, update the password and report the status of the update to the user, as shown in Figure 42.33b.
The user enters the username and the old password and sets a new password. The servlet reports the status of the update to the user.

42.9**

(Display database tables) Write an HTML form that prompts the user to enter or select a JDBC driver, database URL, username, password, and table name, as shown in Figure 42.34a. Clicking the Submit button displays the table content, as shown in Figure 42.34b.

The user enters database information and specifies a table to display its content.

Section 42.8

42.10*

(Store cookies) Write a servlet that stores the following cookies in a browser, and set their max age for two days.

Cookie 1: name is “color” and value is red.

Cookie 2: name is “radius” and value is 5.5.
Cookie 3: name is “count” and value is 2.

42.11*

(Retrieve cookies) Write a servlet that displays all the cookies on the client. The client types the URL of the servlet from the browser to display all the cookies stored on the browser. See Figure 42.35.

![Retrieve cookies](image)

**Figure 42.35**

All the cookies on the client are displayed in the browser.

**Comprehensive**

42.12***

(Syntax highlighting) Create an HTML form that prompts the user to enter a Java program in a text area, as shown in Figure 42.36a. The form invokes a servlet that displays the Java source code in a syntax-highlighted HTML format, as shown in Figure 42.36b. The keywords, comments, and literals are displayed in bold navy, green, and blue, respectively.

![Java code form](image) ![Syntax-highlighted code](image)

**Figure 42.36**

The Java code in plain text in (a) is displayed in HTML with syntax highlighted in (b).

42.13**

(Access and update a Staff table) Write a Java servlet for Exercise 33.1, as shown in Figure 42.37.
42.14***

(Opinion poll) Create an HTML form that prompts the user to answer a question such as “Are you a CS major?”, as shown in Figure 42.38a. When the Submit button is clicked, the servlet increases the Yes or No count in a database and displays the current Yes and No counts, as shown in Figure 42.38b.

Create a table named Poll, as follows:

```sql
create table Poll (
    question varchar(40) primary key,
    yesCount int,
    noCount int);
```

Insert one row into the table, as follows:

```sql
insert into Poll values ('Are you a CS major?', 0, 0);
```
CHAPTER 43

JavaServer Pages

Objectives

- To create a simple JSP page (§43.2).
- To explain how a JSP page is processed (§43.3).
- To use JSP constructs to code JSP script (§43.4).
- To use predefined variables and directives in JSP (§§43.5-43.6).
- To use JavaBeans components in JSP (§43.7).
- To get and set JavaBeans properties in JSP (§43.8).
- To associate JavaBeans properties with input parameters (§43.9).
- To forward requests from one JSP page to another (§43.10).
- To develop an application for browsing database tables using JSP (§43.11).
43.1 Introduction
Servlets can be used to generate dynamic Web content. One drawback, however, is that you have to embed HTML tags and text inside the Java source code. Using servlets, you have to modify the Java source code and recompile it if changes are made to the HTML text. If you have a lot of HTML script in a servlet, the program is difficult to read and maintain, since the HTML text is part of the Java program. JavaServer Pages (JSP) was introduced to remedy this drawback. JSP enables you to write regular HTML script in the normal way and embed Java code to produce dynamic content.

43.2 Creating a Simple JSP Page

JSP provides an easy way to create dynamic Web pages and simplify the task of building Web applications. A JavaServer page is like a regular HTML page with special tags, known as JSP tags, which enable the Web server to generate dynamic content. You can create a Web page with HTML script and enclose the Java code for generating dynamic content in the JSP tags. Here is an example of a simple JSP page.

<!-- CurrentTime.jsp -->
<html>
<head>
<title>
CurrentTime
</title>
</head>
<body>
Current time is <%= new java.util.Date() %>
</body>
</html>

The dynamic content is enclosed in the tag that begins with <%= and ends with %>. The current time is returned as a string by invoking the toString method of an object of the java.util.Date class.

An IDE like NetBeans can greatly simplify the task of developing JSP. To create JSP in NetBeans, first you need to create a Web project. A Web project named liangweb was created in the preceding chapter. For convenience, this chapter will create JSP in the liangweb project.

Here are the steps to create and run CurrentTime.jsp:
1. Right-click the liangweb node in the project pane and choose New › JSP to display the New JSP dialog box, as shown in Figure 43.1.
2. Enter CurrentTime in the JSP File Name field and click Finish. You will see CurrentTime.jsp appearing under the Web Pages node in liangweb.
3. Complete the code for CurrentTime.jsp, as shown in Figure 43.2.
4. Right-click CurrentTime.jsp in the project pane and choose Run File. You will see the JSP page displayed in a Web browser, as shown in Figure 43.3.
43.3 How Is a JSP Page Processed?
A JSP page must first be processed by a Web server before it can be displayed in a Web browser. The Web server must support JSP, and the JSP page must be stored in a file with a .jsp extension. The Web server translates the .jsp file into a Java servlet, compiles the servlet, and executes it. The result of the execution is sent to the browser for display. Figure 43.4 shows how a JSP page is processed by a Web server.
Figure 43.4
A JSP page is translated into a servlet.

NOTE: A JSP page is translated into a servlet when the page is requested for the first time. It is not retranslated if the page is not modified. To ensure that the first-time real user does not encounter a delay, JSP developers should test the page after it is installed.

43.4 JSP Scripting Constructs

<Side Remark: scripting element>
<Side Remark: directive>
<Side Remark: action>

There are three main types of JSP constructs: scripting constructs, directives, and actions. Scripting elements enable you to specify Java code that will become part of the resultant servlet. Directives enable you to control the overall structure of the resultant servlet. Actions enable you to control the behavior of the JSP engine. This section introduces scripting constructs.

Three types of JSP scripting constructs can be used to insert Java code into a resultant servlet: expressions, scriptlets, and declarations.

<Side Remark: JSP expression>

A JSP expression is used to insert a Java expression directly into the output. It has the following form:

```jsp
<%=
Java expression
%>
```

The expression is evaluated, converted into a string, and sent to the output stream of the servlet.

<Side Remark: JSP scriptlet>

A JSP scriptlet enables you to insert a Java statement into the servlet’s jspService method, which is invoked by the service method. A JSP scriptlet has the following form:
A JSP declaration is for declaring methods or fields into the servlet. It has the following form:

```html
<%! Java declaration %>
```

HTML comments have the following form:

```html
<!--[ HTML Comment -->
```

If you don’t want the comment to appear in the resultant HTML file, use the following comment in JSP:

```html
<%-- JSP Comment -->%
```

Listing 43.1 creates a JavaServer page that displays factorials for numbers from 0 to 10, as shown in Figure 43.5.

**Figure 43.5**
The JSP page displays factorials.

**Listing 43.1 Factorial.jsp**

```html
<html>
<head>
  <title>Factorial</title>
</head>
<body>
  <pre>
  Factorial of 0 is 1
  Factorial of 1 is 1
  Factorial of 2 is 2
  Factorial of 3 is 6
  Factorial of 4 is 24
  Factorial of 5 is 120
  Factorial of 6 is 720
  Factorial of 7 is 5040
  Factorial of 8 is 40320
  Factorial of 9 is 362880
  Factorial of 10 is 3628800
  </pre>
</body>
</html>
```
if (n == 0) 
   return 1;
else
   return n * computeFactorial(n - 1);
%

JSP scriptlets are enclosed between `<%` and `%>`. Thus

```jsp
for (int i = 0; i <= 10; i++) {
    (line 9)
```

is a scriptlet and as such is inserted directly into the servlet’s `jspService` method.

JSP expressions are enclosed between `<%=` and `%>`. Thus

```jsp
<% i %>
```

(line 10)

is an expression and is inserted into the output stream of the servlet.

JSP declarations are enclosed between `<%!` and `%>`. Thus

```jsp
<%! private long computeFactorial(int n) {
    ...
}
%
```

is a declaration that defines methods or fields in the servlet.

What will be different if line 9 is replaced by the two alternatives shown below? Both work fine, but there is an important difference. In (a), `i` is a local variable in the servlet, whereas in (b) `i` is an instance variable when translated to the servlet.

(a) `<% int i = 0; %>
 <% for (i = 0; i <= 10; ++i) { %>
 (b) `<%! int i; %>
 <% for (i = 0; i <= 10; ++i) { %>

CAUTION: For JSP the loop body, even though it contains a single statement, must be placed inside braces. It would be wrong to delete the opening brace `{` in line 9 and the closing brace `}` in line 12.

CAUTION: There is no semicolon at the end of a JSP expression. For example, `<%= i; %>` is incorrect. But there must be a semicolon for each Java statement in a JSP scriptlet. For example, `<% int i = 0 %>` is incorrect.

CAUTION: JSP and Java elements are case sensitive, but HTML is not.

43.5 Predefined Variables

<Side Remark: JSP implicit object>

You can use variables in JSP. For convenience, JSP provides eight predefined variables from the servlet environment that can be used with JSP expressions and scriptlets. These variables are also known as JSP implicit objects.

<Side Remark: request>
request represents the client’s request, which is an instance of HttpServletRequest. You can use it to access request parameters and HTTP headers, such as cookies and host name.

response represents the servlet’s response, which is an instance of HttpServletResponse. You can use it to set response type and send output to the client.

caseRemark: out
out represents the character output stream, which is an instance of PrintWriter obtained from response.getWriter(). You can use it to send character content to the client.

session represents the HttpSession object associated with the request, obtained from request.getSession().

application represents the ServletContext object for storing persistent data for all clients. The difference between session and application is that session is tied to one client, but application is for all clients to share persistent data.

config represents the ServletConfig object for the page.

templateRemark: pageContext
pageContext represents the PageContext object. PageContext is a new class introduced in JSP to give a central point of access to many page attributes.

templateRemark: page
page is an alternative to this.

As an example, let us write an HTML page that prompts the user to enter loan amount, annual interest rate, and number of years, as shown in Figure 43.6a. Clicking the Compute Loan Payment button invokes a JSP to compute and display the monthly and total loan payments, as shown in Figure 43.6b.

Listing 43.2 ComputeLoan.html

<!-- ComputeLoan.html -->
<html>
<head>
<title>ComputeLoan</title>
</head>

<body>
<form action="/ComputeLoan.jsp" method="post">

  <table>
    <tr>
      <td>Loan Amount: </td>
      <td><input type="text" name="LoanAmount"></td>
    </tr>
    <tr>
      <td>Annual Interest Rate: </td>
      <td><input type="text" name="AnnualInterestRate"></td>
    </tr>
    <tr>
      <td>Number of Years: </td>
      <td><input type="text" name="NumberOfYears"></td>
    </tr>
  </table>

  <button type="submit">Compute Loan Payment</button>
  <button type="reset">Reset</button>

</form>

Listing 43.3 ComputeLoan.jsp

Figure 43.6
The JSP computes the loan payments.

The HTML file is named ComputeLoan.html (Listing 43.2). The JSP file is named ComputeLoan.jsp (Listing 43.3).
Listing 43.3 ComputeLoan.jsp

<!-- ComputeLoan.jsp -->
<html>
<head>
<title>ComputeLoan</title>
</head>
<body>
<% double loanAmount = Double.parseDouble(request.getParameter("loanAmount"));
    double annualInterestRate = Double.parseDouble(request.getParameter("annualInterestRate"));
    double numberOfYears = Integer.parseInt(request.getParameter("numberOfYears"));
    double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;
    double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 - 1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12));
    double totalPayment = monthlyPayment * numberOfYears * 12; %>
Loan Amount: <%= loanAmount %><br />
Annual Interest Rate: <%= annualInterestRate %><br />
Number of Years: <%= numberOfYears %><br />
<b>Monthly Payment: <%= monthlyPayment %></b><br />
Total Payment: <%= totalPayment %><br /></b></body>
</html>

ComputeLoan.html is displayed first to prompt the user to enter the loan amount, annual interest rate, and number of years. Since this file does not contain any JSP elements, it is named with an .html extension as a regular HTML file.

ComputeLoan.jsp is invoked upon clicking the Compute Loan Payment button in the HTML form. The JSP page obtains the parameter values using the predefined variable request in lines 7-12 and computes monthly payment and total payment in lines 13-16. The formula for computing monthly payment is given in §2.9, “Problem: Computing Loan Payments.”
What is wrong if the JSP scriptlet `<%` in line 7 is replaced by the JSP declaration `<%!`? The predefined variables (e.g., request, response, out) correspond to local variables defined in the servlet methods `doGet` and `doPost`. They must appear in JSP scriptlets, not in JSP declarations.

TIP: ComputeLoan.jsp can also be invoked using the following query string:
```
http://localhost:8084/liangweb/ComputeLoan.jsp?loanAmount=10000
&annualInterestRate=6&numberOfYears=15.
```

### 43.6 JSP Directives

A JSP directive is a statement that gives the JSP engine information about the JSP page. For example, if your JSP page uses a Java class from a package other than the `java.lang` package, you have to use a directive to import this package. The general syntax for a JSP directive is shown below:

```
<%@ directive attribute = "value" %>, or
<%@ directive attribute1 = "value1"
    attribute2 = "value2"
    ...
    attributeN = "valueN" %>
```

The possible directives are:

- **page** lets you provide information for the page, such as importing classes and setting up content type. The page directive can appear anywhere in the JSP file.
- **include** lets you insert a file into the servlet when the page is translated to a servlet. The `include` directive must be placed where you want the file to be inserted.
- **taglib** lets you define custom tags.

The following are useful attributes for the `page` directive:

- **import** specifies one or more packages to be imported for this page. For example, the directive `<%@ page import="java.util.*, java.text.*" %>` imports `java.util.*` and `java.text.*`.
- **contentType** specifies the content type for the resultant JSP page. By default, the content type is `text/html` for JSP. The default content type for servlets is `text/plain`.
- **session** specifies a boolean value to indicate whether the page is part of the session. By default, `session` is true.
- **buffer** specifies the output stream buffer size. By default, it is 8KB. For example, the directive `<%@ page buffer="10KB" %>` specifies that the output buffer size is 10KB. The directive `<%@ page buffer="none" %>` specifies that a buffer is not used.
- **autoFlush** specifies a boolean value to indicate whether the output buffer should be automatically flushed when it is full or whether an exception should be raised when the buffer overflows. By default, this attribute is true. In this case, the buffer attribute cannot be none.
- **isThreadSafe** specifies a boolean value to indicate whether the page can be accessed simultaneously without data corruption. By default, it is true. If it is set to false, the JSP page will be translated to a servlet that implements the `SingleThreadModel` interface.
- **errorPage** specifies a JSP page that is processed when an exception occurs in the current page. For example, the directive `<%@ page
errorPage="HandleError.jsp" %&gt; specifies that HandleError.jsp is processed when an exception occurs.

- **isErrorPage** specifies a boolean value to indicate whether the page can be used as an error page. By default, this attribute is false.

Listing 43.4 gives an example that shows how to use the page directive to import a class. The example uses the Loan class created in Listing 10.2, Loan.java, to simplify Listing 43.3, ComputeLoan.jsp. You can create an object of the Loan class and use its monthlyPayment() and totalPayment() methods to compute the monthly payment and total payment.

Listing 43.4 ComputeLoan1.jsp

```
<%@ page import = "chapter43.Loan" %>
<% double loanAmount = Double.parseDouble(request.getParameter("loanAmount"));
double annualInterestRate = Double.parseDouble(request.getParameter("annualInterestRate"));
int numberOfYears = Integer.parseInt(request.getParameter("numberOfYears"));
Loan loan = new Loan(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount);
%>
Loan Amount: <%= loanAmount %><br />
Annual Interest Rate: <%= annualInterestRate %><br />
Number of Years: <%= numberOfYears %><br />
Monthly Payment: <%= loan.getMonthlyPayment() %><br />
Total Payment: <%= loan.getTotalPayment() %><br />
```

This JSP uses the Loan class. You need to create the class in the liangweb project in package chapter43 as follows:

```
package chapter43;

public class Loan {
    // Same as lines 2-69 in Listing 10.2, Loan.java, so omitted
}
```

The directive `<%@ page import ="chapter43.Loan" %>` imports the Loan class in line 7. Line 14 creates an object of Loan for the given loan amount, annual interest rate, and number of years. Lines 20-21 invokes the Loan object’s monthlyPayment() and totalPayment() methods to display monthly payment and total payment.

43.7 Using JavaBeans in JSP
Normally you create an instance of a class in a program and use it in that program. This method is for sharing the class, not the object. JSP allows you to share the object of a class among different pages. To enable an object to be shared, its class must be a JavaBeans component. Recall that this entails the following three features:

- The class is public.
- The class has a public constructor with no arguments.
- The class is serializable. (This requirement is not necessary in JSP.)

To create an instance for a JavaBeans component, use the following syntax:

```jsp
<jsp:useBean id = "objectName" scope = "scopeAttribute"
class = "ClassName" />
```

This syntax is roughly equivalent to

```jsp
<%= ClassName objectName = new ClassName() %>
```

except that the `scope` attribute is missing. The `scope` attribute specifies the scope of the object and the object is not recreated if it is already within the scope. Listed below are four possible values for the `scope` attribute:

- `application` specifies that the object is bound to the application. The object can be shared by all sessions of the application.
- `session` specifies that the object is bound to the client’s session. Recall that a client’s session is automatically created between a Web browser and a Web server. When a client from the same browser accesses two servlets or two JSP pages on the same server, the session is the same.
- `page` is the default scope, which specifies that the object is bound to the page.
- `request` specifies that the object is bound to the client’s request.

When `<jsp:useBean id="objectName" scope="scopeAttribute"
class="ClassName" />` is processed, the JSP engine first searches for an object of the class with the same id and scope. If found, the preexisting bean is used; otherwise, a new bean is created.

Here is another syntax for creating a bean:

```jsp
<jsp:useBean id = "objectName" scope = "scopeAttribute"
class = "ClassName" >
    statements
</jsp:useBean>
```

The statements are executed when the bean is created. If a bean with the same ID and class name already exists in the scope, the statements are not executed.

Listing 43.5 creates a JavaBeans component named Count and uses it to count the number of visits to a JSP page, as shown in Figure 43.7.
Figure 43.7  
The number of visits to the page is increased when the page is visited.

Listing 43.5 Count.java

```java
package chapter43;

public class Count {
    private int count = 0;

    /** Return count property */
    public int getCount() {
        return count;
    }

    /** Increase count */
    public void increaseCount() {
        count++;
    }
}
```

The JSP page named TestBeanScope.jsp is created in Listing 43.6.

Listing 43.6 TestBeanScope.jsp

```html
<%@ page import = "chapter43.Count" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "count" scope = "application" class = "chapter43.Count">
</jsp:useBean>

<html>
<head>
<title>TestBeanScope</title>
</head>
<body>
<h3>Testing Bean Scope in JSP (Application)</h3>
<% count.increaseCount(); %>
You are visitor number <%= count.getCount() %><br/>
From host: <%= request.getRemoteHost() %>
and session: <%= session.getId() %>
</body>
</html>
```
The `scope` attribute specifies the scope of the bean. `scope="application"` (line 3) specifies that the bean is alive in the JSP engine and available for all clients to access. The bean can be shared by any client with the directive `<jsp:useBean id="count" scope="application" class="Count">` (lines 3-4). Every client accessing TestBeanScope.jsp causes the count to increase by 1. The first client causes `count` object to be created, and subsequent access to TestBeanScope uses the same object.

If `scope="application"` is changed to `scope="session"`, the scope of the bean is limited to the session from the same browser. The count will increase only if the page is requested from the same browser. If `scope="application"` is changed to `scope="page"`, the scope of the bean is limited to the page, and any other page cannot access this bean. The page will always display count 1. If `scope="application"` is changed to `scope="request"`, the scope of the bean is limited to the client’s request, and any other request on the page will always display count 1.

If the page is destroyed, the count restarts from 0. You can fix the problem by storing the count in a random access file or in a database table. Assume that you store the count in the Count table in a database. The `Count` class can be modified in Listing 43.7.

**Listing 43.7 Count.java (Revised Version)**

```java
package chapter43;
import java.sql.*;
public class Count {
    private int count = 0;
    private Statement statement = null;
    public Count() {
        initializeJdbc();
    }
    /** Return count property */
    public int getCount() {
        try {
            ResultSet rset = statement.executeQuery
                ("select countValue from Count");
            rset.next();
            count = rset.getInt(1);
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
        return count;
    }
    /** Increase count */
```
```java
    public void increaseCount() {
        count++; // Increase the count
        try {
            statement.executeUpdate("update Count set countValue = " + count);
        }
        catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }

    /** Initialize database connection */
    public void initializeJdbc() {
        try {
            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
            // Connect to the sample database
            Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");
            statement = connection.createStatement();
        }
        catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
```

43.8 Getting and Setting Properties
By convention, a JavaBeans component provides the get and set methods for reading and modifying its private properties. You can get the property in JSP using the syntax shown below:

```jsp
    <jsp:getProperty name="beanId" property="sample" />
```

This is roughly equivalent to

```jsp
    <%= beanId.getSample() %>
```

You can set the property in JSP using the following syntax:

```jsp
    <jsp:setProperty name="beanId" property="sample" value="test1" />
```

This is equivalent to

```jsp
    <%= beanId.setSample("test1"); %>
```

43.9 Associating Properties with Input Parameters
Often properties are associated with input parameters. Suppose you want to get the value of the input parameter named score and set it to the JavaBeans property named score. You could write the following code:

```jsp
    <% double score = Double.parseDouble(request.getParameter("score")); %>
    <jsp:setProperty name="beanId" property="score" value="\"%={score}%\"" />
```

This is cumbersome. JSP provides a convenient syntax that can be used to simplify it:
Instead of using the value attribute, you use the param attribute to name an input parameter. The value of this parameter is set to the property.

NOTE: Simple type conversion is performed automatically when a bean property is associated with an input parameter. A string input parameter is converted to an appropriate primitive data type or a wrapper class for a primitive type. For example, if the bean property is of the int type, the value of the parameter will be converted to the int type. If the bean property is of the Integer type, the value of the parameter will be converted to the Integer type.

Often the bean property and the parameter have the same name. You can use the following convenient statement to associate all the bean properties in beanId with the parameters that match the property names:

```jsp:setProperty name = "beanId" property = "*" />
```

43.9.1 Example: Computing Loan Payments Using JavaBeans

This example uses JavaBeans to simplify Listing 43.4, ComputeLoan1.jsp, by associating the bean properties with the input parameters. The new ComputeLoan2.jsp is given in Listing 43.8.

**Listing 43.8 ComputeLoan2.jsp**

```html
<!-- ComputeLoan2.jsp -->
<html>
<head>
<title>ComputeLoan Using the Loan Class</title>
</head>
<body>
<%@ page import = "chapter43.Loan" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "loan" class = "chapter43.Loan"
    scope = "page" ></jsp:useBean>
<jsp:setProperty name = "loan" property = "*" />
Loan Amount: <%= loan.getLoanAmount() %><br />
Annual Interest Rate: <%= loan.getAnnualInterestRate() %><br />
Number of Years: <%= loan.getNumberofYears() %><br />
Monthly Payment: <%= loan.monthlyPayment() %><br />
Total Payment: <%= loan.totalPayment() %><br />
</body>
</html>
```

Lines 8–9:

```jsp:useBean id = "loan" class = "chapter43.Loan"
scope = "page" ></jsp:useBean>```
creates a bean named loan for the Loan class. Line 10

\[<\text{jsp:setProperty name=\"loan\" property=\"*\"/}>\]

associates the bean properties loanAmount, annualInterestRate, and numberOfYears with the input parameter values and performs type conversion automatically.

Lines 11–13 use the accessor methods of the loan bean to get the loan amount, annual interest rate, and number of years.

This program acts the same as in Listings 43.3 and 43.4, ComputeLoan.jsp and ComputeLoan1.jsp, but the coding is much simplified.

43.9.2 Example: Computing Factorials Using JavaBeans

This example creates a JavaBeans component named FactorialBean and uses it to compute the factorial of an input number in a JSP page named FactorialBean.jsp, as shown in Figure 43.8.

![FactorialBean](image)

**Figure 43.8**
The factorial of an input integer is computed using a method in FactorialBean.

Create a JavaBeans component named FactorialBean.java (Listing 43.9). Create FactorialBean.jsp (Listing 43.10).

**Listing 43.9 FactorialBean.java**

```
<Side Remark line 1: package statement>
<Side Remark line 7: get>
<Side Remark line 12: set>

package chapter43;

public class FactorialBean {
    private int number;

    /** Return number property */
    public int getNumber() {
        return number;
    }

    /** Set number property */
    public void setNumber(int newValue) {
        number = newValue;
    }
}
```
```java
/** Obtain factorial */
public long getFactorial() {
    long factorial = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= number; i++)
        factorial *= i;
    return factorial;
}
```

Listing 43.10 FactorialBean.jsp

<!-- FactorialBean.jsp -->
```html
<%@ page import = "chapter43.FactorialBean" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "factorialBeanId" class = "chapter43.FactorialBean" scope = "page"/>
</jsp:useBean>
<jsp:setProperty name = "factorialBeanId" property = "*"/>
<html>
<head>
    <title>FactorialBean</title>
</head>
<body>
    <h3>Compute Factorial Using a Bean</h3>
    <form method = "post">
        Enter new value: <input name = "number" />
        <input type = "submit" name = "Submit"
              value = "Compute Factorial" />
        <input type = "reset" value = "Reset" />
        Factorial of
        <%= format.format(factorialBeanId.getFactorial()) %>
    </form>
</body>
</html>
```

The `jsp:useBean` tag (lines 3-4) creates a bean `factorialBeanId` of the `FactorialBean` class. Line 5 `<jsp:setProperty name="factorialBeanId" property="*" />` associates all the bean properties with the input parameters that have the same name. In this case, the bean property `number` is associated with the input parameter `number`. When you click the `Compute Factorial` button, JSP automatically converts the input value for `number` from string into `int` and sets it to `factorialBean` before other statements are executed.

Lines 21-22 `<jsp:getProperty name="factorialBeanId" property="number" />` tag (line 21) is equivalent to `<%= factorialBeanId.getNumber() %>`.
method `factorialBeanId.getFactorial()` (line 25) returns the factorial for the number in `factorialBeanId`.

**DESIGN GUIDE**

*Side Remark: separating Java code from HTML*
Mixing a lot of Java code with HTML in a JSP page makes the code difficult to read and to maintain. You should move the Java code to a .java file as much as you can.

***End DESIGN GUIDE***

Following the preceding design guide, you may improve the preceding example by moving the Java code in lines 23–25 to the `FactorialBean` class. The new `FactorialBean.java` and `FactorialBean.jsp` are given in Listings 43.11 and 43.12.

Listing 43.11 NewFactorialBean.java

```java
package chapter43;
import java.text.*;

public class NewFactorialBean {
    private int number;

    /** Return number property */
    public int getNumber() {
        return number;
    }

    /** Set number property */
    public void setNumber(int newValue) {
        number = newValue;
    }

    /** Obtain factorial */
    public long getFactorial() {
        long factorial = 1;
        for (int i = 1; i <= number; i++)
            factorial *= i;
        return factorial;
    }

    /** Format number */
    public static String format(long number) {
        NumberFormat format = NumberFormat.getNumberInstance();
        return format.format(number);
    }
}
```

Listing 43.12 NewFactorialBean.jsp

```jsp
<Side Remark line 2: import>
<Side Remark line 3: create bean>
<Side Remark line 15: form>
<Side Remark line 21: get property>
```
There is a problem in this page. The program cannot display large factorials. For example, if you entered value 21, the program would display an incorrect factorial. To fix this problem, all you need to do is to revise the NewFactorialBean class using BigInteger to computing factorials. See Exercise 43.18.

43.9.3 Example: Displaying International Time

Listing 42.5, TimeForm.java, gives a Java servlet that uses the doGet method to generate an HTML form for the user to specify a locale and time zone (Figure 42.18a) and uses the doPost method to display the current time for the specified time zone in the specified locale (Figure 42.18b). This section rewrites the servlet using JSP. You have to create two JSP pages, one for displaying the form and the other for displaying the current time.

In the TimeForm.java servlet, arrays allLocale and allTimeZone are the data fields. The doGet and doPost methods both use the arrays. Since the available locales and time zones are used in both pages, it is better to create an object that contains all available locales and time zones. This object can be shared by both pages.

Let us create a JavaBeans component named TimeBean.java (Listing 43.13). This class obtains all the available locales in an array in line 7 and all time zones in an array in line 8. The bean properties localeIndex and timeZoneIndex (lines 9-10) are defined to refer to an element in the arrays. The currentTimeString() method (lines 42-52) returns a string for the current time with the specified locale and time zone.

Listing 43.13 TimeBean.java
```java
package chapter43;
import java.util.*;
import java.text.*;
public class TimeBean {
    private Locale[] allLocale = Locale.getAvailableLocales();
    private String[] allTimeZone = TimeZone.getAvailableIDs();
    private int localeIndex;
    private int timeZoneIndex;
    public TimeBean() {
        Arrays.sort(allTimeZone);
    }
    public Locale[] getAllLocale() {
        return allLocale;
    }
    public String[] getAllTimeZone() {
        return allTimeZone;
    }
    public int getLocaleIndex() {
        return localeIndex;
    }
    public int getTimeZoneIndex() {
        return timeZoneIndex;
    }
    public void setLocaleIndex(int index) {
        localeIndex = index;
    }
    public void setTimeZoneIndex(int index) {
        timeZoneIndex = index;
    }
    /** Return a string for the current time
     * with the specified locale and time zone */
    public String currentTimeString(int localeIndex, int timeZoneIndex) {
        Calendar calendar = new GregorianCalendar(allLocale[localeIndex]);
        TimeZone timeZone = TimeZone.getTimeZone(allTimeZone[timeZoneIndex]);
        DateFormat dateFormat = DateFormat.getDateTimeInstance(DateFormat.FULL, DateFormat.FULL, allLocale[localeIndex]);
        dateFormat.setTimeZone(timeZone);
    }
```
Create DisplayTimeForm.jsp (Listing 43.14). This page displays a form just like the one shown in Figure 42.18a. Line 2 imports the TimeBean class. A bean is created in lines 3–5 and is used in lines 17, 19, 24, and 26 to return all locales and time zones. The scope of the bean is application (line 4), so the bean can be shared by all sessions of the application.

Listing 43.14 DisplayTimeForm.jsp

```jsp
<%@ page import = "chapter43.TimeBean" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "timeBeanId" class = "chapter43.TimeBean" scope = "application" >
</jsp:useBean>
<html>
<head><title>Display Time Form</title></head>
<body>
<h3>Choose locale and time zone</h3>
<form method = "post" action = "DisplayTime.jsp">
Locale <select size = "1" name = "localeIndex">
  <% for (int i = 0; i < timeBeanId.getAllLocale().length; i++) {%>
    <option value = "<%= i %>">
      <%= timeBeanId.getAllLocale()[i] %>
    </option>
  <%}%>
</select><br />
Time Zone <select size = "1" name = "timeZoneIndex">
  <% for (int i = 0; i < timeBeanId.getAllTimeZone().length; i++) {%>
    <option value = "<%= i %>">
      <%= timeBeanId.getAllTimeZone()[i] %>
    </option>
  <%}%>
</select><br />
<input type = "submit" name = "Submit" value = "Get Time" />
<input type = "reset" value = "Reset" />
</form>
</body>
</html>
```
Create DisplayTime.jsp (Listing 43.15). This page is invoked from DisplayTimeForm.jsp to display the time with the specified locale and time zone, just as in Figure 42.18b.

Listing 43.15 DisplayTime.jsp

```jsp
<%-- DisplayTime.jsp -->
<%@page pageEncoding = "GB18030"%>
<%@ page import = "chapter43.TimeBean"%>
<jsp:useBean id = "timeBeanId" class = "chapter43.TimeBean" scope = "application" >
</jsp:useBean>
<jsp:setProperty name = "timeBeanId" property = "*"/>

<html>
<head>
<title>Display Time</title>
</head>
<body>
<h3>Choose locale and time zone</h3>
Current time is
<%=
    timeBeanId.currentTimeString(timeBeanId.getLocaleIndex(),
    timeBeanId.getTimeZoneIndex()) %>
</body>
</html>
```

Line 2 sets the character encoding for the page to GB18030 for displaying international characters. By default, it is UTF-8.

Line 5 imports chapter43.TimeBean and creates a bean using the same id as in the preceding page. Since the object is already created in the preceding page, the timeBeanId in this page (lines 4–6) and in the preceding page point to the same object.

### 43.9.4 Example: Registering Students

Listing 42.11, RegistrationWithHttpSession.java, gives a Java servlet that obtains student information from an HTML form (see Figure 42.21) and displays the information for user confirmation (see Figure 42.22). Once the user confirms it, the servlet stores the data into the database. This section rewrites the servlet using JSP. You will create two JSP pages, one named GetRegistrationData.jsp for displaying the data for user confirmation and the other named StoreData.jsp for storing the data into the database.

Since every session needs to connect to the same database, you should declare a class for connecting to the database and for storing a student to the database. This class named StoreData is given in Listing 43.16. The initializeJdbc method (lines 15–31) connects to the database and
creates a prepared statement for storing a record to the Address table. The `storeStudent` method (lines 34–45) executes the prepared statement to store a student address. The `Address` class is created in Listing 42.12.

Listing 43.16 StoreData.java

```
package chapter43;
import java.sql.*;
import chapter42.Address;

public class StoreData {  
    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;
    
    public StoreData() {  
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Initialize database connection */
    private void initializeJdbc() {  
        try {  
            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");

            // Connect to the sample database
            Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

            // Create a Statement
            pstmt = connection.prepareStatement("insert into Address " +
                    "(lastName, firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city, "+
                    "state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
        }
        catch (Exception ex) {  
            System.out.println(ex);
        }
    }

    /** Store a student record to the database */
    public void storeStudent(Address address) throws SQLException {  
        pstmt.setString(1, address.getLastName());
        pstmt.setString(2, address.getFirstName());
        pstmt.setString(3, address.getMi());
        pstmt.setString(4, address.getTelephone());
        pstmt.setString(5, address.getEmail());
        pstmt.setString(6, address.getStreet());
        pstmt.setString(7, address.getCity());
        pstmt.setString(8, address.getState());
        pstmt.setString(9, address.getZip());
        pstmt.executeUpdate();
    }
}
```
The HTML file that displays the form is identical to Registration.html in Listing 42.8 except that the action is replaced by GetRegistrationData.jsp.

GetRegistrationData.jsp, which obtains the data from the form, is shown in Listing 43.17. A bean is created in lines 3–4. Line 5 obtains the property values from the form. This is a shorthand notation. Note that the parameter names and the property names must be the same to use this notation.

Listing 43.17 GetRegistrationData.jsp

```jsp
<%@ page import = "chapter42.Address" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "addressId" class = "chapter42.Address" scope = "session">
</jsp:useBean>

<html>
<body>
<h1>Registration Using JSP</h1>

<p>
You entered the following data
</p>
<p>Last name: <%= addressId.getLastName() %></p>
<p>First name: <%= addressId.getFirstName() %></p>
<p>MI: <%= addressId.getMi() %></p>
<p>Telephone: <%= addressId.getTelephone() %></p>
<p>Email: <%= addressId.getEmail() %></p>
<p>Address: <%= addressId.getStreet() %></p>
<p>City: <%= addressId.getCity() %></p>
<p>State: <%= addressId.getState() %></p>
<p>Zip: <%= addressId.getZip() %></p>

<!-- Set the action for processing the answers -->
<form method = "post" action = "StoreStudent.jsp">
  <input type = "submit" value = "Confirm" />
</form>
</body>
</html>
```

GetRegistrationData.jsp invokes StoreStudent.jsp (line 31) when the user clicks the Confirm button. In Listing 43.18, the same addressId is shared with the preceding page within the scope of the same session in lines 3–4. A bean for StoreData is created in lines 5–6 with the scope of application.
Listing 43.18 StoreStudent.jsp

```jsp
<!-- StoreStudent.jsp -->
<%@ page import = "chapter42.Address" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "addressId" class = "chapter42.Address"
    scope = "session"></jsp:useBean>
<jsp:useBean id = "storeDataId" class = "chapter43.StoreData"
    scope = "application"></jsp:useBean>

<html>
<body>
<%
    storeDataId.storeStudent(addressId);
    out.println(addressId.getFirstName() + " "+
        addressId.getLastName() +
        " is now registered in the database");
    out.close(); // Close stream
%
</body>
</html>

NOTE

The scope for addressId is session, but the scope for
storeDataId is application. Why? GetRegistrationData.jsp
obtains student information, and StoreData.jsp stores the
information in the same session. So the session scope is
appropriate for addressId. All the sessions access the
same database and use the same prepared statement to
store data. With the application scope for storeDataId,
the bean for StoreData needs to be created just once.

NOTE

The storeStudent method in line 11 may throw a
java.sql.SQLException. In JSP, you can omit the try-block
for checked exceptions. In case of an exception, JSP
displays an error page.

TIP

Using beans is an effective way to develop JSP. You
should put Java code into a bean as much as you can. The
bean not only simplifies JSP programming, but also makes
code reusable. The bean can also be used to implement
persistent sessions.

43.10 Forwarding Requests from JavaServer Pages
Web applications developed using JSP generally consist of many pages linked together. JSP provides a forwarding tag in the following syntax that can be used to forward a page to another page:

```jsp
<jsp:forward page = "destination" />
```

### 43.11 Case Study: Browsing Database Tables

This section presents a very useful JSP application for browsing tables. When you start the application, the first page prompts the user to enter the JDBC driver, URL, username, and password for a database, as shown in Figure 43.9. After you log in to the database, you can select a table to browse, as shown in Figure 43.10. Clicking the Browse Table Content button displays the table content, as shown in Figure 43.11.

**Figure 43.9**
To access a database, you need to provide the JDBC driver, URL, username, and password.

**Figure 43.10**
You can select a table to browse from this page.

**Figure 43.11**
The contents of the selected table are displayed.

Create a JavaBeans component named `DBBean.java` (Listing 43.19).
Listing 43.19 DBBean.java

```java
package chapter43;

import java.sql.*;

public class DBBean {
    private Connection connection = null;
    private String username;
    private String password;
    private String driver;
    private String url;

    /** Initialize database connection */
    public void initializeJdbc() {
        try {
            System.out.println("Driver is "+ driver);
            Class.forName(driver);

            // Connect to the sample database
            connection = DriverManager.getConnection(url, username, password);
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }

    /** Get tables in the database */
    public String[] getTables() {
        String[] tables = null;
        try {
            DatabaseMetaData dbMetaData = connection.getMetaData();
            ResultSet rsTables = dbMetaData.getTables(null, null, null, new String[] {"TABLE"});

            int size = 0;
            while (rsTables.next()) size++;
            rsTables = dbMetaData.getTables(null, null, null, new String[] {"TABLE"});

            tables = new String[size];
            int i = 0;
            while (rsTables.next())
                tables[i++] = rsTables.getString("TABLE_NAME");
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            // Handle exception
        }
    }
}
```
ex.printStackTrace();

return tables;

/** Return connection property */
public Connection getConnection() {
  return connection;
}

public void setUsername(String newUsername) {
  username = newUsername;
}

public String getUsername() {
  return username;
}

public void setPassword(String newPassword) {
  password = newPassword;
}

public String getPassword() {
  return password;
}

public void setDriver(String newDriver) {
  driver = newDriver;
}

public String getDriver() {
  return driver;
}

public void setUrl(String newUrl) {
  url = newUrl;
}

public String getUrl() {
  return url;
}

Create an HTML file named DBLogin.html (Listing 43.20) that prompts the user to enter database information and three JSP files named DBLoginInitialization.jsp (Listing 43.21), Table.jsp (Listing 43.22), and BrowseTable.jsp (Listing 43.23) to process and obtain database information.

Listing 43.20 DBLogin.html

<!-- DBLogin.html -->
<html>
<head>
  <title>DB Login Form</title>
</head>
<body>
  <form action="/DBLoginInitialization.jsp" method="post">
    <label>Username:</label>
    <input type="text" name="username" value=""></input>
    <br>
    <label>Password:</label>
    <input type="password" name="password" value=""></input>
    <br>
    <label>Driver:</label>
    <select name="driver">
      <option value="MySQL">MySQL</option>
      <option value="Oracle">Oracle</option>
    </select>
    <br>
    <input type="submit" value="Submit"></input>
  </form>
</body>
</html>
DBLoginInitialization.jsp

<!-- DBLoginInitialization.jsp -->
<%@ page import = "chapter43.DBBean" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "dBBeanId" scope = "session"
class = "chapter43.DBBean">
</jsp:useBean>
<jsp:setProperty name = "dBBeanId" property = "*" />
<html>
<head>
<title>DBLoginInitialization</title>
</head>
<body>

<!-- Connect to the database -->
<%@ dBBeanId.initializeJdbc(); %>

<% if (dBBeanId.getConnection() == null) { %>
Error: Login failed. Try again.
<% } else {%>
<jsp:forward page = "Table.jsp" />
<% } %>
</body>
</html>
<!-- Table.jsp -->
<%@ page import = "chapter43.DBBean" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "dBBeanId" scope = "session"
class = "chapter43.DBBean">
</jsp:useBean>
<html>
<head>
<title>Table</title>
</head>
<body>
<% String[] tables = dBBeanId.getTables();
if (tables == null) {
No tables
}%
else {
<form method = "post" action = "BrowseTable.jsp">
Select a table
<select name = "tablename" size = "1">
<% for (int i = 0; i < tables.length; i++) {
<option>
<% tables[i] %></option>
<%
}%
</select>
<br />
<input type = "submit" name = "Submit" value = "Browse Table Content">
<input type = "reset" value = "Reset" >
</form>
</body>
</html>

Listing 43.23 BrowseTable.jsp

<% Side Remark line 2: import >
<% Side Remark line 3: get bean >
<% Side Remark line 13: get table name >
<% Side Remark line 15: table column >
<% Side Remark line 21: column names >
<% Side Remark line 28: table content >
<% Side Remark line 35: display content >

<!-- BrowseTable.jsp -->
<%@ page import = "chapter43.DBBean" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "dBBeanId" scope = "session"
class = "chapter43.DBBean">
</jsp:useBean>
<%@ page import = "java.sql.*" %>
<html>
<head>
<title>BrowseTable</title>
</head>
<body>
<% String tableName = request.getParameter("tablename");

ResultSet rsColumns = dBBeanId.getConnection().getMetaData().
getColumns(null, null, tableName, null);

30
You start the application from DBLogin.html. This page prompts the user to enter a JDBC driver, URL, username, and password to log in to a database. A list of accessible drivers and URLs is provided in the selection list. You must make sure that these database drivers are added into the Libraries node in the project.

When you click the Login button, DBLoginInitialization.jsp is invoked. When this page is processed for the first time, an instance of DBBean named dBBeanId is created. The input parameters driver, url, username, and password are passed to the bean properties. The initializeJdbc method loads the driver and establishes a connection to the database. If login fails, the connection property is null. In this case, an error message is displayed. If login succeeds, control is forwarded to Table.jsp.

Table.jsp shares dBBeanId with DBLoginInitialization.jsp in the same session, so it can access connection through dBBeanId and obtain tables in the database using the database metadata. The table names are displayed in a selection box in a form. When the user selects a table name and clicks the Browse Table Content button, BrowseTable.jsp is processed.

BrowseTable.jsp shares dBBeanId with Table.jsp and DBLoginInitialization.jsp in the same session. It retrieves the table contents for the selected table from Table.jsp.

**JSP Scripting Constructs Syntax**

- `<%= Java expression %>`: The expression is evaluated and inserted into the page.
- `<% Java statement %>` Java statements inserted in the `jspService` method.
- `<%! Java declaration %>` Defines data fields and methods.
- `<%-- JSP comment %>` The JSP comments do not appear in the resultant HTML file.
- `<%@ directive attribute="value" %> The JSP directives give the JSP engine information about the JSP page. For example, `<%@ page import="java.util.*, java.text.*" %>` imports `java.util.*` and `java.text.*`.
- `<jsp:useBean id="objectName" scope="scopeAttribute" class="ClassName" />` Creates a bean if new. If a bean is already created, associates the id with the bean in the same scope.
- `<jsp:useBean id="objectName" scope="scopeAttribute" class="ClassName" > statements </jsp:useBean>` The statements are executed when the bean is created. If a bean with the same id and class name already exists, the statements are not executed.
- `<jsp:getProperty name="beanId" property="sample" />` Gets the property value from the bean, which is the same as `<%= beanId.getSample() %>`.
- `<jsp:setProperty name="beanId" property="sample" value="test1" />` Sets the property value for the bean, which is the same as `<%= beanId.setSample("test1"); %>`.
- `<jsp:setProperty name="beanId" property="score" param="score" />` Sets the property with an input parameter.
- `<jsp:setProperty name="beanId" property="*" />` Associates and sets all the bean properties in `beanId` with the input parameters that match the property names.
- `<jsp:forward page="destination" />` Forwards this page to a new page.

### JSP Predefined Variables
- `application` represents the ServletContext object for storing persistent data for all clients.
- `config` represents the ServletConfig object for the page.
- `out` represents the character output stream, which is an instance of PrintWriter, obtained from `response.getWriter()`.
- `page` is alternative to this.
- `request` represents the client’s request, which is an instance of HttpServletRequest in the servlet’s service method.
- `response` represents the client’s response, which is an instance of HttpServletResponse in the servlet’s service method.
- `session` represents the HttpSession object associated with the request, obtained from `request.getSession()`.

### Chapter Summary
1. A JavaServer page is like a regular HTML page with special tags, known as **JSP tags**, which enable the Web server to generate dynamic content. You can create a Web page with static HTML and enclose the code for generating dynamic content in the JSP tags.
2. A JSP page must be stored in a file with a `.jsp` extension. The Web server translates the `.jsp` file into a Java servlet, compiles the servlet, and executes it. The result of the execution is sent to the browser for display.
3. A JSP page is translated into a servlet when the page is requested for the first time. It is not retranslated if the page is not modified. To ensure that the first-time real user does not
encounter a delay, JSP developers should test the page after it is installed.

4. There are three main types of JSP constructs: scripting constructs, directives, and actions. Scripting elements enable you to specify Java code that will become part of the resultant servlet. Directives enable you to control the overall structure of the resultant servlet. Actions enable you to control the behaviors of the JSP engine.

5. Three types of scripting constructs can be used to insert Java code into the resultant servlet: expressions, scriptlets, and declarations.

6. The scope attribute (application, session, page, and request) specifies the scope of a JavaBeans object. Application specifies that the object be bound to the application. Session specifies that the object be bound to the client’s session. Page is the default scope, which specifies that the object be bound to the page. Request specifies that the object be bound to the client’s request.

7. Web applications developed using JSP generally consist of many pages linked together. JSP provides a forwarding tag in the following syntax that can be used to forward a page to another page: `<jsp:forward page="destination" />`

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at [www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html](http://www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html).

Review Questions

Sections 43.1-43.3

43.1 What is the file-name extension of a JavaServer page? How is a JSP page processed?

43.2 Can you create a .war that contains JSP in NetBeans? Where should the .war be placed in a Java application server?

43.3 You can display an HTML file (e.g., c:\test.html) by typing the complete file name in the Address field of Internet Explorer. Why can’t you display a JSP file by simply typing the file name?

Section 43.4

43.4 What are a JSP expression, a JSP scriptlet, and a JSP declaration? How do you write these constructs in JSP?

43.5 Find three syntax errors in the following JSP code:

```jsp
<%! int k %>
<% for (int j = 1; j <= 9; j++) %>
<%= j %>
<br />
```

43.6 In the following JSP, which variables are instance variables and which are local variables when it is translated into in the servlet?

```jsp
<%! int k; %>
<%! int i; %>
<% for (int j = 1; j <= 9; j++) k += 1;%>
<%= k<br /> %= i<br /> %= getTime()<br />
<% private long getTime() {
    long time = System.currentTimeMillis();
    return time;
}
```

Section 43.5

43.7 Describe the predefined variables in JSP.
43.8 What is wrong if the JSP scriptlet `<%` in line 7 in ComputeLoan.jsp (Listing 43.3) is replaced by JSP declaration `<%!`?
43.9 Can you use predefined variables (e.g., request, response, out) in JSP declarations?

Section 43.6
43.10 Describe the JSP directives and attributes for the `page` directive.
43.11 If a class does not have a package statement, can you import it?
43.12 If you use a custom class from a JSP, where should the class be placed?

Section 43.7
43.13 You can create an object in a JSP scriptlet. What is the difference between an object created using the `new` operator and a bean created using the `<jsp:useBean ... >` tag?
43.14 What is the `scope` attribute for? Describe four scope attributes.
43.15 Describe how a `<jsp:useBean ... >` statement is processed by the JSP engine.

Sections 43.8-43.10
43.16 How do you associate bean properties with input parameters?
43.17 How do you write a statement to forward requests to another JSP page?

Programming Exercises

NOTE: Solutions to even-numbered exercises in this chapter are in exercise\jspexercise from evennumberedexercise.zip, which can be downloaded from the Companion Website.

Section 43.4
43.1 (Factorial table in JSP) Rewrite Exercise 42.1 using JSP.
43.2 (Multiplication table in JSP) Rewrite Exercise 42.2 using JSP.

Section 43.5
43.3* (Obtain parameters in JSP) Rewrite the servlet in Listing 42.4, GetParameters.java, using JSP. Create an HTML form that is identical to Student_Registration_Form.html in Listing 42.3 except that the action is replaced by Exercise40_3.jsp for obtaining parameter values.

Section 43.6
43.4 (Calculate tax in JSP) Rewrite Exercise 42.4 using JSP. You need to import ComputeTax in the JSP.
43.5* (Find scores from text files) Rewrite Exercise 42.6 using servlets.
43.6** (Find scores from database tables) Rewrite Exercise 42.7 using servlets.

Section 43.7
43.7** (Change the password) Rewrite Exercise 42.8 using servlets.

Comprehensive
43.8*
(Store cookies in JSP) Rewrite Exercise 42.10 using JSP. Use `response.addCookie(Cookie)` to add a cookie.

43.9*
(Retrieve cookies in JSP) Rewrite Exercise 42.11 using JSP. Use `Cookie[] cookies = request.get_cookies()` to get all cookies.

43.10
(Draw images) Rewrite Listing 42.13, ImageContent.java, using JSP.

43.11***
(Syntax highlighting) Rewrite Exercise 42.12 using JSP.

43.12**
(Opinion poll) Rewrite Exercise 42.13 using JSP.

43.13***
(Multiple-question opinion poll) The Poll table in Exercise 42.13 contains only one question. Suppose you have a Poll table that contains multiple questions. Write a JSP that reads all the questions from the table and display them in a form, as shown in Figure 43.12a. When the user clicks the Submit button, another JSP page is invoked. This page updates the Yes or No counts for each question and displays the current Yes and No counts for each question in the Poll table, as shown in Figure 43.12b. Note that the table may contain many questions. The questions in the figure are just examples. Sort the questions in alphabetical order.

![Figure 43.12](image1.png)

(a) Are you a CS major?  Yes  No
Do you live in Savannah?  Yes  No

(b) Are you a CS major?  1 Yes  1 No
Do you live in Savannah?  2 Yes  3 No

43.14**
(Addition quiz) Write a JSP program that generates addition quizzes randomly, as shown in Figure 43.13a. After the user answers all questions, the JSP displays the result, as shown in Figure 43.13b.
43.15**
(Subtraction quiz) Write a JSP program that generates subtraction quizzes randomly, as shown in Figure 43.14a. The first number must always be greater than or equal to the second number. After the user answers all questions, the JSP displays the result, as shown in Figure 43.14b.

43.16**
(Guess birthday) Listing 3.3, GuessBirthDay.java, gives a program for guessing a birthday. Write a JSP program that displays five sets of numbers, as shown in Figure 43.15a. After the user checks the appropriate boxes and clicks the Find Date button, the program displays the date, as shown in Figure 43.15b.
(Guess capitals) Write a JSP that prompts the user to enter a capital for a state, as shown in Figure 43.16a. Upon receiving the user input, the program reports whether the answer is correct, as shown in Figure 43.16b. You can click the Next button to display another question. You can use a two-dimensional array to store the states and capitals, as proposed in Exercise 9.22. Create a list from the array and apply the shuffle method to reorder the list so the questions will appear in random order.

![Figure 43.16](image)  
(a) The program displays a question. (b) The program displays the answer to the question.

43.18*  
(Large factorial) Rewrite Listing 43.11 to handle large factorial. Use the BigInteger class introduced in §14.12.

43.19**  
(Access and update a Staff table) Write a JSP for Exercise 33.1, as shown in Figure 43.17.

![Figure 43.17](image)  
The JSP page lets you view, insert, and update staff information.

43.20*  
(Guess number) Write a JSP page that generates a random number between 1 and 1000 and let the user enter a guess. When the user enters a guess, the program should tell the user whether the guess is correct, too high, or too low.
CHAPTER 44

JavaServer Faces

Objectives

- To explain what JSF is (§44.1).
- To create a JSF page using NetBeans (§44.2).
- To create a JSF managed bean (§44.2).
- To use JSF expressions in a facelet (§44.2).
- To use JSF GUI components (§44.3).
- To obtain and process input from a form (§44.4).
- To track sessions in application, session, view, and request scope (§44.5).
- To validate input using the JSF validators (§44.6).
- To bind database with facelets (§44.7).
44.1 Introduction

The use of servlets, introduced in Chapter 42, is the foundation of the Java Web technology. It is a primitive way to write server-side applications. JSP, introduced in Chapter 43, provides a scripting capability and allows you to embed Java code in XHTML. It is easier to develop Web programs using JSP than servlets. However, JSP has some problems. First, it can be very messy, because it mixes Java code with HTML. Second, using JSP to develop user interface is tedious. JavaServer Faces (JSF) comes to rescue. JSF enables you to completely separate Java code from HTML. You can quickly build web applications by assembling reusable UI components in a page, connecting these components to Java programs, and wiring client-generated events to server-side event handlers. The application developed using JSF is easy to debug and maintain.

NOTE: This chapter introduces JSF 2, the latest standard for JavaServer Faces. You need to know XHTML (eXtensible HyperText Markup Language) and CSS (Cascading Style Sheet) to start this chapter. For information on XHTML and CSS, see Supplements Part V.A and Part V.B on the companion Website.

44.2 Getting Started with JSF

A simple example will illustrate the basics of developing JSF projects using NetBeans. The example is to display the date and time on the server, as shown in Figure 44.1.

Figure 44.1
The application displays the date and time on the server.

44.2.1 Creating a JSF Project

Here are the steps to create the application.

Choose File > New Project to display the New Project dialog box. In this box, choose Java Web in the Categories pane and Web Application in the Projects pane. Click Next to display the New Web Application dialog box. In the New Web Application dialog box, enter and select the following fields, as shown in Figure 44.2a:

- Project Name: jsf2demo
- Project Location: c:\book
- Check Set as Main Project
Click Next to display the dialog box for choosing servers and settings. Select the following fields as shown in Figure 44.2b. (Note: You can use any server such as GlassFish 3.x that supports Java EE 6.)

Server: Apache Tomcat 7.0.11  
Java EE Version: Java EE 6 Web

Click Next to display the dialog box for choosing frameworks, as shown in Figure 44.3. Check JavaServer Faces and JSF 2.0 as Registered Libraries. Click Finish to create the project, as shown in Figure 44.4.

Figure 44.2

The New Web Application dialog box enables you to create a new Web project.

Figure 44.3

Check JavaServer Faces and JSF 2.0 to create the Web project.
Figure 44.4
A default JSF page is created in a new Web project.
44.2.2 A Basic JSF Page
<margin note: facelet>
A new project was just created with a default page named index.xhtml, as
shown in Figure 44.4. This page is known as a facelet, which mixes JSF
tags with XHTML tags. Listing 44.1 lists the contents of index.xhtml.
Listing 44.1 index.xhtml
***PD: Please add line numbers in the following code***
***Layout: Please layout exactly. Don’t skip the space. This is true for
all source code in the book. Thanks, AU.
<margin note line 1: xml version>
<margin note line 2: comment>
<margin note line 3: DOCTYPE>
<margin note line 5: default namespace>
<margin note line 6: JSF namespace>
<margin note line 7: h:head>
<margin note line 10: h:body>
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!-- index.xhtml -->
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
"http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html">
<h:head>
<title>Facelet Title</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
Hello from Facelets
</h:body>
</html>
<margin note: XML declaration>
Line 1 is an XML declaration to state that the document conforms to the
XML version 1.0 and uses the UTF-8 encoding. The declaration is
optional, but it is a good practice to use it. Otherwise, a document
without the declaration may be assumed of a different version, which may
lead to errors. If an XML declaration is present, it must be the first
item to appear in the document. This is because an XML processor looks

4


for the first line to obtain information about the document so that it can be processed correctly.

<margin note: XML comment>
Line 2 is a comment for documenting the contents in the file. XML comment always begins with <!-- and end with -->

<margin note: DOCTYPE>
Lines 3-4 specifies the version of XHTML used in the document. This can be used by the Web browser to validate the syntax of the document.

<margin note: element>
<margin note: tag>
An XML document consists of elements described by tags. An element is enclosed between a start tag and an end tag. XML elements are organized in a tree-like hierarchy. Elements may contain subelements, but there is only one root element in an XML document. All the elements must be enclosed inside the root tag. The root element in XHTML is defined using the html tag (line 5).

Each tag in XML must be used in a pair of the start tag and the end tag. A starting begins with < followed by the tag name, and ends with >. An end tag is the same as its starting except it begins with </. The start tag and end tag for html are <html> and </html>

<margin note: html tag>
The html element is the root element that contains all other elements in an XHTML page. The starting <html> tag (lines 5-6) may contain one or more xmlns (XML namespace) attributes to specify the namespace for the elements used in the document. Namespaces are like Java packages. Java packages are used to organize classes and to avoid naming conflict. XHTML namespaces are used to organize tags and resolve naming conflict. If an element with the same name is defined in two namespaces, the fully qualified tag names can be used to differentiate them.

<margin note: xmlns>
Each xmlns attribute has a name and a value separated by an equal sign (=). The following declaration (line 5)

    xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"

specifies that any unqualified tag names are defined in the default standard xhtml namespace.

The following declaration (line 6)

    xmlns:h='http://java.sun.com/jsf/html'

allows the tags defined in the JSF tag library to be used in the document. These tags must have a prefix h.

<margin note: h:head>
An html element contains a head and body. The h:head element (lines 7-9) defines an HTML title element. The title is usually displayed in the browser window's title bar.

<margin note: h:body>
A h:body element defines the page’s content. In this simple example, it contains a string to be displayed in the Web browser.
NOTE: The XML tag names are case-sensitive, whereas HTML tags are not. So, `<html>` is different from `<HTML>` in XML. Every start tag in XML must have a matching end tag; whereas some tags in HTML does not need end tags.

You can now display the JSP page in index.xhtml by right-clicking on index.xhtml in the projects pane. The page is displayed in a browser, as shown in Figure 44.5.

Figure 44.5
The index.xhtml is displayed in the browser.

44.2.3 Managed JavaBeans for JSF

JSF applications are developed using the Model-View-Controller (MVC) architecture, which separates the application’s data (contained in the model) from the graphical presentation (the view). The controller is the JSF framework that is responsible for coordinating interactions between view and the model.

In JSF, the facelets are the view for presenting data. Data are obtained from Java objects. Objects are defined using Java classes. In JSF, the objects that are accessed from a facelet are JavaBeans objects. If you are not familiar with JavaBeans, please read Chapter 36, “JavaBeans.”

Our example in this section is to develop a JSF facelet to display current time. We will create JavaBean with a `getTime()` method that returns the current time as a string. The facelet will invoke this method to obtain current time.

Here are the steps to create a JavaBean named `TimeBean`.

Step 1. Right-click the project node jsf2demo to display a context menu as shown in Figure 44.6. Choose New, JSF Managed Bean to display the New JSF Managed Bean dialog box, as shown in Figure 44.7. (Note: if you don’t see JSF Managed Bean in the menu, choose Other to locate JSF Managed Bean.)

Step 2. Enter and select the following fields, as shown in Figure 44.8:
Class Name: TimeBean
Package: jsf2demo
Name: timeBean
Scope: request
Click Finish to create TimeBean.java, as shown in Figure 44.9.

Step 3. Add the `getTime()` method to return the current time, as shown in Listing 44.2.
Figure 44.6

Choose JSF Managed Bean to create a JavaBean for JSF.

Figure 44.7

Specify the name, location, scope for the bean.
Listing 44.2 TimeBean.java

```java
package jsf2demo;

import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.RequestScoped;

@ManagedBean
@RequestScoped
public class TimeBean {
    public String getTime() {
        return new java.util.Date().toString();
    }
}
```

TimeBean is a JavaBeans with the `@ManagedBean` annotation, which indicates that the JSF framework will create and manage the TimeBean objects used in the application. You have learned to use the `@Override` annotation in Chapter 15. The `@Override` annotation tells the compiler that the annotated method is required to override a method in a superclass. The `@ManagedBean` annotation tells the compiler to generate the code to enable the bean to be used by JSF facelets.

The `@RequestScope` annotation specifies the scope of the JavaBeans object is within a request. The JSF scopes were introduced in the preceding chapter. You can also use `@SessionScope` or `@ApplicationScope` to specify the scope for a session or for the entire application.

44.2.4 JSF Expressions

Recall that we used JSP scripting to enter Java code in an HTML file to return the current time in the preceding chapter. But JSP scripting will not work with JSF. How can you display the current time from a JSF page?
You can display current time by invoking the `getTime()` method in a `TimeBean` object using a JSF expression.

To keep `index.xhtml` intact, we create a new JSF page named `CurrentTime.xhtml` as follows:

Step 1. Right-click the `jsf2demo` node in the project pane to display a context menu and choose `New`, `JSF Page` to display the New JSF File dialog box, as shown in Figure 44.9.

Step 2. Enter `CurrentTime` in the File Name field, choose `Facelets` and click `Finish` to generate `CurrentTime.xhtml`, as shown in Figure 44.10.

Step 3. Add a JSF expression to obtain the current time, as shown in Listing 44.3.

```
<margin note line 8: refresh page>
<margin note line 11: JSF expression>

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
```

Listing 44.3 `CurrentTime.xhtml`

```
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
```
Line 8 defines a meta tag inside the h:head tag to tell the browser to refresh every 60 seconds. This line can also be written as

```html
<meta http-equiv="refresh" content="60" />
```

An element is called an empty element if there are no contents between the start tag and end tag. In an empty element, data is typically specified as attributes in the start tag. You can close an empty element by placing a slash immediately preceding the start tag’s right angle bracket, as shown in line 8, for brevity.

Line 8 uses a JSF expression `${timeBean.time}` to obtain the current time. `timeBean` is an object of the `TimeBean` class. The object name can be changed in the `@ManagedBean` annotation (line 6 in Listing 44.2) using the following syntax:

```java
@ManagedBean(name="anyObjectName")
```

By default the object name is the class name with the first letter in lowercase.

Note that `time` is a JavaBeans property, because the `getTime()` method is defined in `TimeBeans`. The JSF expression can either use the property name or invoke the method to obtain the current time. So the following two expressions are both fine.

```java
${timeBean.time}
${timeBean.getTime()}
```

The syntax of a JSF expression is

```java
#{expression}
```

JSF expressions bind JavaBeans objects with facelets. You will see more use of JSF expressions in the upcoming examples in this chapter.

### 44.3 JSF GUI Components

JSF provides many elements for displaying GUI components. Table 44.1 lists some of the commonly used elements. The tags with the `h` prefix are in the JSF HTML Tag library. The tags with the `f` prefix are in the JSF Core Tag library.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 44.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JSF GUI Form Elements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### JSF Tag | Description
--- | ---
h:form | inserts an XHTML form into a page.
h:panelGroup | similar to a Java flow layout container.
h:panelGrid | similar to a Java grid layout container.
h:inputText | displays a textbox for entering input.
h:outputText | displays a textbox for displaying output.
h:inputTextArea | displays a textarea for entering input.
h:inputSecret | displays a textbox for entering password.
h:outputLabel | displays a label.
h:outputLink | displays a hypertext link.
h:selectOneMenu | displays a combo box for selecting one item.
h:selectOneRadio | displays a set of radio button.
h:selectBooleanCheckbox | displays a checkbox.
h:selectOneListbox | displays a list for selecting one item.
h:selectManyListbox | displays a list for selecting multiple items.
f:selectItem | specifies an item in an h:selectOneMenu, h:selectOneRadio, or h:selectManyListbox.
h:message | displays a message for validating input.
h: dataTable | displays a data table.
h: column | specifies a column in a data table.
h: graphicImage | displays an image.

Listing 44.4 is an example that uses some of these elements to display a student registration form, as shown in Figure 44.11.

![Student Registration Form](image)

**Figure 44.11**

A student registration form is displayed using JSF elements.

Listing 44.4 StudentRegistrationForm.xhtml

```xml
<margin note line 6: jsf core namespace>
```
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin
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note
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line
line
line
line

14:
18:
19:
20:
30:
31:
41:
46:
56:
66:
71:

graphicImage>
h:panelGrid>
h:outputLabel>
h:inputText>
h:selectOneRadio>
f:selectItem>
h:selectOneMenu>
h:selectManyListBox>
h:selectManyCheckbox>
h:inputTextarea>
h:commandButton>

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
"http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html"
xmlns:f="http://java.sun.com/jsf/core">
<h:head>
<title>Student Registration Form</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<!-- Use h:graphicImage -->
<h3>Student Registration Form
<h:graphicImage name="usIcon.gif" library="image"/>
</h3>
<!-- Use h:panelGrid -->
<h:panelGrid columns="6" style="color:green">
<h:outputLabel value="Last Name"/>
<h:inputText id="lastNameInputText" />
<h:outputLabel value="First Name" />
<h:inputText id="firstNameInputText" />
<h:outputLabel value="MI" />
<h:inputText id="miInputText" size="1"
/>
</h:panelGrid>
<!-- Use radio buttons -->
<h:panelGrid columns="2">
<h:outputLabel>Gender </h:outputLabel>
<h:selectOneRadio id="genderSelectOneRadio">
<f:selectItem itemValue="Male"
itemLabel="Male"/>
<f:selectItem itemValue="Female"
itemLabel="Female"/>
</h:selectOneRadio>
</h:panelGrid>
<!-- Use combo box and list -->
<h:panelGrid columns="4">
<h:outputLabel value="Major "/>
<h:selectOneMenu id="majorSelectOneMenu">
<f:selectItem itemValue="Computer Science"/>
<f:selectItem itemValue="Mathematics"/>
</h:selectOneMenu>
<h:outputLabel value="Minor "/>
<h:selectManyListbox id="minorSelectManyListbox">
<f:selectItem itemValue="Computer Science"/>
<f:selectItem itemValue="Mathematics"/>

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<f:selectItem itemValue="English"/>
</h:selectManyListbox>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use check boxes -->
<h:panelGrid columns="4">
    <h:outputLabel value="Hobby: "/>
    <h:selectManyCheckbox id="hobbySelectManyCheckbox">
        <f:selectItem itemValue="Tennis"/>
        <f:selectItem itemValue="Golf"/>
        <f:selectItem itemValue="Ping Pong"/>
    </h:selectManyCheckbox>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use text area -->
<h:panelGrid columns="1">
    <h:outputLabel>Remarks:</h:outputLabel>
    <h:inputTextarea id="remarksInputTextarea" style="width:400px; height:50px;"/>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use command button -->
<h:commandButton value="Register"/>
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>

<margin note: jsf core xmlns>
The tags with prefix f are in the JSF core tag library. Line 6
xmlns:f="http://java.sun.com/jsf/core">
locates the library for these tags.

<margin note: h:graphicImage>
The h:graphicImage tag displays an image in the file usIcon.gif (line 14). The file is located in the /resources/image folder. In JSF 2.0, all resources (image files, audio files, CCS files) should be placed under the resources folder under the Web Pages node. You can create these folders as follows:

Step 1: Right-click the Web Pages node in the project pane to display a context menu and choose New, Folder to display the New Folder dialog box. (If Folder is not in the context menu, choose Other to locate it.)
Step 2: Enter resources as the Folder Name and click Finish to create the resources folder, as shown in Figure 44.12.
Step 3: Right-click the resources node in the project pane to create the image folder under resources. You can now place usImage.gif under the image folder.
The resources folder was created.

<margin note: h:panelGrid>
JSF provides h:panelGrid and h:panelGroup elements to contain and layout subelements. h:panelGrid places the elements in a grid like the Java grid layout manager. h:panelGrid places the elements like a Java GUI flow layout manager. Lines 18-25 places six elements (labels and input texts) are in a h:panelGrid. The columns attribute specifies that each row in the grid has 6 columns. The elements are placed into a row from left to right in the order they appear in the facelet. When a row is full, a new row is created to hold the elements. We used h:panelGrid in this example. You may replace it with h:panelGroup to see how the elements would be arranged.

<margin note: the style attribute>
You may use the style attribute with a JSF html tag to specify the CSS style for the element and its subelements. The style attribute in line 8 specifies color green for all elements in this h:panelGrid element.

<margin note: h:outputLabel>
The h:outputLabel element is for displaying a label (line 19). You can use the value attribute to specify the label’s text.

<margin note: h:inputText>
The h:inputText element is for displaying a text input box for the user to enter a text (line 20). The id attribute is useful for other elements or the server program to reference this element.

<margin note: h:selectOneRadio>
The h:selectOneRadio element is for displaying a group of radio buttons (line 30). Each radio button is defined using an f:selectItem element (lines 31-34).

<margin note: h:selectOneMenu>
The h:selectOneMenu element is for displaying a combo box (line 41). Each item in the combo box is defined using an f:selectItem element (lines 42-43).

<margin note: h:selectManyListbox>
The h:selectManyListbox element is for displaying a list for the user to choose multiple items in a list (line 46). Each item in the list is defined using an f:selectItem element (lines 47-49).

<margin note: h:selectManyCheckbox>
The h:selectManyCheckbox element is for displaying a group of checkboxes (line 56). Each item in the check box is defined using an f:selectItem element (lines 57-59).

The h:selectTextarea element is for displaying a text area for multiple lines of input (line 66). You can use the style attribute to specify the width and height of the text area (line 67).

The h:commandButton element is for displaying a button. When the button is clicked, an action is performed. The default action is to request the same page from the server. The next section shows how to process the form.

44.4 Processing the Form
The preceding section introduced how to display a form using common JSF elements. This section shows how to obtain and process the input.

To obtain input from the form, simply bind each input element with a property in a managed bean. We now define a managed bean named Registration as shown in Listing 44.5.

Listing 44.5 Registration.java

```java
package jsf2demo;
import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.RequestScoped;

@ManagedBean
@RequestScoped
public class Registration {
    private String lastName;
    private String firstName;
    private String mi;
    private String gender;
    private String major;
    private String[] minor;
    private String[] hobby;
    private String remarks;

    public String getLastName() {
        return lastName;
    }

    public void setLastName(String lastName) {
        this.lastName = lastName;
    }
}
```
public String getFirstName() {
    return firstName;
}

public void setFirstName(String firstName) {
    this.firstName = firstName;
}

public String getMi() {
    return mi;
}

public void setMi(String mi) {
    this.mi = mi;
}

public String getGender() {
    return gender;
}

public void setGender(String gender) {
    this.gender = gender;
}

public String getMajor() {
    return major;
}

public void setMajor(String major) {
    this.major = major;
}

public String[] getMinor() {
    return minor;
}

public void setMinor(String[] minor) {
    this.minor = minor;
}

public String[] getHobby() {
    return hobby;
}

public void setHobby(String[] hobby) {
    this.hobby = hobby;
}

public String getRemarks() {
    return remarks;
}

public void setRemarks(String remarks) {
    this.remarks = remarks;
}

public String getResponse() {
    if (lastName == null)
        return ""; // Request has not been made
    else {
        String allMinor = "";
    }
for (String s: minor) {
    allMinor += s + " ";
}

String allHobby = "";
for (String s: hobby) {
    allHobby += s + " ";
}

return "<p style="color:red">You entered<br/>
Last Name: " + lastName + "<br/>
First Name: " + firstName + "<br/>
MI: " + mi + "<br/>
Gender: " + gender + "<br/>
Major: " + major + "<br/>
Minor: " + allMinor + "<br/>
Hobby: " + allHobby + "<br/>
Remarks: " + remarks + "</p>";

<margin note: bean properties>
The Registration class is a managed bean that defines the properties
lastName, firstName, mi, gender, major, minor, and remarks, which will
be bound to the elements in the JSF registration form.

The registration form can now be redefined as shown in Listing 44.6.
Figure 44.13 shows that new JSF page displays the user input upon
clicking the Register button.

Listing 44.6 ProcessStudentRegistrationForm.xhtml

<margin note line 6: jsf core namespace>
<margin note line 21: bind lastName>
<margin note line 24: bind firstName>
<margin note line 27: bind mi>
<margin note line 34: bind gender>
<margin note line 46: bind major>
<margin note line 52: bind minor>
<margin note line 63: bind hobby>
<margin note line 75: bind remarks>
<margin note line 82: bind response>

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
  "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
     xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html"
     xmlns:f="http://java.sun.com/jsf/core">
  <h:head>
    <title>Student Registration Form</title>
  </h:head>
  <h:body>
    <h:form>
        <!-- Use h:graphicImage -->
        <h:graphicImage name="usIcon.gif" library="image"/>
    </h:form>
</h:body>
</html>
<!-- Use h:panelGrid -->
<h:panelGrid columns="6" style="color:green">
  <h:outputLabel value="Last Name"/>
  <h:inputText id="lastNameInputText" value="#{registration.lastName}"/>
  <h:outputLabel value="First Name"/>
  <h:inputText id="firstNameInputText" value="#{registration.firstName}"/>
  <h:outputLabel value="MI"/>
  <h:inputText id="miInputText" size="1" value="#{registration.mi}"/>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use radio buttons -->
<h:panelGrid columns="2">
  <h:outputLabel>Gender  </h:outputLabel>
  <h:selectOneRadio id="genderSelectOneRadio" value="#{registration.gender}"
    itemValue="Male" itemLabel="Male"/>
  <h:selectOneRadio itemValue="Female" itemLabel="Female"/>
</h:selectOneRadio>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use combo box and list -->
<h:panelGrid columns="4">
  <h:outputLabel value="Major  ">/h:outputLabel>
  <h:selectOneMenu id="majorSelectOneMenu" value="#{registration.major}"
    itemValue="Computer Science" itemValue="Mathematics"/>

  <h:outputLabel value="Minor  ">
  <h:selectManyListbox id="minorSelectManyListbox" value="#{registration.minor}"
    itemValue="Computer Science" itemValue="Mathematics" itemValue="English"/>
</h:selectManyListbox>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use check boxes -->
<h:panelGrid columns="4">
  <h:outputLabel value="Hobby:"/>
  <h:selectManyCheckbox id="hobbySelectManyCheckbox" value="#{registration.hobby}" itemValue="Tennis" itemValue="Golf" itemValue="Ping Pong"/>
</h:selectManyCheckbox>
</h:panelGrid>

<!-- Use text area -->
<h:panelGrid columns="1">
  <h:outputLabel>Remarks:</h:outputLabel>
  <h:inputTextarea id="remarksInputTextarea" value="#{registration.remarks}" style="width:400px; height:50px;"/>
</h:panelGrid>
<!-- Use command button -->
<h:commandButton value="Register" />
<br />
<h:outputText escape="false" style="color:red" value="#{registration.response}" />

</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>

Figure 44.13
The user input is collected and displayed after clicking the Register button.

<margin note: binding input texts>
The new JSF form in this listing binds the h:inputText element for last name, first name, and mi with the properties lastName, firstName, and mi in the managed bean (lines 22, 24, 27). When the Register button is clicked, the page is sent to the server, which invokes the set methods to set the properties in the managed bean.

<margin note: binding radio buttons>
The h:selectOneRadio element is bound to the gender property (line 34). Each radio button has an itemValue. The selected radio button’s itemValue is set to the gender property in the bean when the page is sent to the server.

<margin note: binding combo box>
The h:selectOneMenu element is bound to the major property (line 46). When the page is sent to the server, the selected item is returned as a string and is set to the major property.
<margin note: binding list box>
The h:selectManyListbox element is bound to the minor property (line 52). When the page is sent to the server, the selected items are returned as an array of itemValues and set to the minor property.

<margin note: binding check boxes>
The h:selectManyCheckbox element is bound to the hobby property (line 63). When the page is sent to the server, the checked boxes are returned as an array of itemValues and set to the hobby property.

<margin note: binding text area>
The h:selectTextarea element is bound to the remarks property (line 75). When the page is sent to the server, the content in the text area is returned as a string and set to the remarks property.

<margin note: binding response>
The h:outputText element is bound to the response property (line 82). This is a read-only property in the bean. It is "" if lastName is null (lines 83-84 in Listing 44.5). When the page is returned to the client, the response property value is displayed in the output text element (line 82).

<margin note: escape attribute>
The h:outputText element’s escape attribute is set to false (line 81) to enable the contents to be displayed in HTML. By default, the escape attribute is true, which indicates the contents are considered as regular text.

44.5 Case Study: Calculator
This section uses JSF to develop a calculator to perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as shown in Figure 44.21.

![Calculator Interface](image)

Figure 44.21
This JSF application enables you to perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

Here are the steps to develop this project:

<margin note: create managed bean>
Step 1. Create a new managed bean named Calculator with the request scope as shown in Listing 44.7, Calculator.java.

<margin note: create JSF facelet>
Step 2. Create a JSP facelet named Calculator as shown in Listing 44.8, Calculator.xhtml.

Listing 44.7 Calculator.java

<margin note line 9: property number1>
package jsf2demo;

import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.RequestScoped;

@ManagedBean
@RequestScoped
public class Calculator {
    private Double number1;
    private Double number2;
    private Double result;

    public Calculator() {
    }

    public Double getNumber1() {
        return number1;
    }

    public Double getNumber2() {
        return number2;
    }

    public Double getResult() {
        return result;
    }

    public void setNumber1(Double number1) {
        this.number1 = number1;
    }

    public void setNumber2(Double number2) {
        this.number2 = number2;
    }

    public void setResult(Double result) {
        this.result = result;
    }

    public void add() {
        result = number1 + number2;
    }

    public void subtract() {
        result = number1 - number2;
    }

    public void divide() {
        result = number1 / number2;
    }

    public void multiply() {
        result = number1 * number2;
    }
The managed bean has three properties number1, number2, and result (lines 9-38). The methods add(), subtract(), divide(), and multiply() add, subtract, multiply, and divide number1 with number2 and assigns the result to result (lines 40-54).

Listing 44.8 Calculator.xhtml

```xml
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html">
<h:head>
<title>Calculator</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<h:panelGrid columns="6">
<h:outputLabel value="Number 1"/>
<h:inputText id="number1InputText" size="4" style="text-align: right" value="#{calculator.number1}"/>
<h:outputLabel value="Number 2" />
<h:inputText id="number2InputText" size="4" style="text-align: right" value="#{calculator.number2}"/>
<h:outputLabel value="Result" />
<h:inputText id="resultInputText" size="4" style="text-align: right" value="#{calculator.result}"/>
</h:panelGrid>
<h:panelGrid columns="4">
<h:commandButton value="Add" action="#{calculator.add}"/>
<h:commandButton value="Subtract" action="#{calculator.subtract}"/>
<h:commandButton value="Multiply" action="#{calculator.multiply}"/>
<h:commandButton value="Divide" action="#{calculator.divide}"/>
</h:panelGrid>
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>
```

Three text input components along with their labels are placed in the grid panel (lines 11-24). Four button components are placed in the grid panel (lines 26-35).

The bean property number1 is bound to the text input for Number 1 (line 15). The CSS style text-align: right (line 14) specifies that the text is right-aligned in the input box.
The action attribute for the Add button is set to the add method in the calculator bean (line 28). When the Add button is clicked, the add method in the bean is invoked to add number1 with number2 and assign the result to result. Since the result property is bound the Result input text, the new result is now displayed in the text input field.

44.6 Session Tracking
Chapter 43, “JSP,” introduced session tracking using JavaBeans by sharing the JavaBeans objects among different pages. You can specify the JavaBeans objects at the application scope, session scope, page scope, or request scope. JSF supports session tracking using JavaBeans at the application scope, session scope, and request scope. Additionally, JSF 2.0 supports the view scope, which keeps the bean alive as long as you stay on the view. The view scope is between session and request scopes.

Consider the following example that prompts the user to guess a number. When the page starts, the program randomly generates a number between 0 and 99. This number is stored in the session. When the user enters a guess, the program checks the guess with the random number in the session and tells the user whether the guess is too high, too low, or just right, as shown in Figure 44.14.

Figure 44.14
The user enters a guess and the program displays the result.

Here are the steps to develop this project:

<margin note: create managed bean>
Step 1. Create a new managed bean named GuessNumber with the view scope as shown in Listing 44.9, GuessNumber.java.
Step 2. Create a JSP facelet named GuessNumber as shown in Listing 44.10, GuessNumber.xhtml.

Listing 44.9 GuessNumber.java

```java
package jsf2demo;

import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.ViewScoped;

@ManagedBean
@ViewScoped
public class GuessNumber {
    private int number;
    private String guessString;

    public GuessNumber() {
        number = (int) (Math.random() * 100);
    }

    public String getGuessString() {
        return guessString;
    }

    public void setGuessString(String guessString) {
        this.guessString = guessString;
    }

    public String getResponse() {
        if (guessString == null)
            return ""; // No user input yet
        int guess = Integer.parseInt(guessString);
        if (guess < number)
            return "Too low";
        else if (guess == number)
            return "You got it";
        else
            return "Too high";
    }
}
```

The managed bean uses the @ViewScope annotation (line 5) to set up the view scope for the bean. The view scope is most appropriate for this project. The bean is alive as long as the view is not changed. The bean is created when the page is displayed for the first time. A random number between 0 and 99 is assigned to number (line 13) when the bean is created. This number will not change as long as the bean is alive.
The getResponse method converts guessString from the user input to an
integer (line 28) and determines if the guess is too low (line 30), too
high (line 34), and just right (line 32).
Listing 44.10 GuessNumber.xhtml
<margin note line 14: bind text input>
<margin note line 18: bind text output>
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
"http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html">
<h:head>
<title>Guess a number</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<h:outputLabel value="Enter you guess: "/>
<h:inputText style="text-align: right; width: 50px"
id="guessInputText"
value="#{guessNumber.guessString}"/>
<h:commandButton style="margin-left: 60px" value="Guess" />
<br />
<h:outputText style="color: red"
value="#{guessNumber.response}" />
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>
The bean property guessString is bound to the text input (line 14). The
CSS style text-align: right (line 13) specifies that the text is rightaligned in the input box.
The CSS style margin-left: 60px (line 15) specifies that the command
button has a left margin of 60 pixels.
The bean property response is bound to the text output (line 18). The
CSS style color: red (line 17) specifies that the text is displayed in
red in the output box.
<margin note: scope>
The project uses the view scope. What happens if the scope is changed to
the request scope? Every time the page is refreshed, JSF creates a new
bean with a new random number. What happens if the scope is changed to
the session scope? The bean will be alive as long as the browser is
alive. What happens if the scope is changed to the application scope?
The bean will be created once when the application is launched from the
server.
44.7 Validating Input
In the preceding GuessNumber page, an error would occur if you entered a
non-integer in the input box before clicking the Guess button. A simple
way to fix the problem is to check the text field before processing any
event. JSF provides several convenient and powerful ways for input
validation. You can use the standard validator tags in the JSF Core Tag
Library or create custom validators. Table 44.2 lists some JSF input
validator tags.

25


Table 44.2
JSF Input Validator Tags

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JSF Tag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f:validateLength</td>
<td>validates the length of the input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f:validateDoubleRange</td>
<td>validates whether numeric input falls within acceptable range of double values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f:validateLongRange</td>
<td>validates whether numeric input falls within acceptable range of long values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f:validateRequired</td>
<td>validates whether a field is not empty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f:validateRegex</td>
<td>validates whether the input matches a regular expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f:validateBean</td>
<td>invokes a custom method in a bean to perform custom validation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consider the following example that displays a form for collecting user input as shown in Figure 44.15. All text fields in the form must be filled. If not, error messages are displayed. The SSN must be formatted correctly. If not, an error is displayed. If all input is correct, clicking Submit displays the result in an output text, as shown in Figure 44.16.

(a) The required messages are displayed if input is required, but empty.

(b) Error messages are displayed if input is incorrect.

Figure 44.15
The input fields are validated.
Figure 44.16
The correct input values are displayed.
Here are the steps to create this project.
Step 1. Create a new page named ValidateForm, as shown in Listing 44.11.
Step 2. Create a new managed bean named ValidateForm, as shown in
Listing 44.12.
Listing 44.11 ValidateForm.xhtml
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin
<margin

note
note
note
note
note
note
note
note

line
line
line
line
line
line
line
line

14:
15:
16:
18:
20:
27:
36:
45:

required input>
required message>
validator message>
validate length>
message element>
validate regex>
validate integer range>
validate double range>

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
"http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html"
xmlns:f="http://java.sun.com/jsf/core">
<h:head>
<title>Validate Form</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<h:panelGrid columns="3">
<h:outputLabel value="Name:"/>
<h:inputText id="nameInputText" required="true"
requiredMessage="Name is required"
validatorMessage="Name must have 1 to 10 chars"
value="#{validateForm.name}">
<f:validateLength minimum="1" maximum="10" />
</h:inputText>
<h:message for="nameInputText" style="color:red"/>
<h:outputLabel value="SSN:" />
<h:inputText id="ssnInputText" required="true"
requiredMessage="SSN is required"
validatorMessage="Invalid SSN"
value="#{validateForm.ssn}">
<f:validateRegex pattern="[\d]{3}-[\d]{2}-[\d]{4}"/>
</h:inputText>
<h:message for="ssnInputText" style="color:red"/>

27


<h:outputLabel value="Age:" />
<h:inputText id="ageInputText" required="true"
requiredMessage="Age is required"
validatorMessage="Age must be between 16 and 120"
value="#{validateForm.ageString}"
><f:validateLongRange minimum="16" maximum="120"/></h:inputText>
<h:message for="ageInputText" style="color:red"/>

<h:outputLabel value="Heihgt:" />
<h:inputText id="heightInputText" required="true"
requiredMessage="Heihgt is required"
validatorMessage="Heihgt must be between 3.5 and 9.5"
value="#{validateForm.heightString}"
><f:validateDoubleRange minimum="3.5" maximum="9.5"/></h:inputText>
<h:message for="heightInputText" style="color:red"/>
</h:panelGrid>
<h:commandButton value="Submit" />
<h:outputText style="color:red" value="#{validateForm.response}"/>
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>

For each input text field, set its required attribute true (line 14) to indicate that an input value is required for the field. When a required input field is empty, the requiredMessage is displayed (line 15).

The validatorMessage attribute specifies a message to be displayed if the Input field is Invalid (line 16). The f:validateLength tag specifies whether the input length is valid.

The h:message element displays the validatorMessage if the input is invalid. The element’s for attribute specifies the id of the element for which the message will be displayed (line 20).

The f:validateRegEx tag specifies a regular expression for validating the Input (line 27). For information on regular expression, see Supplement III.H.

The f:validateLongRange tag specifies a range for an integer input using the minimum and maximum attribute (line 36). In this project, a valid age value is between 16 and 120.

The f:validateDoubleRange tag specifies a range for a double input using the minimum and maximum attribute (line 36). In this project, a valid height value is between 3.5 and 9.5.
Listing 44.12 ValidateForm.java

package jsf2demo;
import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.RequestScoped;

@ManagedBean
@RequestScoped
public class ValidateForm {
    private String name;
    private String ssn;
    private String ageString;
    private String heightString;

    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }

    public void setName(String name) {
        this.name = name;
    }

    public String getSsn() {
        return ssn;
    }

    public void setSsn(String ssn) {
        this.ssn = ssn;
    }

    public String getAgeString() {
        return ageString;
    }

    public void setAgeString(String ageString) {
        this.ageString = ageString;
    }

    public String getHeightString() {
        return heightString;
    }

    public void setHeightString(String heightString) {
        this.heightString = heightString;
    }

    public String getResponse() {
        if (name == null || ssn == null || ageString == null
            || heightString == null) {
            return "";
        }
        else {
            return "You entered 
            " Name: " + name + 
            " SSN: " + ssn + 
            " Age: " + ageString + 
            " Height: " + heightString;
        }
    }
}
If an input is invalid, its value is not set to the bean. So only when all input are correct, the getResponse() method will return all input values (lines 46-58).

### 41.8 Binding Database with Facelets

Often you need to access database from a Web page. This section gives examples of building Web applications using databases.

Consider the following example that lets the user choose a course, as shown in Figure 44.17. After a course is selected in the drop down list, the students enrolled in the course are displayed in the table, as shown in Figure 41.18. In this example, all the course titles in the Course table are bound to the combo box and the query result for the students enrolled in the course is bound to the table.

**Figure 44.17**

You need to choose a course and display the students enrolled in the course.

**Figure 44.18**

The table displays the students enrolled in the course.

Here are the steps to create this project:

**<margin note: Managed bean>**

Step 1. Create a managed bean named `CourseName` with application scope, as shown in Listing 44.13.

**<margin note: JSF page>**

Step 2. Create a JSP page named `DisplayStudent`, as shown in Listing 44.14.
Step 3. Create a cascading style sheet for formatting the table as follows:

Step 3.1. Right-click the resources node to choose New, Others to display the New File dialog box, as shown in Figure 44.19.
Step 3.2. Choose Other in the Categories section and Cascading Style Sheet in the File Types section to display the New Cascading Style Sheet dialog box, as shown in Figure 44.20.
Step 3.3. Enter tablestyle as the File Name and click Finish to create tablestyle.css under the resources node.
Step 3.4. Define the CSS style as shown in Listing 44.15.

Figure 44.19
You can create CSS files for Web project in NetBeans.

Figure 44.20
The New Cascading Style Sheet dialog box creates a new style sheet file.

Listing 44.13 CourseName.java

<margin note line 9: application scope>
<margin note line 18: initialize JDBC>
<margin note line 27: connect to database>
<margin note line 32: get course titles>
package jsf2demo;

import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.ApplicationScoped;
import java.sql.*;
import javax.sql.rowset.CachedRowSet;

@ManagedBean
@ApplicationScoped
public class CourseName {
    private PreparedStatement studentStatement = null;
    private CachedRowSet rowSet; // For course titles
    private String choice; // Selected course
    private String[] titles; // Course titles

    /** Creates a new instance of CourseName */
    public CourseName() {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    /** Initialize database connection */
    private void initializeJdbc() {
        try {
            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");

            // Connect to the sample database
            Connection connection = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

            // Get course titles
            PreparedStatement statement = connection.prepareStatement("select title from course");
            rowSet = new com.sun.rowset.CachedRowSetImpl();
            rowSet.populate(statement.executeQuery());
            titles = new String[rowSet.size()];
            int i = 0;
            try {
                while (rowSet.next()) {
                    titles[i++] = rowSet.getString(1);
                }
            } catch (Exception ex) {
                ex.printStackTrace();
            }

            // Define a SQL statement for getting students
            studentStatement = connection.prepareStatement("select Student.ssn, Student.firstName, Student.mi, Student.lastName, Student.phone, Student.birthDate, Student.street, Student.zipCode, Student.deptId from Student, Enrollment, Course where Course.title = ? and Student.ssn = Enrollment.ssn and Enrollment.courseId = Course.courseId;";
        } catch (Exception ex) {

}}
We use the same MySQL database javabook created in Chapter 33, "Java Database Programming." The scope for this managed bean is application. The bean is created when the project is launched from the server. The database connection is created once in the bean’s constructor (lines 17-19). The initializeJdbc method loads the JDBC driver for MySQL (line 24), connects to the MySQL database (lines 25-26), creates statement for obtaining course titles (lines 29-30), and creates a statement for obtaining the student information for the specified course (lines 44-52). Lines 31-41 execute the statement for obtaining course titles and store them in array titles.

The getStudents() method returns a ResultSet that consists of all students enrolled in the specified course (lines 70-84). The choice for the title is set in the statement to obtain the student for the specified title (line 77). If choice is null, the first title in the titles array is set in the statement (line 77). If titles is null, getStudents() returns null (line 73).

Listing 44.14 DisplayStudent.xhtml

```xml
<margin note line 9: style sheet>
<margin note line 14: bind choice>
<margin note line 15: titles>
<margin note line 18: display button>
<margin note line 22: bind result set>
<margin note line 23: rowClasses>
<margin note line 24: headerClass>
```
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
     xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html"
     xmlns:f="http://java.sun.com/jsf/core">
  <h:head>
    <title>Display Student</title>
    <h:outputStylesheet name="tablestyle.css"/>
  </h:head>
  <h:body>
    <h:form>
      <h:outputLabel value="Choose a Course:">
        <h:selectOneMenu value="#{courseName.choice}">
          <f:selectItems value="#{courseName.titles}"/>
        </h:selectOneMenu>
      </h:outputLabel>
      <h:commandButton style="margin-left: 20px"
                        value="Display Students"/>
    </h:form>
    <br />
    <h:dataTable value="#{courseName.students}" var="student"
                 rowClasses="oddTableRow, evenTableRow"
                 headerClass="tableHeader"
                 styleClass="table">
      <h:column>
        <f:facet name="header">SSN</f:facet>
        #{student.ssn}
      </h:column>
      <h:column>
        <f:facet name="header">First Name</f:facet>
        #{student.firstName}
      </h:column>
      <h:column>
        <f:facet name="header">MI</f:facet>
        #{student.mi}
      </h:column>
      <h:column>
        <f:facet name="header">Last Name</f:facet>
        #{student.lastName}
      </h:column>
      <h:column>
        <f:facet name="header">Phone</f:facet>
        #{student.phone}
      </h:column>
    </h:dataTable>
  </h:body>
</html>
Line 9 specifies that the style sheet tablestyle.css created in Step 3 is used in this XMTHL file. The rowClasses = "oddTableRow, evenTableRow" attribute specifies the style applied to the rows alternately using oddTableRow and evenTableRow (line 23). The headerClasses = "tableHeader" attribute specifies that the tableHeader class is used for header style (line 24). The styleClasses = "table" attribute specifies that the table class is used for the style of all other elements in the table (line 25).

Line 14 binds the choice property in the courseName bean with the combo box. The selection values in the combo box are bound with the titles array property (line 15).

Line 22 binds the table value with a database result set using the attribute value="#{courseName.students}". The var="student" attribute associates a row in the result set with student. Lines 26-59 specify the column values using student.ssn (line 28), student.firstName (line 33), student.mi (line 38), student.lastName (line 33), student.phone (line 48), student.birthDate (line 53), and student.deptId (line 58).

Listing 44.15 tablestyle.css

```css
/* Style for table */
.TableHeader {
  font-family:"Trebuchet MS", Arial, Helvetica, sans-serif;
  border-collapse:collapse;
  font-size:1.1em;
  text-align:left;
  padding-top:5px;
  padding-bottom:4px;
  background-color:#A7C942;
  color:white;
  border:1px solid #98bf21;
}

.oddTableRow {
  border:1px solid #98bf21;
}

.evenTableRow {
  background-color: #eeeeee;
}
```
font-size:1em;
padding:3px 7px 2px 7px;
color:#000000;
background-color:#EAF2D3;
}

.table {
  border:1px solid green;
}

The style sheet file defines the style classes tableHeader (line 2) for table header style, oddTableRow for odd table rows (line 14), evenTableRow for even table rows (line 18), and table for all other table elements (line 28).

41.9 Opening New JSF Pages
All the examples you have seen so far use only one JSF page in a project. Suppose you want to register student information to the database. The application first displays the page as shown in Figure 44.21 to collect student information. After the user enters the information and clicks the Submit button, a new page is displayed to ask the user to confirm the input, as shown in Figure 44.22. If the user clicks the Confirm button, the data is stored into the database and the status page is displayed, as shown in Figure 44.23. If the user clicks the Go Back button, it goes back to the first page.

![Student Registration Form](image)

**Figure 44.21**
This page lets the user enter input.
For this project, you need to create three JSP pages named AddressRegistration.xhtml, ConfirmAddress.xhtml, AddressStoredStatus.xhtml in Listings 44.16, 44.17, and 44.18. The project starts with AddressRegistration.xhtml. When clicking the Submit button, the action for the button returns "ConfirmAddress" if the last name and first name are not empty, which causes ConfirmAddress.xhtml to be displayed. When clicking the Confirm button, the status page AddressStoredStatus is displayed. When clicking the Go Back button, the first page AddressRegistration is now displayed.

Listing 44.16 AddressRegistration.xhtml

```xml
<margin note line 6: jsf core namespace>
<margin note line 22: bind lastName>
<margin note line 25: bind firstName>
<margin note line 28: bind mi>
<margin note line 34: bind telephone>
<margin note line 37: bind email>
<margin note line 43: bind street>
<margin note line 49: bind city>
<margin note line 52: bind state>
<margin note line 59: bind zip>
<margin note line 64: process register>

<xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN"
 "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml"
 xmlns:h="http://java.sun.com/jsf/html"
Student Registration Form

Please register to your instructor's student address book.

Last Name
First Name
MI
Telephone
Email
Street
City
State
Zip

Register

Action: #{addressRegistration.processSubmit()}
Listing 44.17 ConfirmAddress.xhtml

// margin note line 15: process confirm 
// margin note line 17: go to AddressRegistration page

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml">
<h:head>
<title>Confirm Student Registration</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<h:outputText escape="false" style="color:red" value="#{registration1.input}" />
<h:panelGrid columns="2">
<h:commandButton value="Confirm" action="#{registration1.storeStudent()}" />
<h:commandButton value="Go Back" action="#{StudentRegistration}" />
</h:panelGrid>
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>

Listing 44.18 AddressStoredStatus.xhtml

***PD: Please add line numbers in the following code***
***Layout: Please layout exactly. Don’t skip the space. This is true for all source code in the book. Thanks, AU.***

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8' ?>
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">
<html xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml">
<h:head>
<title>Address Stored?</title>
</h:head>
<h:body>
<h:form>
<h:outputText escape="false" style="color:green" value="#{registration1.status}" />
</h:form>
</h:body>
</html>

Listing 44.19 AddressRegistration.java
package jsf2demo;

import javax.faces.bean.ManagedBean;
import javax.faces.bean.SessionScoped;
import java.sql.*;

@ManagedBean
@SessionScoped
public class AddressRegistration {
    private String lastName;
    private String firstName;
    private String mi;
    private String telephone;
    private String email;
    private String street;
    private String city;
    private String state;
    private String zip;
    private String status = "Nothing stored";

    // Use a prepared statement to store a student into the database
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    public AddressRegistration() {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    public String getLastName() {
        return lastName;
    }

    public void setLastName(String lastName) {
        this.lastName = lastName;
    }

    public String getFirstName() {
        return firstName;
    }

    public void setFirstName(String firstName) {
        this.firstName = firstName;
    }

    public String getMi() {
        return mi;
    }

    public void setMi(String mi) {
        this.mi = mi;
    }

    public String getTelephone() {
        return telephone;
    }

    public void setTelephone(String telephone) {
        this.telephone = telephone;
    }

    public String getEmail() {
        return email;
    }

    public void setEmail(String email) {
        this.email = email;
    }

    public String getStreet() {
        return street;
    }

    public void setStreet(String street) {
        this.street = street;
    }

    public String getCity() {
        return city;
    }

    public void setCity(String city) {
        this.city = city;
    }

    public String getState() {
        return state;
    }

    public void setState(String state) {
        this.state = state;
    }

    public String getZip() {
        return zip;
    }

    public void setZip(String zip) {
        this.zip = zip;
    }

    public String getStatus() {
        return status;
    }

    public void setStatus(String status) {
        this.status = status;
    }

    // Other methods for interact with database...
public String getTelephone() {
    return telephone;
}

public void setTelephone(String telephone) {
    this.telephone = telephone;
}

public String getEmail() {
    return email;
}

public void setEmail(String email) {
    this.email = email;
}

public String getStreet() {
    return street;
}

public void setStreet(String street) {
    this.street = street;
}

public String getCity() {
    return city;
}

public void setCity(String city) {
    this.city = city;
}

public String getState() {
    return state;
}

public void setState(String state) {
    this.state = state;
}

public String getZip() {
    return zip;
}

public void setZip(String zip) {
    this.zip = zip;
}

private boolean isRquiredFieldsFilled() {
    return !(lastName == null || firstName == null
            || lastName.trim().length() == 0
            || firstName.trim().length() == 0);
}

public String processSubmit() {
    if (isRquiredFieldsFilled()) {
        return "ConfirmAddress";
    } else {
        return "";
    }
}
public String getRequiredFields() {
    if (isRequiredFieldsFilled()) {
        return "";
    } else {
        return "Last Name and First Name are required";
    }
}

public String getInput() {
    return "<p style="color:red">You entered <br />
    + "Last Name: " + lastName + "<br />
    + "First Name: " + firstName + "<br />
    + "MI: " + mi + "<br />
    + "Telephone: " + telephone + "<br />
    + "Email: " + email + "<br />
    + "Street: " + street + "<br />
    + "City: " + city + "<br />
    + "State: " + state + "<br />
    + "Zip: " + zip + "</p>";
}

/** Initialize database connection */
private void initializeJdbc() {
    try {
        // Explicitly load a MySQL driver
        Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");
        System.out.println("Driver loaded");

        // Establish a connection
        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

        // Create a Statement
        pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("insert into Address (lastName,"
                                     + " firstName, mi, telephone, email, street, city,"
                                     + " state, zip) values (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)");
        } catch (Exception ex) {
        System.out.println(ex);
    }
}

/** Store an address to the database */
public String storeStudent() {
    try {
        pstmt.setString(1, lastName);
        pstmt.setString(2, firstName);
        pstmt.setString(3, mi);
        pstmt.setString(4, telephone);
        pstmt.setString(5, email);
        pstmt.setString(6, street);
        pstmt.setString(7, city);
        pstmt.setString(8, state);
        pstmt.setString(9, zip);
        pstmt.executeUpdate();
        status = firstName + " "+ lastName
            + " is now registered in the database.";
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        return "";
    }
}
The action for the Register button in the AddressRegistration JSF page is `processSubmit()` (line 64 in AddressRegistration.xhtml). This method checks if last name and first name are not empty (lines 105-111 in AddressRegistration.java). If so, it returns a string "ConfirmAddress", which causes the ConfirmAddress JSF page to be displayed.

The ConfirmAddress JSF page displays the data entered from the user (line 12 in ConfirmAddress.xhtml). The `getInput()` method (lines 121-134 in AddressRegistration.java) collects the input.

The action for the Confirm button in the ConfirmAddress JSF page is `storeStudent()` (line 15 in ConfirmAddress.xhtml). This method stores the address in the database (lines 157-176 in AddressRegistration.java) and returns a string "AddressStoredStatus", which causes the AddressStoredStatus page to be displayed. The status message is displayed in this page (line 12 in AddressStoredStatus.xhtml).

The action for the Go Back button in the ConfirmAddress page is "AddressRegistration" (line 17 in ConfirmAddress.xhtml). This causes the AddressRegistration page to be displayed for the user to reenter the input.

The scope of the managed bean is session (line 8 AddressRegistration.java) so the multiple pages can share the same bean.

Note that this program loads the database driver explicitly (line 140 AddressRegistration.java). Sometimes, an IDE such as NetBeans is not able to find a suitable driver. Loading a driver explicitly can avoid this problem.

Chapter Summary

1. JSF enables you to completely separate Java code from HTML.
2. A facelet is an XHTML page that mixes JSF tags with XHTML tags.
3. JSF applications are developed using the Model-View-Controller (MVC) architecture, which separates the application’s data (contained in the model) from the graphical presentation (the view).
4. The controller is the JSF framework that is responsible for coordinating interactions between view and the model.
5. In JSF, the facelets are the view for presenting data. Data are obtained from Java objects. Objects are defined using Java classes.
6. In JSF, the objects that are accessed from a facelet are JavaBeans objects.
7. The JSF expression can either use the property name or invoke the method to obtain the current time.
8. JSF provides many elements for displaying GUI components. The tags with the h prefix are in the JSF HTML Tag library. The tags with the f prefix are in the JSF Core Tag library.
9. You can specify the JavaBeans objects at the application scope, session scope, page scope, view scope, or request scope.
10. The view scope keeps the bean alive as long as you stay on the view. The view scope is between session and request scopes.
11. JSF provides several convenient and powerful ways for input validation. You can use the standard validator tags in the JSF Core Tag Library or create custom validators.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions
Section 44.2
44.1 What is JSF?
44.2 How do you create a JSF project in NetBeans?
44.3 How do you create a JSF page in a JSF project?
44.4 What is a facelet?
44.5 What is the file extension name for a facelet?
44.6 What is a managed bean?
44.7 What is the @ManagedBean annotation for?
44.8 What is the @RequestScope annotation for?
44.9 What is the name space for JSF tags with prefix h and prefix f?

Sections 44.3-44.5
44.10 Describe the use of the following tags?

h:form, h:panelGroup, h:panelGrid, h:inputText, h:outputText, h:inputTextarea, h:inputSecret, h:outputLabel, h:outputLink, h:selectOneMenu, h:selectOneRadio, h:selectBooleanCheckbox, h:selectOneListbox, h:selectManyListbox, h:selectItem, h:message, h:dataTable, h:column, h:graphicImage

44.11 In the h:outputText tag, what is the escape attribute for?
44.12 Does every GUI component tag in JSF have the style attribute?
Section 44.6

44.13 What is a JSF session scope?
44.14 How do you set a session scope in a managed bean?
44.15 Describe the four session scopes.
44.16 What is the default session scope?

Section 44.7

44.17 Write a tag that validates an input text with minimal length of 2 and maximum 12.
44.18 Write a tag that validates an input text for SSN using a regular expression.
44.19 Write a tag that validates an input text for a double value with minimal 4.5 and maximum 19.9.
44.20 Write a tag that validates an input text for an integer value with minimal 4 and maximum 20.
44.21 Write a tag that make an input text required.

Programming Exercises

44.1* (Factorial table in JSF) Write a JSF page that displays a factorial page as shown in Figure 44.24a. Display the table in an h:outputText component. Set its escape property to false to display it as HTML contents.
(a) The JSF page displays factorials for the numbers from 0 to 10 in a table. (b) The JSF page displays the multiplication table.

44.2*

(Multiplication table) Write a JSF page that displays a multiplication table as shown in Figure 44.24b.

44.3*

(Calculate tax) Write a JSF page to let the user enter taxable income and filing status, as shown in Figure 44.25a. Clicking the Compute Tax button invokes a servlet to compute and display the tax, as shown in Figure 44.25b. Use the computeTax method introduced in Listing 3.7, ComputeTax.java, to compute tax.

(a)                        (b)

Figure 44.25

The JSF page computes the tax.

44.4*

(Calculate loan) Write a JSF page that lets the user enter loan amount, interest rate, and number of years, as shown in Figure 44.26a. Clicking the Compute Loan Payment button to compute and display the monthly and total loan payments, as shown in Figure 44.26b. Use the Loan class given in Listing 10.2, Loan.java, to compute the monthly and total payments.

(a)                          (b)

Figure 44.26

The JSF page computes the loan payment.
44.5*

(Addition quiz) Write a JSF program that generates addition quizzes randomly, as shown in Figure 44.27a. After the user answers all questions, the JSP displays the result, as shown in Figure 44.27b.

(a)                          (b)

Figure 44.27

The program displays addition questions in (a) and answers in (b).

43.18*

(Large factorial) Rewrite Exercise 44.1 to handle large factorial. Use the BigInteger class introduced in §15.11.

44.7*

(Guess birthday) Listing 3.3, GuessBirthDay.java, gives a program for guessing a birthday. Write a JSP program that displays five sets of numbers, as shown in Figure 44.28a. After the user checks the appropriate boxes and clicks the Find Date button, the program displays the date, as shown in Figure 44.28b.

(a)                            (b)

Figure 44.28
(a) The program displays five sets of numbers for the user to check the boxes. (b) The program displays the date.

44.8*

(Guess capitals) Write a JSF that prompts the user to enter a capital for a state, as shown in Figure 44.29a. Upon receiving the user input, the program reports whether the answer is correct, as shown in Figure 44.29b. You can click the Next button to display another question. You can use a two-dimensional array to store the states and capitals, as proposed in Exercise 9.22. Create a list from the array and apply the shuffle method to reorder the list so the questions will appear in random order.

![Figure 44.29](image)

(a) The program displays a question. (b) The program displays the answer to the question.

44.9*

(Access and update a Staff table) Write a JSF program that views, inserts, and updates staff information stored in a database, as shown in Figure 44.30a. The view button displays a record with a specified ID. The Staff table is created as follows:

```sql
create table Staff (  
    id char(9) not null,  
    lastName varchar(15),  
    firstName varchar(15),  
    mi char(1),  
    address varchar(20),  
    city varchar(20),  
    state char(2),  
    telephone char(10),  
    email varchar(40),  
    primary key (id)  
);```
Figure 44.30

The web page lets you view, insert, and update staff information.

44.10*

(Random cards) Write a JSF that displays four random cards from a deck of 52 cards, as shown in Figure 44.22. When the user clicks the Refresh button, four new random cards are displayed.

Figure 44.22

This JSF application displays four random cards.

44.11***

(Game: the 24-point card game) Rewrite Exercise 25.11 using JSF, as shown in Figure 44.23. Upon clicking the Refresh button, the program
displays four random cards and displays an expression if a 24-point solution exists. Otherwise, it displays No solution.

Figure 44.23
The JSF application solves a 24-Point card game.

44.12***

(Game: the 24-point card game) Rewrite Exercise 25.10 using JSF, as shown in Figure 44.24. The program lets the user enter four card values and finds a solution upon clicking the Find a Solution button.

Figure 44.24
The user enters four numbers and the program finds a solution.
CHAPTER 45

Web Services

Objectives

- To describe what a Web service is (§45.1).
- To create a Web service class (§45.2).
- To publish and test a Web service (§45.3).
- To create a Web service client reference (§45.4).
- To explain the role of WSDL (§45.4).
- To pass arguments of object type in a Web service (§45.5).
- To discover how a client communicates with a Web service (§45.5).
- To describe what SOAP requests and SOAP responses are (§45.5).
- To track a session in Web services (§45.6).
45.1 Introduction

Web service is a technology that enables programs to communicate through HTTP on the Internet. Web services enable a program on one system to invoke a method in an object on another system. You can develop and use Web services using any languages on any platform. Web services are simple and easy to develop.

Web services run on the Web using HTTP. There are several APIs for Web services. A popular standard is the Simple Object Access Protocol (SOAP), which is based on XML. The computer on which a Web service resides is referred to as a server. The server needs to make the service available to the client, known as publishing a Web service. Using a Web service from a client is known as consuming a Web service.

A client interacts with a Web service through a proxy object. The proxy object facilitates the communication between the client and the Web service. The client passes arguments to invoke methods on the proxy object. The proxy object sends the request to the server and receives the result back from the server, as shown in Figure 45.1.

![Figure 45.1](image)

A proxy object serves as a facilitator between a client and a Web service.

45.2 Creating Web Services

There are many tools for creating Web services. This book demonstrates creating Web services using NetBeans.

NOTE:
Apache Tomcat Server does not work well with Web services. To develop and deploy Web services using NetBeans, you need to install GlassFish 3. For information on how to install GlassFish 3 on NetBeans 7, see Supplement II.I.

***END NOTE

We now create a Web service for obtaining student scores. A Web service is a class that contains the methods for the client to invoke. Name the class ScoreService with a method named findScore(String name) that returns the score for a student.

First you need to create a Web project using the following steps:

Choose File > New Project to display the New Project dialog box.
In the New Project dialog box, choose Java Web in the Categories pane and choose Web Application in the Projects pane. Click Next to display the New Web Application dialog box. Enter WebServiceProject as the project name, specify the location where you want the project to be stored, and click Next to display the Server and Setting dialog. Select GlassFish 3 as the server and Java EE 6 Web as the Java EE version. Click Finish to create the project.

<Side Remark: create Web service class>
Now you can create the ScoreService class in the project as follows:

Right-click the WebServiceProject in the Project pane to display a context menu. Choose New > Web Service to display the New Web Service dialog box. Enter ScoreService in the Web Service Name field and enter chapter45 in the Package field. Click Finish to create ScoreService.

Complete the source code as shown in Listing 45.1.

Listing 45.1 ScoreService.java

```
package chapter45;

import java.util.HashMap;
import javax.jws.WebService; // For annotation @WebService
import javax.jws.WebMethod; // For annotation @WebMethod

@WebService(name = "ScoreService", serviceName = "ScoreWebService")
public class ScoreService {
    // Stores scores in a map indexed by name
    private HashMap<String, Double> scores = new HashMap<String, Double>();

    public ScoreService() {
        scores.put("John", 90.5);
        scores.put("Michael", 100.0);
        scores.put("Michelle", 98.5);
    }

    @WebMethod(operationName = "findScore")
    public double findScore(String name) {
        Double d = scores.get(name);
        if (d == null) {
            System.out.println("Student " + name + " is not found");
            return -1;
        } else {
            System.out.println("Student " + name + ", his score is "+ d.doubleValue());
            return d.doubleValue();
        }
    }
}
```
4

45.3 Deploying and Testing Web Services

After a Web service is created, you need to deploy it for clients to use. Deploying Web services is also known as publishing Web services. To deploy it, right-click the WebServiceProject in the Project to display a context menu and choose Deploy. This command will first undeploy the service if it was deployed and then redeploy it.

Now you can test the Web service by entering the follow URL in a browser, as shown in Figure 45.3.
http://localhost:8080/WebServiceProject/ScoreWebService?Tester

Figure 45.3
The test page enables you to test Web services.

Note that ScoreWebService is the name you specified in line 7 in Listing 45.1. This Web service has only one remote method named findScore. You can define an unlimited number of remote methods in a Web service class. If so, all these methods will be displayed in the test page.

To test the findScore method, enter Michael and click findScore. You will see that the method returns 100.0, as shown in Figure 45.4.

Figure 45.4
The method returns a test value.

.Side Remark: testing from another machine>
NOTE: If your computer is connected to the Internet, you can test Web services from another computer by entering the following URL:

http://host:8080/WebServiceProject/ScoreWebService?Tester

.Side Remark: ipconfig>
Where host is the host name or IP address of the server on which the Web service is running. On Windows, you can find your IP address by typing the command `ipconfig`.

***END NOTE

.Side Remark: Windows firewall

**NOTE:** If you are running the server on Windows, the firewall may prevent remote clients from accessing the service. To enable it, do the following:

1. In the Windows control panel, click Windows Firewall to display the Windows Firewall dialog box.
2. In the Advanced tab, double-click Local Area Connection to display the Advanced Settings dialog box. Check `Web Server (HTTP)` to enable HTTP access to the server.
3. Click OK to close the dialog box.

***END NOTE

## 45.4 Consuming Web Services

.After a Web service is published, you can write a client program to use it. A client can be any program (standalone application, applet, servlet/JSP/JSF application, or another Web service) and written in any language.

We will use NetBeans to create a Web service client. Our client is a Java applet with a main method, so you can also run it standalone. The applet simply lets the user enter a name and displays the score, as shown in Figure 45.5.

![Figure 45.5](image)

**Figure 45.5**
The applet client uses the Web service to find scores.

Let us create a project for the client. The project named `ScoreWebServiceClientProject` can be created as follows:

Choose `File > New Project` to display the New Project dialog box. In the New Project dialog box, choose `Java` in the Categories pane and choose `Java Application` in the Projects pane. Click `Next` to display the New Java Application dialog box. Enter `ScoreWebServiceClientProject` as the project name, specify the location where you want the project to be stored, and uncheck the Create Main class check box. Click `Finish` to create the project.

.Side Remark: Web service reference

You need to create a Web service reference to this project. The reference will enable you to create a proxy object to interact with the Web service. Here are the steps to create a Web service reference:
Right-click the ScoreWebServiceClientProject in the Project pane to display a context menu. Choose **New > Web Service Client** to display the New Web Service Client dialog box, as shown in Figure 45.6.

Check the WSDL URL radio button and enter `http://localhost:8080/WebServiceProject/ScoreWebService?WSDL` in the WSDL URL field.

Enter myWebservice in the package name field and choose **JAX-WS** as the JAX version. Click **Finish** to generate the Web service reference.

**Figure 45.6**
The New Web Service Client dialog box creates a Web service reference.

Now you will see ScoreWebService created in the Web Service References folder in the Projects tab. The IDE has generated many supporting files for the reference. You can view all the generated .java files from the Files tab in the project pane, as shown in Figure 45.7. These files will be used by the proxy object to interact with the Web service.

**Figure 45.7**
You can see the automatically generated boilerplate code for Web services in the Generated Sources folder in the client’s project.
NOTE: When you created a Web service reference, you entered a WSDL URL, as shown in Figure 45.6. This creates a .wsdl file. In this case, it is named ScoreWebService.wsdl under the Web Service References folder, as shown in Figure 45.8. So what is WSDL? WSDL stands for Web Service Description Language. A .wsdl file is an XML file that describes the available Web service to the client—i.e., the remote methods, their parameters and return value types, and so on.

Figure 45.8
The .wsdl file describes Web services to clients.

NOTE: If the Web service is modified, you need to refresh the reference for the client. To do so, right-click the Web service node under Web Service References to display a context menu and choose Refresh Client.

Now you are ready to create an applet client for the Web service. Right-click the ScoreWebServiceClientProject node in the Project pane to display a context menu, and choose New › JApplet to create a Java applet named FindScoreApplet in package chapter45, as shown in Listing 45.2.

Listing 45.2 FindScoreApplet.java

```java
package chapter45;

import myWebservice.ScoreWebService;
import myWebservice.ScoreService;
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;

public class FindScoreApplet extends JApplet {
    // Declare a service object and a proxy object
    private ScoreWebService scoreWebService = new ScoreWebService();
    private ScoreService proxy = scoreWebService.getScoreServicePort();

    private JButton jbtGetScore = new JButton("Get Score");
```
private JTextField jtfName = new JTextField();
private JTextField jtfScore = new JTextField();

public void init() {
    JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
    jPanel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
    jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Name"));
    jPanel1.add(jtfName);
    jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Score"));
    jPanel1.add(jtfScore);
    add(jbtGetScore, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
    add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
}

jbtGetScore.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
    public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
        getScore();
    }
});

private void getScore() {
    try {
        // Get student score
        double score = proxy.findScore(jtfName.getText().trim());
        // Display the result
        if (score < 0)
            jtfScore.setText("Not found");
        else
            jtfScore.setText(new Double(score).toString());
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}

The program creates a Web service object (line 11) and creates a proxy object (line 12) to interact with the Web service.

To find a score for a student, the program invokes the remote method findScore on the proxy object (line 39).

45.5 Passing and Returning Arguments

<Side Remark: SOAP>
In the preceding example, a Web service client that you created invokes the findScore method with a string argument, and the Web service executes the method and returns a score as a double value. How does this work? It is the Simple Object Access Protocol (SOAP) that facilitates communications between the client and server.

<Side Remark: SOAP request>

<Side Remark: SOAP response>
SOAP is based on XML. The message between the client and server is described in XML. Figure 45.9 shows the SOAP request and SOAP response for the findScore method.
The client request and server response are described in XML.

When invoking the `findScore` method, a SOAP request is sent to the server. The request contains the information about the method and the argument. As shown in Figure 45.9, the XML text

```xml
<ns1:findScore>
  <arg0>Michael</arg0>
</ns1:findScore>
```

specifies that the method `findScore` is called with argument `Michael`.

Upon receiving the SOAP request, the Web service parses it. After parsing it, the Web service invokes an appropriate method with
specified arguments (if any) and sends the response back in a SOAP response. As shown in Figure 45.9, the XML text

```xml
<ns1:findScoreResponse>
  <return>100.0</return>
</ns1:findScoreResponse>
```

specifies that the method returns 100.0.

The proxy object receives the SOAP response from the Web service and parses it. This process is illustrated in Figure 45.10.

![Diagram of SOAP request and response](image_url)

**Figure 45.10**
A proxy object sends SOAP requests and receives SOAP responses.

**Side Remark: XML serialization**
**Side Remark: XML deserialization**

Can you pass an argument of any type between a client and a Web service? No. SOAP supports only primitive types, wrapper types, arrays, `String`, `Date`, `Time`, `List`, and several other types. It also supports certain custom classes. An object that is sent to or from a server is serialized into XML. The process of serializing/deserializing objects, called XML serialization/deserialization, is performed automatically. For a custom class to be used with Web methods, the class must meet the following requirements:

**Side Remark: no-arg constructor**
The class must have a no-arg constructor.

**Side Remark: get and set methods**
Instance variables that should be serialized must have public get and set methods. The classes of these variables must be supported by SOAP.

To demonstrate how to pass an object argument of a custom class, Listing 45.3 defines a Web service class named `AddressService` with two remote methods:

- `getAddress(String firstName, String lastName)` that returns an `Address` object for the specified `firstName` and `lastName`.
- `storeAddress(Address address)` that stores a `Student` object to the database.

Address information is stored in a table named `Address` in the database. The `Address` class was defined in Listing 42.12, `Address.java`. An `Address` object can be passed to or returned from a remote method, since the `Address` class has a no-arg constructor with get and set methods for all its properties.

Here are the steps to create a Web service named `AddressService` and the `Address` class in the project.

Right-click the `WebServiceProject` node in the project pane to display a context menu. Choose **New > Web Service** to display the New Web Service dialog box.

In the Web Service Name field, enter `AddressService`. In the Package field, enter **chapter45**. Click Finish to create the service class.
Right-click the WebServiceProject node in the project pane to display a context menu. Choose New > Java Class to display the New Java Class dialog box.
In the Class Name field, enter Address. In the Package field, enter chapter42. Click Finish to create the class.

The Address class is the same as shown in Listing 42.12. Complete the AddressService class as shown in Listing 45.3.

Listing 45.3 AddressService.java

```java
package chapter45;
import chapter42.Address;
import java.sql.*;
import javax.jws.WebMethod;
import javax.jws.WebService;

@WebService(name = "AddressService",
    serviceName = "AddressWebService")
public class AddressService {
    // statement1 for retrieving an address and statement2 for storing
    private PreparedStatement statement1;
    // statement2 for storing an address
    private PreparedStatement statement2;

    public AddressService() {
        initializeJdbc();
    }

    @WebMethod(operationName = "getAddress")
    public Address getAddress(String firstName, String lastName) {
        try {
            statement1.setString(1, firstName);
            statement1.setString(2, lastName);
            ResultSet resultSet = statement1.executeQuery();
            if (resultSet.next()) {
                Address address = new Address();
                address.setFirstName(resultSet.getString("firstName"));
                address.setLastName(resultSet.getString("lastName"));
                address.setMi(resultSet.getString("mi"));
                address.setTelephone(resultSet.getString("telephone"));
                address.setFirstName(resultSet.getString("email"));
                address.setCity(resultSet.getString("telephone"));
                address.setState(resultSet.getString("state"));
                address.setZip(resultSet.getString("zip"));
            }
        } catch (Exception e) {
            System.out.println(e.getMessage());
        }
        return address;
    }
}
```
The new Web service is named `AddressWebService` (line 9) for the `AddressService` class.

When the service is deployed, the constructor (lines 17-19) of `AddressWebService` is invoked to initialize a database connection and create prepared `statement1` and `statement2` (lines 68-85).
The `findAddress` method searches the address in the `Address` table for the specified `firstName` and `lastName`. If found, the address information is returned in an `Address` object (lines 29-38). Otherwise, the method returns `null` (line 41).

The `storeAddress` method stores the address information from the `Address` object into the database (lines 52-61).

**NOTE:**

<Side Remark: database driver>

Don't forget that you have to add the MySQL library to the `WebServiceProject` for this example to run.

Before you can use the service, deploy it. Right-click the `WebServiceProject` node in the Project to display a context menu and choose `Deploy`.

Now you are ready to develop a Web client that uses the `AddressWebService`. The client is a JSP program, as shown in Figure 45.11. The program has two functions. First, the user can enter the last name and first name and click the `Search` button to search for a record, as shown in Figure 45.12. Second, the user can enter the complete address information and click the `Store` button to store the information to the database, as shown in Figure 45.13.

![Figure 45.11](image1.png)

**Figure 45.11**

The `TestAddressWebService` page allows the user to search and store addresses.

![Figure 45.12](image2.png)

**Figure 45.12**

The `Search` button finds and displays an address.
Figure 45.13
The Store button stores the address to the database.

Let us create a project for the client. The project named AddressWebServiceClientProject can be created as follows:

Choose File › New Project to display the New Web Application dialog box.
In the New Web Application dialog box, choose Java Web in the Categories pane and choose Web Application in the Projects pane.
Click Next to display the Name and Location dialog box.
Enter AddressWebServiceClientProject as the project name, specify the location where you want the project to be stored, and uncheck the Set as Main Project check box. Click Next to display the Server and Settings dialog box.
Choose GlassFish Server 3 in the Server field, and Java EE 6 Web as in the Java EE Version field, and click Finish to create the project.

<Side Remark: Web service reference>
You need to create a Web service reference to this project. The reference will enable you to create a proxy object to interact with the Web service. Here are the steps to create a Web service reference:

Right-click the AddressWebServiceClientProject node in the Project pane to display a context menu. Choose New › Web Service Client to display the New Web Service Client dialog box.
Check the WSDL URL radio button and enter
http://localhost:8080/WebServiceProject/AddressWebService?WSDL
in the WSDL URL field.

3. Enter myWebservice in the package name field and choose JAX-WS as the JAX version. Click Finish to generate the Web service reference.

Now a reference to AddressWebService is created. Note that this process also copies Address.java to the client project, as shown in Figure 45.14.
The Address.java is automatically copied to the Web service client reference package.

Create a JSP named TestAddressWebService in the AddressWebServiceClientProject project, as shown in Listing 45.4.

Listing 45.4 TestAddressWebService.jsp

```html
<%@ page import = "myWebservice.Address" %>
<%@ page import = "myWebservice.AddressWebService" %>
<%@ page import = "myWebservice.AddressService" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "addressId"
    class = "myWebservice.Address" scope = "session"></jsp:useBean>
<jsp:setProperty name = "addressId" property = "*"/>

<html>
<head>
<title>Address Information</title>
</head>
<body>
<form method = "post" action = "TestAddressWebService.jsp">
```
Last Name <font color="#FF0000">*</font>  
<input type="text" name="lastName"><%if (addressId.getLastName() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getLastName() + \\
");%>
size = "20" />

First Name <font color="#FF0000">*</font>  
<input type="text" name="firstName"><%if (addressId.getFirstName() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getFirstName() + \\
");%>
size = "20" />

MI
<input type="text" name="mi"><%if (addressId.getMi() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getMi() + \\
");%>
size = "3" />

Telephone  
<input type="text" name="telephone"><%if (addressId.getTelephone() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getTelephone() + \\
");%>
size = "20" />

Email  
<input type="text" name="email"><%if (addressId.getEmail() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getEmail() + \\
");%>
size = "28" />

Street  
<input type="text" name="street"><%if (addressId.getStreet() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getStreet() + \\
");%>
size = "50" />

City  
<input type="text" name="city"><%if (addressId.getCity() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getCity() + \\
");%>
size = "23" />

State
<select size = "1" name = "state">
    <option value = "GA">Georgia-GA</option>
    <option value = "OK">Oklahoma-OK</option>
    <option value = "IN">Indiana-IN</option>
</select>

Zip  
<input type="text" name="zip"><%if (addressId.getZip() != null) {
    out.print("value = \\
 + addressId.getZip() + \\
");%>
size = "9" />
Lines 2-4 import the classes for the JSP page. The Address class (line 2) was created in the WebServiceProject and was automatically copied to the AddressWebServiceClientProject project when a Web service reference for AddressWebService was created. A JavaBeans object for Address was created and associated with input parameters in lines 5-7.

The UI interface was laid in the form (lines 14-77). The action for the two buttons Search and Store invokes the same page TestAddressWebService.jsp (line 14).

When a button is clicked, a proxy object for AddressWebService is obtained (lines 82-83). For the Store button, the proxy object invokes the storeAddress method to add an address to the database (line 86). For the Search button, the proxy object invokes the getAddress method to return an address (lines 91-92). If no address is found for the specified first and last names, the returned address is null (line 93).

45.6 Web Service Session Tracking

<Side Remark: HttpSession>

§42.8.3, "Session Tracking Using the Servlet API," introduced session tracking for servlets using the java.servlet.http.HttpSession interface. You can use HttpSession to implement session tracking for Web services. To demonstrate this, consider an example that generates random True/False
questions for the client and grades the answers on these questions for the client.

The Web client consists of two JSP pages: DisplayQuiz.jsp and GradeQuiz.jsp. The DisplayQuiz page invokes the service method getQuestion() to display the questions, as shown in Figure 45.15. When you click the Submit button, the program invokes the service method gradeQuiz to grade the answers. The result is displayed in the GradeQuiz page, as shown in Figure 45.16.

![Figure 45.15](http://example.com/display_quiz.png)
The Submit button submits the answers for grading.

![Figure 45.16](http://example.com/grade_quiz.png)
The answers are graded and displayed.

Why is session tracking needed for this project? Each time a client displays a quiz, it creates a randomly reordered quiz for the client. Each client gets a different quiz every time the DisplayQuiz page is refreshed. When the client submits the answer, the Web service checks the answer against the previously generated quiz. So the quiz has to be stored in the session.

For convenience, let us create the Web service class named QuizService in the WebServiceProject in package chapter45. Listing 45.5 gives the program.

Listing 45.5 QuizService.java

```java
<Side Remark line 9: enable session tracking>
<Side Remark line 10: define service name>
<Side Remark line 12: quiz>
<Side Remark line 16: initialize quiz>
<Side Remark line 28: shuffle>
<Side Remark line 31: define service method>
<Side Remark line 32: getQuestions>
<Side Remark line 42: define service method>
<Side Remark line 43: gradeQuiz>
<Side Remark line 46: check answers>

package chapter45;

import javax.jws.WebMethod;
import javax.jws.WebService;
```
The Web service class named QuizService contains two methods
getQuestions and gradeQuiz. The new Web service is named
QuizWebService (line 10).

The annotation @HttpSessionScope (line 9) is new in JAX-WS 2.2,
which enables the Web service automatically maintains a separate
instance for each client session. To use this annotation, you have add JAX-WS 2.2 into your project’s library. This can be done by
clicking the Library node in the project and select Add Library.

<Side Remark: creating a quiz>
Assume that five True/False questions are available from the service. The quiz is stored in an `ArrayList` (lines 16-25). Each element in the list is an array with two values. The first value is a string that describes the question and the second is a Boolean value indicating whether the answer should be true or false.

**Side Remark: randomly shuffling**
A new quiz is generated in the constructor and the quiz is shuffled using the shuffle method in the Collections class (line 28).

**Side Remark: getQuestions**
The `getQuestions` method (lines 31-40) returns questions in a list. The questions are extracted from the quiz (lines 34-37) and are returned (line 39).

**Side Remark: gradeQuiz**
The `gradeQuiz` method (lines 42-49) checks the answers from the client with the answers in the quiz. The client’s answers are compared with the key, and the result of the grading is stored in a list. Each element in the list is a boolean value that indicates whether the answer is correct or incorrect (lines 44-46).

**Side Remark: create Web service client**
After creating and publishing the Web service, let us create a project for the client. The project named `QuizWebServiceClientProject` can be created as follows:

Choose `File › New Project` to display the New Web Application dialog box. In the New Web Application dialog box, choose `Java Web` in the Categories pane and choose `Web Application` in the Projects pane. Click `Next` to display the Name and Location dialog box. Enter `QuizWebServiceClientProject` as the project name, specify the location where you want the project to be stored, and uncheck the `Set as Main Project` check box. Click `Next` to display the Server and Settings dialog box. Choose `GlassFish Server 3` in the Server field, and `Java EE 6 Web` as in the Java EE Version field, and click `Finish` to create the project.

**Side Remark: Web service reference**
To use `QuizWebService`, you need to create a Web service client as follows:

Right-click the `QuizWebServiceClientProject` project in the Project pane to display a context menu. Choose `New › Web Service Client` to display the New Web Service Client dialog box. Check the WSDL URL radio button and enter

```
http://localhost:8080/WebServiceProject/QuizWebService?WSDL
```

in the WSDL URL field. Enter `myWebservice` in the Package field. Click `Finish` to create the reference for `QuizWebService`.

Now a reference to `QuizWebService` is created. You can create a proxy object to access the remote methods in `QuizService`. Listings 45.6 and 45.7 show DisplayQuiz.jsp and GradeQuiz.jsp.

Listing 45.6 DisplayQuiz.jsp

```java
<Side Remark line 2: import QuizWebService>
<Side Remark line 3: import QuizServices>
```
Listing 45.7 GradeQuiz.jsp

This page generates a quiz by invoking the `getQuestions()` in lines 12-13. The questions are displayed in a table with radio buttons (lines 16-32). Clicking Submit invokes GradeQuiz.jsp.
<Side Remark line 28: analyze result>

<!-- GradeQuiz.jsp -->
<%@ page import = "myWebservice.QuizWebService" %>
<%@ page import = "myWebservice.QuizService" %>
<jsp:useBean id = "quizWebService" scope = "session"
   class = "myWebservice.QuizWebService">
</jsp:useBean>

<html>
<body>
<br>
QuizService proxy = quizWebService.getQuizServicePort();
java.util.List<String> quiz = proxy.getQuestions();

// Get the answer from the DisplayQuiz page
java.util.List<java.util.ArrayList<Boolean>> answers = new java.util.ArrayList<Boolean>();
for (int i = 0; i < quiz.size(); i++) {
    String trueOrFalse = request.getParameter("question" + i);
    if (trueOrFalse.equals("True"))
        answers.add(true); // Answered true
    else if (trueOrFalse.equals("False"))
        answers.add(false); // Answered false
}

// Grade answers
java.util.List<Boolean> result = proxy.gradeQuiz(answers);

// Find the correct count
int correctCount = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < result.size(); i++) {
    if (result.get(i))
        correctCount++;
}

Out of <%= result.size() %> questions, <%= correctCount %> correct.
</body>
</html>

This page collects the answers passed from the HTML form from the DisplayQuiz page (lines 15-21), invokes the gradeQuiz method to grade the quiz (line 25), finds the correct count (lines 28-31), and displays the result (line 35).

NOTE:
You need to answer all five questions before clicking the Submit button. A runtime error will occur if a radio button is not checked. You can fix this problem in Exercise 45.5.

Key Terms

- @WebService
- @WebMethod
- consuming a Web service
- proxy object
- publishing a Web service
Chapter Summary

1. Web services enable a Java program on one system to invoke a method in an object on another system.
2. Web services are platform and language independent. You can develop and use Web services using any language.
3. Web services run on the Web using HTTP. SOAP is a popular protocol for implementing Web services.
4. The server needs to make the service available to the client, known as publishing a Web service. Using a Web service from a client is known as consuming a Web service.
5. A client interacts with a Web service through a proxy object. The proxy object facilitates the communication between the client and the Web service.
6. You need to use Java annotation @WebService to annotate a Web service and use annotation @WebMethod to annotate a remote method.
7. A Web service class may have an unlimited number of remote methods.
8. After a Web service is published, you can write a client program to use it. You have to first create a Web client reference. From the reference, you create a proxy object for facilitating communication between a server and a client.
9. WSDL stands for Web Service Description Language. A .wsdl file is an XML file that describes the available Web service to the client—i.e., the remote methods, their parameters and return value types, and so on.
10. The message between the client and server is described in XML. A SOAP request describes the information that is sent to the Web service and a SOAP response describes the information that is received from the Web service.
11. The objects passed between client and Web service are serialized in XML. Not all object types are supported by SOAP.
12. You can track sessions in Web services using the HttpSession in the same way as in servlets.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Section 45.1
45.1 What is a Web service?

45.2 Can you invoke a Web service from a language other than Java?

45.3 Do Web services support callback? That is, can a Web service call a method from a client’s program?

45.4 What is SOAP? What is it to publish a Web service? What is it to consume a Web service? What is the role of a proxy object?

Sections 45.2–45.6
45.5 What is the annotation to specify a Web service? What is the annotation to specify a Web method?

45.6 How do you deploy a Web service in NetBeans?
45.7 Can you test a Web service from a client?

45.8 How do you create a Web service reference for a client?

45.9 What is WSDL? What is SOAP? What is a SOAP request? What is a SOAP response?

45.10 Can you pass primitive type arguments to a remote method? Can you pass any object type to a remote method? Can you pass an argument of a custom type to a remote method?

45.11 How do you obtain an HttpSession object for tracking a Web session?

45.12 Can you create two Web service references in one package in the same project in NetBeans?

45.13 What happens if you don’t clone the quiz in lines 40-41 in Listing 45.5, QuizService.java?

Programming Exercises

45.1* (Get a score from a database table) Suppose that the scores are stored in the Scores table. The table was created as follows:

```
create table Scores (name varchar(20),
    score number, permission boolean);
```

```
insert into Scores values ('John', 90.5, 1);
insert into Scores values ('Michael', 100, 1);
insert into Scores values ('Michelle', 100, 0);
```

Revise the findScore method in Listing 45.1, ScoreService.java, to obtain a score for the specified name. Note that your program does not need the permission column; ignore it. The next exercise will need the permission column.

45.2* (Permission to find scores) Revise the preceding exercise so that the findScore method returns -1 if permission is false. Add a another method named getPermission(String name) that returns 1, 0, or -1. The method returns 1 if the student is in the Scores table and permission is true, 0 if the student is in the Scores table and permission is false, and -1 if the student is not in the Scores table.

45.3* (Compute loan) You can compute a loan payment for a loan with the specified amount, number of years, and annual interest rate. Write a Web service with two remote methods for computing monthly payment and total payment. Write a client program that prompts the user to enter loan amount, number of years, and annual interest rate.

45.4* (Web service visit count) Write a Web service with a method named getCount() that returns the number of the times this method has been invoked from a client. Use a session to store the count variable.
(Quiz) The user needs to answer all five questions before clicking the Submit button in the Quiz application in §45.6, Web Service Session Tracking. A runtime error will occur if a radio button is not checked. Fix this problem.
CHAPTER 46

Remote Method Invocation

Objectives

- To explain how RMI works (§46.2).
- To describe the process of developing RMI applications (§46.3).
- To distinguish between RMI and socket-level programming (§46.4).
- To develop three-tier applications using RMI (§46.5).
- To use callbacks to develop interactive applications (§46.6).
46.1 Introduction
Remote Method Invocation (RMI) provides a framework for building distributed Java systems. Using RMI, a Java object on one system can invoke a method in an object on another system on the network. A distributed Java system can be defined as a collection of cooperative distributed objects on the network. In this chapter, you will learn how to use RMI to create useful distributed applications.

46.2 RMI Basics
RMI is the Java Distributed Object Model for facilitating communications among distributed objects. RMI is a higher-level API built on top of sockets. Socket-level programming allows you to pass data through sockets among computers. RMI enables you also to invoke methods in a remote object. Remote objects can be manipulated as if they were residing on the local host. The transmission of data among different machines is handled by the JVM transparently.

In many ways, RMI is an evolution of the client/server architecture. A client is a component that issues requests for services, and a server is a component that delivers the requested services. Like the client/server architecture, RMI maintains the notion of clients and servers, but the RMI approach is more flexible.

- An RMI component can act as both a client and a server, depending on the scenario in question.
- An RMI system can pass functionality from a server to a client, and vice versa. Typically a client/server system only passes data back and forth between server and client.

46.2.1 How Does RMI Work?
All the objects you have used before this chapter are called local objects. Local objects are accessible only within the local host. Objects that are accessible from a remote host are called remote objects. For an object to be invoked remotely, it must be defined in a Java interface accessible to both the server and the client. Furthermore, the interface must extend the java.rmi.Remote interface. Like the java.io.Serializable interface, java.rmi.Remote is a marker interface that contains no constants or methods. It is used only to identify remote objects. The key components of the RMI architecture are listed below (see Figure 46.1):

- **Server object interface**: A subinterface of java.rmi.Remote that defines the methods for the server object.
- **Server class**: A class that implements the remote object interface.
- **Server object**: An instance of the server class.
- **RMI registry**: A utility that registers remote objects and provides naming services for locating objects.
- **Client program**: A program that invokes the methods in the remote server object.
• **Server stub**: An object that resides on the client host and serves as a surrogate for the remote server object.

• **Server skeleton**: An object that resides on the server host and communicates with the stub and the actual server object.

---

**Figure 46.1**

Java RMI uses a registry to provide naming services for remote objects, and uses the stub and the skeleton to facilitate communications between client and server.

RMI works as follows:
1. A server object is registered with the RMI registry.
2. A client looks through the RMI registry for the remote object.
3. Once the remote object is located, its stub is returned in the client.
4. The remote object can be used in the same way as a local object. Communication between the client and the server is handled through the stub and the skeleton.

*Side Remark: stub*

*Side Remark: skeleton*

The implementation of the RMI architecture is complex, but the good news is that RMI provides a mechanism that liberates you from writing the tedious code for handling parameter passing and invoking remote methods. The basic idea is to use two helper classes known as the stub and the skeleton for handling communications between client and server.

The stub and the skeleton are automatically generated. The stub resides on the client machine. It contains all the reference information the client needs to know about the server object. When a client invokes a method on a server object, it actually invokes a method that is encapsulated in the stub. The stub is responsible for sending parameters to the server and for receiving the result from the server and returning it to the client.

The skeleton communicates with the stub on the server side. The skeleton receives parameters from the client, passes them to the server for execution, and returns the result to the stub.

46.2.2 Passing Parameters
When a client invokes a remote method with parameters, passing the parameters is handled by the stub and the skeleton. Obviously, invoking methods in a remote object on a server is very different from invoking methods in a local object on a client, since the remote object is in a different address space on a separate machine. Let us consider three types of parameters:

**Side Remark: primitive type**
- **Primitive data types**, such as `char`, `int`, `double`, or `boolean`, are passed by value like a local call.

**Side Remark: local object**
- **Local object types**, such as `java.lang.String`, are also passed by value, but this is completely different from passing an object parameter in a local call. In a local call, an object parameter’s reference is passed, which corresponds to the memory address of the object. In a remote call, there is no way to pass the object reference, because the address on one machine is meaningless to a different JVM. Any object can be used as a parameter in a remote call as long as it is serializable. The stub serializes the object parameter and sends it in a stream across the network. The skeleton deserializes the stream into an object.

**Side Remark: remote object**
- **Remote object types** are passed differently from local objects. When a client invokes a remote method with a parameter of a remote object type, the stub of the remote object is passed. The server receives the stub and manipulates the parameter through it. Passing remote objects will be discussed in §46.6, “RMI Callbacks.”

### 46.2.3 RMI Registry

How does a client locate the remote object? The RMI registry provides the registry services for the server to register the object and for the client to locate the object.

You can use several overloaded static `getRegistry()` methods in the `LocateRegistry` class to return a reference to a Registry, as shown in Figure 46.2. Once a `Registry` is obtained, you can bind an object with a unique name in the registry using the `bind` or `rebind` method or locate an object using the `lookup` method, as shown in Figure 46.3.

```java
java.rmi.registry.LocateRegistry
+getRegistry(): Registry
+getRegistry(port: int): Registry
+getRegistry(host: String): Registry
+getRegistry(host: String, port: int): Registry
```

**Figure 46.2**
The `LocateRegistry` class provides the methods for obtaining a registry on a host.
Figure 46.3
The Registry class provides the methods for binding and obtaining references to remote objects in a remote object registry.

46.3 Developing RMI Applications
Now that you have a basic understanding of RMI, you are ready to write simple RMI applications. The steps in developing an RMI application are shown in Figure 46.4 and listed below.

1. Define a server object interface that serves as the contract between the server and its clients, as shown in the following outline:

   ```java
   public interface ServerInterface extends Remote {
       public void service1(...) throws RemoteException;
       // Other methods
   }
   ```

   A server object interface must extend the `java.rmi.Remote` interface.

2. Define a class that implements the server object interface, as shown in the following outline:

   ```java
   public class ServerInterfaceImpl extends UnicastRemoteObject implements ServerInterface {
       public void service1(...) throws RemoteException {
           // Implement it
       }
       // Implement other methods
   }
   ```

   The server implementation class must extend the `java.rmi.server.UnicastRemoteObject` class. The `UnicastRemoteObject` class provides support for point-to-point active object references using TCP streams.

3. Create a server object from the server implementation class and register it with an RMI registry:
ServerInterface server = new ServerInterfaceImpl(...);
Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry();
registry.rebind("RemoteObjectName", server);

4. Develop a client that locates a remote object and invokes its methods, as shown in the following outline:

Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry(host);
ServerInterface server = (ServerInterfaceImpl)
registry.lookup("RemoteObjectName");
server.service1(...);

The example that follows demonstrates the development of an RMI application through these steps.

46.3.1 Example: Retrieving Student Scores from an RMI Server

This example creates a client that retrieves student scores from an RMI server. The client, shown in Figure 46.5, displays the score for the specified name.

(a) Running as applet.  (b) Running as application.

Figure 46.5
You can get the score by entering a student name and clicking the Get Score button.

1. Create a server interface named StudentServerInterface in Listing 46.1. The interface tells the client how to invoke the server's findScore method to retrieve a student score.

Listing 46.1 StudentServerInterface.java
<Side Remark line 3: subinterface>
<Side Remark line 9: server method>
import java.rmi.*;

public interface StudentServerInterface extends Remote {
    /**
     * Return the score for the specified name
     * @param name the student name
     * @return a double score or -1 if the student is not found
     */
    public double findScore(String name) throws RemoteException;
}

Any object that can be used remotely must be defined in an interface that extends the java.rmi.Remote interface (line 3). StudentServerInterface, extending Remote, defines the findScore method that can be remotely invoked by a client to find a student's score. Each method in this interface must declare that it may throw a java.rmi.RemoteException (line 9). Therefore your client code that invokes this method must be prepared to catch this exception in a try-catch block.
2. Create a server implementation named 
StudentServerInterfaceImpl (Listing 46.2) that implements 
StudentServerInterface. The findScore method returns the score 
for a specified student. It returns -1 if the score is not found.

Listing 46.2 StudentServerInterfaceImpl.java

import java.rmi.*;
import java.rmi.server.*;
import java.util.*;

public class StudentServerInterfaceImpl
extends UnicastRemoteObject
implements StudentServerInterface {
    // Stores scores in a map indexed by name
    private HashMap<String, Double> scores =
            new HashMap<String, Double>();

    public StudentServerInterfaceImpl() throws RemoteException {
        initializeStudent();
    }

    /** Initialize student information */
    protected void initializeStudent() {
        scores.put("John", new Double(90.5));
        scores.put("Michael", new Double(100));
        scores.put("Michelle", new Double(98.5));
    }

    /** Implement the findScore method from the 
    * Student interface */
    public double findScore(String name) throws RemoteException {
        Double d = (Double)scores.get(name);
        if (d == null) {
            System.out.println("Student " + name + " is not found ");
            return -1;
        }
        else {
            System.out.println("Student " + name + "'s score is "+ d.doubleValue());
            return d.doubleValue();
        }
    }

    The StudentServerInterfaceImpl class implements 
StudentServerInterface. This class must also extend the 
is an abstract class that defines the methods needed to create 
and export remote objects. Often its subclass 
java.rmi.server.UnicastRemoteObject is used (line 6). This 
subclass implements all the abstract methods defined in 
RemoteServer.
StudentServerInterfaceImpl implements the findScore method (lines 25-37) defined in StudentServerInterface. For simplicity, three students, John, Michael, and Michelle, and their corresponding scores are stored in an instance of java.util.HashMap named scores. HashMap is a concrete class of the Map interface in the Java Collections Framework, which makes it possible to search and retrieve a value using a key. Both values and keys are of Object type. The findScore method returns the score if the name is in the hash map, and returns -1 if the name is not found.

3. Create a server object from the server implementation and register it with the RMI server (Listing 46.3).

Listing 46.3 RegisterWithRMIServer.java

```java
import java.rmi.registry.*;

public class RegisterWithRMIServer {
    /** Main method */
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            StudentServerInterface obj = new StudentServerInterfaceImpl();
            Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry();
            registry.rebind("StudentServerInterfaceImpl", obj);
            System.out.println("Student server " + obj + " registered");
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}
```

RegisterWithRMIServer contains a main method, which is responsible for starting the server. It performs the following tasks: (1) create a server object (line 8); (2) obtain a reference to the RMI registry (line 9), and (3) register the object in the registry (line 10).

4. Create a client as an applet named StudentServerInterfaceClient in Listing 46.4. The client locates the server object from the RMI registry and uses it to find the scores.

Listing 46.4 StudentServerInterfaceClient.java

```java
import javax.swing.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import java.rmi.registry.LocateRegistry;
```

import java.rmi.registry.Registry;

public class StudentServerInterfaceClient extends JApplet {
    // Declare a Student instance
    private StudentServerInterface student;

    private boolean isStandalone; // Is applet or application

    private JButton jbtGetScore = new JButton("Get Score");
    private JTextField jtfName = new JTextField();
    private JTextField jtfScore = new JTextField();

    public void init() {
        // Initialize RMI
        initializeRMI();

        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
        jPanel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(2, 2));
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Name"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfName);
        jPanel1.add(new JLabel("Score"));
        jPanel1.add(jtfScore);
        add(jbtGetScore, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);

        jbtGetScore.addActionListener(new ActionListener() {
            public void actionPerformed(ActionEvent evt) {
                getScore();
            }
        });
    }

    private void getScore() {
        try {
            // Get student score
            double score = student.findScore(jtfName.getText().trim());

            // Display the result
            if (score < 0)
                jtfScore.setText("Not found");
            else
                jtfScore.setText(new Double(score).toString());
        }
        catch(Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }

    /** Initialize RMI */
    protected void initializeRMI() {
        String host = ";
        if (!isStandalone) host = getCodeBase().getHost();

        try {
            Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry(host);
```java
    student = (StudentServerInterface)
    registry.lookup("StudentServerInterfaceImpl");
    System.out.println("Server object " + student + " found");
}
  }
  catch(Exception ex) {
    System.out.println(ex);
  }
}

/** Main method */
public static void main(String[] args) {
  StudentServerInterfaceClient applet =
    new StudentServerInterfaceClient();
  applet.isStandalone = true;
  JFrame frame = new JFrame();
  frame.setTitle("StudentServerInterfaceClient");
  frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
  frame.setSize(250, 150);
  applet.init();
  frame.setLocationRelativeTo(null);
  frame.setVisible(true);
  frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(3);
}

StudentServerInterfaceClient invokes the findScore method on the
server to find the score for a specified student. The key method
in StudentServerInterfaceClient is the initializeRMI method
(lines 55-68), which is responsible for locating the server stub.

The initializeRMI() method treats standalone applications
differently from applets. The host name should be the name where
the applet is downloaded. It can be obtained using the Applet's
getCodeBase().getHost() (line 52). For standalone applications,
the host name should be specified explicitly.

The lookup(String name) method (line 62) returns the remote
object with the specified name. Once a remote object is found, it
can be used just like a local object. The stub and the skeleton
are used behind the scenes to make the remote method invocation
work.

5. Follow the steps below to run this example.

5.1. Start the RMI Registry by typing "start rmiregistry" at a DOS
prompt from the book directory. By default, the port number 1099 is
used by rmiregistry. To use a different port number, simply type the
command "start rmiregistry portnumber" at a DOS prompt.

5.2. Start the server RegisterWithRMIServer using the following command
at C:\book directory:

C:\book>java RegisterWithRMIServer

5.3. Run the client StudentServerInterfaceClient as an application. A
sample run of the application is shown in Figure 46.5(b).
```
5.4. Run the client StudentServerInterfaceClient.html from the appletviewer. A sample run is shown in Figure 46.5(a).

NOTE: You must start rmiregistry from the directory where you will run the RMI server, as shown in Figure 46.6. Otherwise, you will receive the error ClassNotFoundException on StudentServerInterfaceImpl_Stub.

Figure 46.6
To run an RMI program, first start the RMI Registry, then register the server object with the registry. The client locates it from the registry.

NOTE: Server, registry, and client can be on three different machines. If you run the client and the server on separate machines, you need to place StudentServerInterface on both machines. If you deploy the client as an applet, place all client files on the registry host.

CAUTION: If you modify the remote object implementation class, you need to restart the server class to reload the object to the RMI registry. In some old versions of rmiregistry, you may have to restart rmiregistry.

46.4 RMI vs. Socket-Level Programming
RMI enables you to program at a higher level of abstraction. It hides the details of socket server, socket, connection, and sending or receiving data. It even implements a multithreaded server under the hood, whereas with socket-level programming you have to explicitly implement threads for handling multiple clients.

RMI applications are scalable and easy to maintain. You can change the RMI server or move it to another machine without modifying the client program except for resetting the URL to locate the server. (To avoid resetting the URL, you can modify the client to pass the URL as a command-line parameter.) In socket-level programming, a client operation to send data requires a server operation to read it. The implementation of client and server at the socket level is tightly synchronized.
RMI clients can directly invoke the server method, whereas socket-level programming is limited to passing values. Socket-level programming is very primitive. Avoid using it to develop client/server applications. As an analogy, socket-level programming is like programming in assembly language, while RMI programming is like programming in a high-level language.

46.5 Developing Three-Tier Applications Using RMI

Three-tier applications have gained considerable attention in recent years, largely because of the demand for more scalable and load-balanced systems to replace traditional two-tier client/server database systems. A centralized database system does not just handle data access, it also processes the business rules on data. Thus, a centralized database is usually heavily loaded, because it requires extensive data manipulation and processing. In some situations, data processing is handled by the client and business rules are stored on the client side. It is preferable to use a middle tier as a buffer between client and database. The middle tier can be used to apply business logic and rules, and to process data to reduce the load on the database.

A three-tier architecture does more than just reduce the processing load on the server. It also provides access to multiple network sites. This is especially useful to Java applets that need to access multiple databases on different servers, since an applet can connect only with the server from which it is downloaded.

To demonstrate, let us rewrite the example in §46.3.1, “Example: Retrieving Student Scores from an RMI Server,” to find scores stored in a database rather than a hash map. In addition, the system is capable of blocking a client from accessing a student who has not given the university permission to publish his/her score. An RMI component is developed to serve as a middle tier between client and database; it sends a search request to the database, processes the result, and returns an appropriate value to the client.

For simplicity, this example reuses the StudentServerInterface interface and StudentServerInterfaceClient class from §46.3.1 with no modifications. All you have to do is to provide a new implementation for the server interface and create a program to register the server with the RMI. Here are the steps to complete the program:

1. Store the scores in a database table named Score that contains three columns: name, score, and permission. The permission value is 1 or 0, which indicates whether the student has given the university permission to release his/her grade. The following is the statement to create the table and insert three records:

```sql
create table Scores (name varchar(20),
    score number, permission number);

insert into Scores values ('John', 90.5, 1);
insert into Scores values ('Michael', 100, 1);
insert into Scores values ('Michelle', 100, 0);
```
2. Create a new server implementation named `Student3TierImpl` in Listing 46.5. The server retrieves a record from the `Scores` table, processes the retrieved information, and sends the result back to the client.

Listing 46.5 Student3TierImpl.java

```java
import java.rmi.*;
import java.rmi.server.*;
import java.sql.*;

public class Student3TierImpl extends UnicastRemoteObject
       implements StudentServerInterface {
    // Use prepared statement for querying DB
    private PreparedStatement pstmt;

    /** Constructs Student3TierImpl object and exports it on * default port. */
    public Student3TierImpl() throws RemoteException {
        initializeDB();
    }

    /** Constructs Student3TierImpl object and exports it on * specified port. */
    public Student3TierImpl(int port) throws RemoteException {
        super(port);
        initializeDB();
    }

    /** Load JDBC driver, establish connection and * create statement */
    protected void initializeDB() {
        try {
            // Load the JDBC driver
            // Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver");
            Class.forName("com.mysql.jdbc.Driver");

            System.out.println("Driver registered");

            // Establish connection
            // *Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
            // ("jdbc:oracle:thin:@drake.armstrong.edu:1521:orcl","scott","tiger");
            Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
            ("jdbc:mysql://localhost/javabook", "scott", "tiger");

            System.out.println("Database connected");

            // Create a prepared statement for querying DB
            pstmt = conn.prepareStatement("select * from Scores where name = ?");
```
```java
/** Return the score for specified the name
 * Return -1 if score is not found.
 */
public double findScore(String name) throws RemoteException {
    double score = -1;
    try {
        // Set the specified name in the prepared statement
        pstmt.setString(1, name);

        // Execute the prepared statement
        ResultSet rs = pstmt.executeQuery();

        // Retrieve the score
        if (rs.next()) {
            if (rs.getBoolean(3))
                score = rs.getDouble(2);
        }
    }
    catch (SQLException ex) {
        System.out.println(ex);
    }
    catch (Exception ex) {
        System.out.println(ex);
    }
    System.out.println(name + "'s score is " + score);
    return score;
}
```

Student3TierImpl is similar to StudentServerInterfaceImpl in §46.3.1 except that the Student3TierImpl class finds the score from a JDBC data source instead from a hash map.

The table named Scores consists of three columns, name, score, and permission, where the latter indicates whether the student has given permission to show his/her score. Since SQL does not support a boolean type, permission is defined as a number whose value of 1 indicates true and of 0 indicates false.

The initializeDB() method (lines 28-42) establishes connections with the database and creates a prepared statement for processing the query.

The findScore method (lines 47-68) sets the name in the prepared statement, executes the statement, processes the result, and returns the score for a student whose permission is true.

3. Write a main method in the class RegisterStudent3TierServer (Listing 46.6) that registers the server object using StudentServerInterfaceImpl, the same name as in Listing 46.2, so that you can use StudentServerInterfaceClient, created in §46.3.1, to test the server.

Listing 46.6 RegisterStudent3TierServer.java

<Side Remark line 7: registry on localhost>

14
import java.rmi.registry.*;

public class RegisterStudent3TierServer {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        try {
            StudentServerInterface obj = new Student3TierImpl();
            Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry();
            registry.rebind("StudentServerInterfaceImpl", obj);
            System.out.println("Student server " + obj + " registered");
        } catch (Exception ex) {
            ex.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}

4. Follow the steps below to run this example.
4.1. Start RMI Registry by typing "start rmiregistry" at a DOS prompt from the book directory.

4.2. Start the server RegisterStudent3TierServer using the following command at the C:\book directory:

C:\book>java RegisterStudent3TierServer

4.3. Run the client StudentServerInterfaceClient as an application or applet. A sample run is shown in Figure 46.6.

46.6 RMI Callbacks

In a traditional client/server system, a client sends a request to a server, and the server processes the request and returns the result to the client. The server cannot invoke the methods on a client. One important benefit of RMI is that it supports callbacks, which enable the server to invoke methods on the client. With the RMI callback feature, you can develop interactive distributed applications.

In §30.9, "Case Studies: Distributed TicTacToe Games," you developed a distributed TicTacToe game using stream socket programming. The example that follows demonstrates the use of the RMI callback feature to develop an interactive TicTacToe game.

All the examples you have seen so far in this chapter have simple behaviors that are easy to model with classes. The behavior of the TicTacToe game is somewhat complex. To create the classes to model the game, you need to study and understand it and distribute the process appropriately between client and server.

Clearly the client should be responsible for handling user interactions, and the server should coordinate with the client. Specifically, the client should register with the server, and the server can take two and only two players. Once a client makes a move, it should notify the server; the server then notifies the move to the other player. The server should determine the status of the game—that is, whether it has been won or drawn—and notify the players. The server should also coordinate the turns—that is, which client has the turn at a given time. The ideal approach for
notifying a player is to invoke a method in the client that sets appropriate properties in the client or sends messages to a player. Figure 46.7 illustrates the relationship between clients and server.

Figure 46.7
The server coordinates the activities with the clients.

All the calls a client makes can be encapsulated in one remote interface named TicTacToe (Listing 46.7), and all the calls the server invokes can be defined in another interface named CallBack (Listing 46.8). These two interfaces are defined as follows:

Listing 46.7 TicTacToeInterface.java

```java
import java.rmi.*;

public interface TicTacToeInterface extends Remote {
   /**
   * Connect to the TicTacToe server and return the token.
   * If the returned token is ' ', the client is not connected to
   * the server
   */
   public char connect(CallBack client) throws RemoteException;

   /** A client invokes this method to notify the server of its move*/
   public void myMove(int row, int column, char token)
   throws RemoteException;
}
```

Listing 46.8 CallBack.java

```java
import java.rmi.*;

```
public interface CallBack extends Remote {
    /** The server notifies the client for taking a turn */
    public void takeTurn(boolean turn) throws RemoteException;

    /** The server sends a message to be displayed by the client */
    public void notify(java.lang.String message)
        throws RemoteException;

    /** The server notifies a client of the other player's move */
    public void mark(int row, int column, char token)
        throws RemoteException;
}

What does a client need to do? The client interacts with the player. Assume that all the cells are initially empty, and that the first player takes the X token and the second player the O token. To mark a cell, the player points the mouse to the cell and clicks it. If the cell is empty, the token (X or O) is displayed. If the cell is already filled, the player's action is ignored.

From the preceding description, it is obvious that a cell is a GUI object that handles mouse-click events and displays tokens. The candidate for such an object could be a button or a panel. Panels are more flexible than buttons. The token (X or O) can be drawn on a panel in any size, but it can be displayed only as a label on a button.

Let Cell be a subclass of JPanel. You can declare a 3 × 3 grid to be an array Cell[][] cell = new Cell[3][3] for modeling the game. How do you know the state of a cell (marked or not)? You can use a property named marked of the boolean type in the Cell class. How do you know whether the player has a turn? You can use a property named myTurn of boolean. This property (initially false) can be set by the server through a callback.

The Cell class is responsible for drawing the token when an empty cell is clicked, so you need to write the code for listening to the MouseEvent and for painting the shape for tokens X and O. To determine which shape to draw, introduce a variable named marker of the char type. Since this variable is shared by all the cells in a client, it is preferable to declare it in the client and to declare the Cell class as an inner class of the client so that this variable will be accessible to all the cells.

Now let us turn our attention to the server side. What does the server need to do? The server needs to implement TicTacToeInterface and notify the clients of the game status. The server has to record the moves in the cells and check the status every time a player makes a move. The status information can be kept in a 3 × 3 array of char. You can implement a method named isFull() to check whether the board is full and a method named isWon(token) to check whether a specific player has won.

Once a client is connected to the server, the server notifies the client which token to use—that is, X for the first client and O for the second. Once a client notifies the server of its move, the server checks the game status and notifies the clients.
Now the most critical question is how the server notifies a client. You know that a client invokes a server method by creating a server stub on the client side. A server cannot directly invoke a client, because the client is not declared as a remote object. The CallBack interface was created to facilitate the server’s callback to the client. In the implementation of CallBack, an instance of the client is passed as a parameter in the constructor of CallBack. The client creates an instance of CallBack and passes its stub to the server, using a remote method named connect() defined in the server. The server then invokes the client’s method through a CallBack instance. The triangular relationship of client, CallBack implementation, and server is shown in Figure 46.8.

Figure 46.8
The server receives a CallBack stub from the client and invokes the remote methods defined in the CallBack interface, which can invoke the methods defined in the client.

Here are the steps to complete the example.

1. Create TicTacToeImpl.java (Listing 46.9) to implement TicTacToeInterface. Add a main method in the program to register the server with the RMI.

Listing 46.9 TicTacToeImpl.java

```java
import java.rmi.*;
```
import java.rmi.server.*;
import java.rmi.registry.*;
import java.rmi.registry.*;

public class TicTacToeImpl extends UnicastRemoteObject
        implements TicTacToeInterface {
    // Declare two players, used to call players back
    private CallBack player1 = null;
    private CallBack player2 = null;

    // board records players' moves
    private char[][] board = new char[3][3];

    /** Constructs TicTacToeImpl object and exports it on default port. */
    public TicTacToeImpl() throws RemoteException {
        super();
    }

    /** Constructs TicTacToeImpl object and exports it on specified * port.
     * @param port The port for exporting *
     */
    public TicTacToeImpl(int port) throws RemoteException {
        super(port);
    }

    /** Connect to the TicTacToe server and return the token.
     * If the returned token is ' ', the client is not connected to
     * the server
     */
    public char connect(CallBack client) throws RemoteException {
        if (player1 == null) {
            // player1 (first player) registered
            player1 = client;
            player1.notify("Wait for a second player to join");
            return 'X';
        }
        else if (player2 == null) {
            // player2 (second player) registered
            player2 = client;
            player2.notify("Wait for the first player to move");
            player2.takeTurn(false);
            player1.notify("It is my turn (X token)";
            player1.takeTurn(true);
            return 'O';
        }
        else {
            // Already two players
            client.notify("Two players are already in the game");
            return ' ';
        }
    }

    /** A client invokes this method to notify the server of its move*/
    public void myMove(int row, int column, char token)
            throws RemoteException {
        // Set token to the specified cell
board[row][column] = token;

// Notify the other player of the move
if (token == 'X')
    player2.mark(row, column, 'X');
else
    player1.mark(row, column, 'O');

// Check if the player with this token wins
if (isWon(token)) {
    if (token == 'X') {
        player1.notify("I won!");
        player2.notify("I lost!");
        player1.takeTurn(false);
    }
    else {
        player2.notify("I won!");
        player1.notify("I lost!");
        player2.takeTurn(false);
    }
} else if (!isFull()) {
    player1.notify("Draw!");
    player2.notify("Draw!");
} else if (token == 'X') {
    player1.notify("Wait for the second player to move");
    player1.takeTurn(false);
    player2.notify("It is my turn, (O token)");
    player2.takeTurn(true);
} else if (token == 'O') {
    player2.notify("Wait for the first player to move");
    player2.takeTurn(false);
    player1.notify("It is my turn, (X token)");
    player1.takeTurn(true);
}

/** Check if a player with the specified token wins */
public boolean isWon(char token) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
        if ((board[i][0] == token) && (board[i][1] == token) && (board[i][2] == token))
            return true;
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        if ((board[0][j] == token) && (board[1][j] == token) && (board[2][j] == token))
            return true;
    if ((board[0][0] == token) && (board[1][1] == token) && (board[2][2] == token))
        return true;
    if ((board[0][2] == token) && (board[1][1] == token) && (board[2][0] == token))
        return true;
return false;
}
/** Check if the board is full */
public boolean isFull() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
            if (board[i][j] == 'u0000')
                return false;
    return true;
}

public static void main(String[] args) {
    try {
        TicTacToeInterface obj = new TicTacToeImpl();
        Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry();
        registry.rebind("TicTacToeImpl", obj);
        System.out.println("Server " + obj + " registered");
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        ex.printStackTrace();
    }
}

2. Create CallBackImpl.java (Listing 46.10) to implement the CallBack interface.

Listing 46.10 CallBackImpl.java

<Side Remark line 15: implement>
<Side Remark line 20: implement>
<Side Remark line 25: implement>
import java.rmi.*;
import java.rmi.server.*;

public class CallBackImpl extends UnicastRemoteObject implements CallBack {
    // The client will be called by the server through callback
    private TicTacToeClientRMI thisClient;

    /** Constructor */
    public CallBackImpl(Object client) throws RemoteException {
        thisClient = (TicTacToeClientRMI)client;
    }

    /** The server notifies the client for taking a turn */
    public void takeTurn(boolean turn) throws RemoteException {
        thisClient.setMyTurn(turn);
    }

    /** The server sends a message to be displayed by the client */
    public void notify(String message) throws RemoteException {
        thisClient.setMessage(message);
    }

    /** The server notifies a client of the other player's move */
}
public void mark(int row, int column, char token)
    throws RemoteException {
    thisClient.mark(row, column, token);
}

3. Create an applet TicTacToeClientRMI (Listing 46.11) for interacting with a player and communicating with the server. Enable it to run standalone.

Listing 46.11 TicTacToeClientRMI.java

import java.rmi.*;
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.event.*;
import javax.swing.*;
import javax.swing.border.*;
import java.rmi.registry.Registry;
import java.rmi.registry.LocateRegistry;

public class TicTacToeClientRMI extends JApplet {
    // marker is used to indicate the token type
    private char marker;
    // myTurn indicates whether the player can move now
    private boolean myTurn = false;
    // Each cell can be empty or marked as 'O' or 'X'
    private Cell[][] cell;
    // ticTacToe is the game server for coordinating with the players
    private TicTacToeInterface ticTacToe;
    // Border for cells and panel
    private Border lineBorder =
        BorderFactory.createLineBorder(Color.yellow, 1);
    private JLabel jlblStatus = new JLabel("jLabel1");
    private JLabel jlblIdentification = new JLabel();
    boolean isStandalone = false;

    /** Initialize the applet */
    public void init() {
        JPanel jPanel1 = new JPanel();
        jPanel1.setBorder(lineBorder);
        jPanel1.setLayout(new GridLayout(3, 3, 1, 1));
        add(jlblStatus, BorderLayout.SOUTH);
        add(jPanel1, BorderLayout.CENTER);
        add(jlblIdentification, BorderLayout.NORTH);
    }
}
// Create cells and place cells in the panel
cell = new Cell[3][3];
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        jPanel1.add(cell[i][j] = new Cell(i, j));

try {
    initializeRMI();
} catch (Exception ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
}

/** Initialize RMI */
protected boolean initializeRMI() throws Exception {
    String host = "";
    if (!isStandalone) host = getCodeBase().getHost();

    try {
        Registry registry = LocateRegistry.getRegistry(host);
        ticTacToe = (TicTacToeInterface) registry.lookup("TicTacToeImpl");
        System.out.println("Server object " + ticTacToe + " found");
    } catch (Exception ex) {
        System.out.println(ex);
    }

    // Create callback for use by the server to control the client
    CallBackImpl callBackControl = new CallBackImpl(this);
    if (marker = ticTacToe.connect((CallBack)callBackControl) != ' ')
    {
        System.out.println("connected as " + marker + " player."");
        jlblIdentification.setText("You are player " + marker);
        return true;
    } else {
        System.out.println("already two players connected as ");
        return false;
    }

/** Set variable myTurn to true or false */
public void setMyTurn(boolean myTurn) {
    this.myTurn = myTurn;
}

/** Set message on the status label */
public void setMessage(String message) {
    jlblStatus.setText(message);
}

/** Mark the specified cell using the token */
public void mark(int row, int column, char token) {
    cell[row][column].setToken(token);
/** Inner class Cell for modeling a cell on the TicTacToe board */
private class Cell extends JPanel {
    // marked indicates whether the cell has been used
    private boolean marked = false;

    // row and column indicate where the cell appears on the board
    int row, column;

    // The token for the cell
    private char token;

    /** Construct a cell */
    public Cell(final int row, final int column) {
        this.row = row;
        this.column = column;
        addMouseListener(new MouseAdapter() {
            public void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) {
                if (myTurn && !marked) {
                    // Mark the cell
                    setToken(marker);
                    // Notify the server of the move
                    try {
                        ticTacToe.myMove(row, column, marker);
                    } catch (RemoteException ex) {
                        System.out.println(ex);
                    }
                }
            }
        });
        setBorder(lineBorder);
    }

    /** Set token on a cell (mark a cell) */
    public void setToken(char c) {
        token = c;
        marked = true;
        repaint();
    }

    /** Paint the cell to draw a shape for the token */
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        // Draw the border
        g.drawRect(0, 0, getSize().width, getSize().height);

        if (token == 'X') {
            g.drawLine(10, 10, getSize().width - 10,
                        getSize().height - 10);
            g.drawLine(getSize().width - 10, 10,
                        getSize().height - 10);
        } else if (token == 'O') {
            g.drawOval(10, 10, getSize().width - 20,
                       getSize().height - 20,
public static void main(String[] args) {
    TicTacToeClientRMI applet = new TicTacToeClientRMI();
    applet.isStandalone = true;
    applet.init();
    applet.start();
    JFrame frame = new JFrame();
    frame.setDefaultCloseOperation(JFrame.EXIT_ON_CLOSE);
    frame.setTitle("TicTacToeClientRMI");
    frame.add(applet, BorderLayout.CENTER);
    frame.setSize(400, 320);
    frame.setVisible(true);
}

4. Follow the steps below to run this example.
4.1. Start RMI Registry by typing "start rmiregistry" at a DOS prompt
     from the book directory.
4.2. Start the server TicTacToeImpl using the following command at the
     C:\book directory:
     C:\book>java TicTacToeImpl

     Run the client TicTacToeClientRMI as an application or an applet. A
     sample run is shown in Figure 46.9.

     Figure 46.9
     Two players play each other through the RMI server.

     TicTacToeInterface defines two remote methods, connect(CallBack
     Client) and myMove(int row, int column, char token). The connect
     method plays two roles: one is to pass a CallBack stub to the
     server, and the other is to let the server assign a token for the
     player. The myMove method notifies the server that the player has
     made a specific move.

     The CallBack interface defines three remote methods,
     takeTurn(boolean turn), notify(String message), and mark(int row,
     int column, char token). The takeTurn method sets the client's
     myTurn property to true or false. The notify method displays a
     message on the client's status label. The mark method marks the
     client's cell with the token at the specified location.
TicTacToeImpl is a server implementation for coordinating with the clients and managing the game. The variables player1 and player2 are instances of CallBack, each of which corresponds to a client, passed from a client when the client invokes the connect method. The variable board records the moves by the two players. This information is needed to determine the game status. When a client invokes the connect method, the server assigns a token X for the first player and O for the second player, and accepts only two players. You can modify the program to accept additional clients as observers. See Exercise 46.7 for more details.

Once two players are in the game, the server coordinates the turns between them. When a client invokes the myMove method, the server records the move and notifies the other player by marking the other player’s cell. It then checks to see whether the player wins or whether the board is full. If neither condition applies and therefore the game continues, the server gives a turn to the other player.

The CallBackImpl implements the CallBack interface. It creates an instance of TicTacToeClientRMI through its constructor. The CallBackImpl relays the server request to the client by invoking the client's methods. When the server invokes the takeTurn method, CallBackImpl invokes the client's setMyTurn() method to set the property myTurn in the client. When the server invokes the notify() method, CallBackImpl invokes the client's setMessage() method to set the message on the client's status label. When the server invokes the mark method, CallBackImpl invokes the client's mark method to mark the specified cell.

TicTacToeClientRMI can run as a standalone application or as an applet. The initializeRMI method is responsible for creating the URL for running as a standalone application or as an applet, for locating the TicTacToeImpl server stub, for creating the CallBack server object, and for connecting the client with the server.

Interestingly, obtaining the TicTacToeImpl stub for the client is different from obtaining the CallBack stub for the server. The TicTacToeImpl stub is obtained by invoking the lookup() method through the RMI registry, and the CallBack stub is passed to the server through the connect method in the TicTacToeImpl stub. It is a common practice to obtain the first stub with the lookup method, but to pass the subsequent stubs as parameters through remote method invocations.

Since the variables myTurn and marker are defined in TicTacToeClientRMI, the Cell class is defined as an inner class within TicTacToeClientRMI in order to enable all the cells in the client to access them. Exercise 46.8 suggests alternative approaches that implement the Cell as a noninner class.

Key Terms

- callback
- RMI registry
- skeleton
- stub
Chapter Summary

1. RMI is a high-level Java API for building distributed applications using distributed objects.
2. The key idea of RMI is its use of stubs and skeletons to facilitate communications between objects. The stub and skeleton are automatically generated, which relieves programmers of tedious socket-level network programming.
3. For an object to be used remotely, it must be defined in an interface that extends the java.rmi.Remote interface.
4. In an RMI application, the initial remote object must be registered with the RMI registry on the server side and be obtained using the lookup method through the registry on the client side. Subsequent uses of stubs of other remote objects may be passed as parameters through remote method invocations.
5. RMI is especially useful for developing scalable and load-balanced multitier distributed applications.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 46.2-46.3
46.1 How do you define an interface for a remote object?
46.2 Describe the roles of the stub and the skeleton.
46.3 What is java.rmi.Remote? How do you define a server class?
46.4 What is an RMI registry for? How do you create an RMI registry?
46.5 What is the command to start an RMI Registry?
46.6 How do you register a remote object with the RMI registry?
46.7 What is the command to start a custom RMI server?
46.8 How does a client locate a remote object stub through an RMI registry?
46.9 How do you obtain a registry? How do you register a remote object? How do you locate remote object?

Sections 46.4-46.6
46.10 What are the advantages of RMI over socket-level programming?
46.11 Describe how parameters are passed in RMI.
46.12 What is the problem if the connect method in the TicTacToeInterface is defined as

```java
public boolean connect(CallBack client, char token)
  throws RemoteException;
```

or as

```java
public boolean connect(CallBack client, Character token)
  throws RemoteException;
```

46.13 What is callback? How does callback work in RMI?

Programming Exercises

Section 46.3
46.1*
(Limit the number of clients) Modify the example in §46.3.1, “Example: Retrieving Student Scores from an RMI Server,” to limit the number of concurrent clients to ten.

46.2*
(Compute loan) Rewrite Exercise 30.1 using RMI. You need to define a remote interface for computing monthly payment and total payment.

46.3**
(Web visit count) Rewrite Exercise 30.4 using RMI. You need to define a remote interface for obtaining and increasing the count.

46.4**
(Display and add addresses) Rewrite Exercise 34.6 using RMI. You need to define a remote interface for adding addresses and retrieving address information.

Section 46.5
46.5**
(Address in a database table) Rewrite Exercise 46.4. Assume that the address is stored in a table.

46.6**
(Three-tier application) Use the three-tier approach to modify Exercise 46.4, as follows:

- Create an applet client to manipulate student information, as shown in Figure 30.23(a).
- Create a remote object interface with methods for retrieving, inserting, and updating student information, and an object implementation for the interface.

Section 46.6
46.7**
(Chat) Rewrite Exercise 30.13 using RMI. You need to define a remote interface for sending and receiving a message.

46.8**
(Improve TicTacToe) Modify the TicTacToe example in §46.6, “RMI Callbacks,” as follows:

- Allow a client to connect to the server as an observer to watch the game.
- Rewrite the Cell class as a noninner class.
CHAPTER 47

2-4 Trees and B-Trees

Objectives

- To know what a 2-4 tree is (§47.1).
- To design the Tree24 class that implements the Tree interface (§47.2).
- To search an element in a 2-4 tree (§47.3).
- To insert an element in a 2-4 tree and know how to split a node (§47.4).
- To delete an element from a 2-4 tree and know how to perform transfer and fusion operations (§47.5).
- To traverse elements in a 2-4 tree (§47.6).
- To implement and test the Tree24 class (§§47.7-47.8).
- To analyze the complexity of the 2-4 tree (§47.9).
- To use B-trees for indexing large amount of data (§47.10).
47.1 Introduction

A 2-4 tree, also known as a 2-3-4 tree, is a completely balanced search tree with all leaf nodes appearing on the same level. In a 2-4 tree, a node may have one, two, or three elements. An interior 2-node contains one element and two children. An interior 3-node contains two elements and three children. An interior 4-node contains three elements and four children, as shown in Figure 47.1.

![Figure 47.1](a) 2-node (b) 3-node (c) 4-node

Figure 47.1
An interior node of a 2-4 tree has two, three, or four children.

Each child is a sub 2-4 tree, possibly empty. The root node has no parent, and leaf nodes have no children. The elements in the tree are distinct. The elements in a node are ordered such that

\[ E(c_0) < e_0 < E(c_1) < e_1 < E(c_2) < e_2 < E(c_3) \]

where \( E(c_k) \) denote the elements in \( c_k \). Figure 47.2 shows an example of a 2-4 tree. \( c_k \) is called the left subtree of \( e_k \) and \( c_{k+1} \) is called the right subtree of \( e_k \).

![Figure 47.2](A 2-4 tree is a full complete search tree.)

In a binary tree, each node contains one element. A 2-4 tree tends to be shorter than a corresponding binary search tree, since a 2-4 tree node may contain two or three elements.
<side remark: 2-4 tree animation>
Run from
www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/animation/Tree24Animation.html
to see how a 2-4 tree works, as shown in Figure 47.3.

Figure 47.3
The animation tool enables you to insert, delete, and search elements in a 2-4 tree visually.

***End NOTE

47.2 Designing Classes for 2-4 Trees

The Tree24 class can be designed by implementing the Tree interface, as shown in Figure 47.4. The Tree interface was defined in Listing 27.3 Tree.java. The Tree24Node class defines tree nodes. The elements in the node are stored in a list named elements and the links to the child nodes are stored in a list named child, as shown in Figure 47.5.
47.3 Searching an Element

Searching an element in a 2-4 tree is similar to searching an element in a binary tree. The difference is that you have to search an element within a node in addition to searching elements along the path. To search an element in a 2-4 tree, you start from the root and scan down. If an element is not in the node, move to an appropriate subtree. Repeat the process until a match is found or you arrive at an empty subtree. The algorithm is described in Listing 47.1.
Listing 47.1 Searching an Element in a 2-4 Tree

```java
boolean search(E e) {
    current = root; // Start from the root
    while (current != null) {
        if (match(e, current)) { // Element is in the node
            return true; // Element is found
        }
        else {
            current = getChildNode(e, current); // Search in a subtree
        }
    }
    return false; // Element is not in the tree
}
```

The `match(e, current)` method checks whether element `e` is in the current node. The `getChildNode(e, current)` method returns the root of the subtree for further search. Initially, let `current` point to the root (line 2). Repeat searching the element in the current node until `current` is null (line 4) or the element matches an element in the current node.

47.4 Inserting an Element into a 2-4 Tree

To insert an element `e` to a 2-4 tree, locate a leaf node in which the element will be inserted. If the leaf node is a 2-node or 3-node, simply insert the element into the node. If the node is a 4-node, inserting a new element would cause an overflow. To resolve overflow, perform a split operation as follows:

- Let `u` be the leaf 4-node in which the element will be inserted and `parentOfu` be the parent of `u`, as shown in Figure 47.6(a).
- Create a new node named `v`; move `e_2` to `v`.
- If `e < e_1`, insert `e` to `u`; otherwise insert `e` to `v`. Assume that `e_0 < e < e_1`, `e` is inserted into `u`, as shown in Figure 47.6(b).
- Insert `e_1` along with its right child (i.e., `v`) to the parent node, as shown in Figure 47.6(b).

![Diagram](attachment:diagram.png)
Figure 47.6
The splitting operation creates a new node and inserts the median element to its parent.

The parent node is a 3-node in Figure 47.6. So, there is room to insert e to the parent node. What happens if it is a 4-node, as shown in Figure 47.7? This requires that the parent node be split. The process is the same as splitting a leaf 4-node, except that you must also insert the element along with its right child.

Figure 47.7
Insertion process continues if the parent node is a 4-node.

The algorithm can be modified as follows:

- Let u be the 4-node (leaf or nonleaf) in which the element will be inserted and parentOfu be the parent of u, as shown in Figure 47.8(a).
- Create a new node named v, move e and its children c2 and c3 to v.
- If e < e1, insert e along with its right child link to u; otherwise insert e along with its right child link to v, as shown in Figure 47.6(b), (c), (d) for the cases e0 < e < e1, e1 < e < e2, and e2 < e, respectively.
- Insert e1 along with its right child (i.e., v) to the parent node, recursively.
(c) After inserting \( e \) \((e_1 < e < e_2)\)  
(d) After inserting \( e \) \((e_2 < e)\)

Figure 47.8
An interior node may be split to resolve overflow.

Listing 47.2 gives an algorithm for inserting an element.

**Listing 47.2 Inserting an Element to a 2-4 Tree**

```java
public boolean insert(E e) {
    if (root == null)
        root = new Tree24Node<E>(e); // Create a new root for element
    else {
        Locate leafNode for inserting e
        insert(e, null, leafNode); // The right child of e is null
    }

    size++; // Increase size
    return true; // Element inserted
}

private void insert(E e, Tree24Node<E> rightChildOfe, Tree24Node<E> u) {
    if (u is a 2- or 3- node) { // u is a 2- or 3-node
        insert23(e, rightChildOfe, u); // Insert e to node u
    } else { // Split a 4-node u
        Tree24Node<E> v = new Tree24Node<E>()(); // Create a new node
        E median = split(e, rightChildOfe, u, v); // Split u

        if (u == root) { // u is the root
            root = new Tree24Node<E>(median); // New root
        }
    }
}
```
root.child.add(u);  // u is the left child of median
root.child.add(v);  // v is the right child of median
}
else {
    Get the parent of u, parentOfu;
    insert(median, v, parentOfu);  // Inserting median to parent
}
}

The insert(E e, Tree24Node<E> rightChildOfe, Tree24Node<E> u) method inserts element e along with its right child to node u. When inserting e to a leaf node, the right child of e is null (line 6). If the node is a 2- or 3-node, simply insert the element to the node (lines 15–17). If the node is a 4-node, invoke the split method to split the node (line 20). The split method returns the median element. Recursively invoke the insert method to insert the median element to the parent node (line 29). Figure 47.9 shows the steps of inserting elements 34, 2, 50, 20, 15, 16, 25, 27, 29, and 24 into a 2-4 tree.

![Tree Diagram]

Figure 47.9
The tree changes after 34, 2, 50, 20, 15, 16, 25, 27, 29, and 24 are added into an empty tree.

47.5 Deleting an Element from a 2-4 Tree

To delete an element from a 2-4 tree, first search the element in the tree to locate the node that contains it. If the element is not in the tree, the method returns false. Let u be the node that contains the element and parentOfu be the parent of u. Consider three cases:
Case 1: $u$ is a leaf 3-node or 4-node. Delete $e$ from $u$.

Case 2: $u$ is a leaf 2-node. Delete $e$ from $u$. Now $u$ is empty. This situation is known as underflow. To remedy an underflow, consider two subcases:

Case 2.1: $u$’s immediate left or right sibling is a 3- or 4-node. Let the node be $w$, as shown in Figure 47.10(a) (assume that $w$ is a left sibling of $u$). Perform a transfer operation that moves an element from $\text{parentOf} u$ to $u$, as shown in Figure 47.10(b), and move an element from $w$ to replace the moved element in $\text{parentOf} u$, as shown in Figure 47.10(c).

Figure 47.10
The transfer operation fills the empty node $u$.

Case 2.2: Both $u$’s immediate left and right sibling are 2-node if they exist ($u$ may have only one sibling). Let the node be $w$, as shown in Figure 47.11(a) (assume that $w$ is a left sibling of $u$). Perform a fusion operation that discards $u$ and moves an element from $\text{parentOf} u$ to $w$, as shown in Figure 47.11(b). If $\text{parentOf} u$ becomes empty, repeat Case 2 recursively to perform a transfer or a fusion on $\text{parentOf} u$.

Figure 47.11
The fusion operation discards the empty node $u$.

Case 3: $u$ is a nonleaf node. Find the rightmost leaf node in the left subtree of $e$. Let this node be $w$, as shown in Figure 47.12(a). Move the last element in $w$ to replace $e$ in $u$, as shown in Figure 47.12(b). If $w$ becomes empty, apply a transfer or fusion operation on $w$.
Figure 47.12
An element in the internal node is replaced by an element in a leaf node.

Listing 47.3 describes the algorithm for deleting an element.

Listing 47.3 Deleting an Element from a 2-4 Tree

```java
/** Delete the specified element from the tree */
public boolean delete(E e) {
    Locate the node that contains the element e
    if (the node is found) {
        delete(e, node); // Delete element e from the node
        size--; // After one element deleted
        return true; // Element deleted successfully
    }
    return false; // Element not in the tree
}

/** Delete the specified element from the node */
private void delete(E e, Tree24Node<E> node) {
    if (e is in a leaf node) {
        // Get the path that leads to e from the root
        ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path = path(e);
        Remove e from the node;
        // Check node for underflow along the path and fix it
        validate(e, node, path); // Check underflow node
    } else { // e is in an internal node
```
Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of node u; Get the rightmost element from the rightmost node;

// Get the path that leads to e from the root
ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path = path(rightmostElement);

Replace the element in the node with the rightmost element

// Check node for underflow along the path and fix it
validate(rightmostElement, rightmostNode, path);
}
}

/** Perform a transfer or fusion operation if necessary */
private void validate(E e, Tree24Node<E> u,
ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path) {
for (int i = path.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
if (u is not empty)
    return; // Done, no need to perform transfer or fusion

Tree24Node<E> parentOfu = path.get(i - 1); // Get parent of u

// Check two siblings
if (left sibling of u has more than one element) {
    Perform a transfer on u with its left sibling
}
else if (right sibling of u has more than one element) {
    Perform a transfer on u with its right sibling
}
else if (u has left sibling) { // Fusion with a left sibling
    Perform a fusion on u with its left sibling
    u = parent0fu; // Back to the loop to check the parent node
}
else { // Fusion with right sibling (right sibling must exist)
    Perform a fusion on u with its right sibling
    u = parent0fu; // Back to the loop to check the parent node
}
}  

The **delete(E e)** method locates the node that contains the element e and invokes the **delete(E e, Tree24Node<E> node)** method (line 5) to delete the element from the node. If the node is a leaf node, get the path that leads to e from the root (line 17), delete e from the node (line 19), and invoke validate to check and fix the empty node (line 22). The **validate(E e, Tree24Node<E> u, ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path)** method performs a transfer or fusion operation if the node is empty. Since these operations may cause the parent of node u to become empty, a path is obtained in order to obtain the parents along the path from the root to node u, as shown in Figure 47.13.
The nodes along the path may become empty as result of a transfer and fusion operation.

If the node is a nonleaf node, locate the rightmost element in the left subtree of the node (lines 25-26), get the path that leads to the rightmost element from the root (line 29), replace \( e \) in the node with the rightmost element (line 31), and invoke validate to fix the rightmost node if it is empty (line 34).

The validate(\( E \ e \), Tree24Node<\( E \) \( u \), ArrayList<Tree24Node<\( E \)>> \( \text{path} \)) checks whether \( u \) is empty and performs a transfer or fusion operation to fix the empty node. The validate method exits when node is not empty (line 43). Otherwise, consider one of the following cases:

1. If \( u \) has a left sibling with more than one element, perform a transfer on \( u \) with its left sibling (line 49).
2. Otherwise, if \( u \) has a right sibling with more than one element, perform a transfer on \( u \) with its right sibling (line 52).
3. Otherwise, if \( u \) has a left sibling, perform a fusion on \( u \) with its left sibling (line 55) and reset \( u \) to parentOfu (line 56).
4. Otherwise, \( u \) must have a right sibling. Perform a fusion on \( u \) with its right sibling (line 59) and reset \( u \) to parentOfu (line 60).

Only one of the preceding cases is executed. Afterward, a new iteration starts to perform a transfer or fusion operation on a new node \( u \) if needed. Figure 47.14 shows the steps of deleting elements 20, 15, 3, 6, and 34 are deleted from a 2-4 tree in Figure 47.9(k).
The tree changes after 20, 15, 3, 6, and 34 are deleted from a 2-4 tree.

47.6 Traversing Elements in a 2-4 Tree

Inorder, preorder, and postorder traversals are useful for 2-4 trees. Inorder traversal visits the elements in increasing order. Preorder traversal visits the elements in the root, then recursively visits the subtrees from the left to right. Postorder traversal visits the
subtrees from the left to right recursively, and then the elements in the root.

For example, in the 2-4 tree in Figure 47.9(k), the inorder traversal is

3 15 16 20 24 25 27 29 34 50

The preorder traversal is

20 15 3 16 27 34 24 25 29 50

The postorder traversal is

3 16 1 24 25 29 50 27 34 20

47.7 Implementing the Tree24 Class

Listing 47.4 gives the complete source code for the Tree24 class.

Listing 47.4 Tree24.java

<margin note line 4: root>
<margin note line 5: size>
<margin note line 8: no-arg constructor>
<margin note line 12: constructor>
<margin note line 18: search>
<margin note line 22: found?>
<margin note line 26: next subtree>
<margin note line 34: find a match>
<margin note line 36: matched?>
<margin note line 43: next subtree>
<margin note line 44: leaf node?>
<margin note line 47: insertion point>
<margin note line 54: insert to tree>
<margin note line 55: empty tree?>
<margin note line 59: find leaf node>
<margin note line 71: insert to node>
<margin note line 79: insert to node>
<margin note line 85: no overflow>
<margin note line 90: overflow>
<margin note line 91: split>
<margin note line 93: u is root?>
<margin note line 101: insert to parentOfu>
<margin note line 110: insert to node>
<margin note line 112: insertion point>
<margin note line 119: split>
<margin note line 123: get median>
<margin note line 127: insert e>
<margin note line 133: insert RightChildOfe>
<margin note line 138: return median>
<margin note line 142: get path>
<margin note line 147: add node searched>
<margin note line 156: return path>
<margin note line 160: delete from tree>
<margin note line 162: locate the node>
<margin note line 164: found?>
<margin note line 165: delete from node>
<margin note line 177: delete from node>
<margin note line 178: leaf node?>
import java.util.ArrayList;

public class Tree24<E extends Comparable<E>> implements Tree<E> {
    private Tree24Node<E> root;
    private int size;

    /** Create a default 2-4 tree */
    public Tree24() {
    }

    /** Create a 2-4 tree from an array of objects */
    public Tree24(E[] elements) {
        for (int i = 0; i < elements.length; i++)
            insert(elements[i]);
    }

    /** Search an element in the tree */
    public boolean search(E e) {
        Tree24Node<E> current = root; // Start from the root

        while (current != null) {
            if (matched(e, current)) { // Element is in the node
                return true; // Element found
            } else {
                current = getChildNode(e, current); // Search in a subtree
            }
        }

        return false; // Element is not in the tree
    }
}
private boolean matched(E e, Tree24Node<E> node) {
    for (int i = 0; i < node.elements.size(); i++)
        if (node.elements.get(i).equals(e))
            return true; // Element found
    return false; // No match in this node
}

private Tree24Node<E> getChildNode(E e, Tree24Node<E> node) {
    if (node.child.size() == 0)
        return null; // node is a leaf
    int i = locate(e, node); // Locate the insertion point for e
    return node.child.get(i); // Return the child node
}

/** Insert element e into the tree */
public boolean insert(E e) {
    if (root == null)
        root = new Tree24Node<E>(e); // Create a new root for element
    else {
        // Locate the leaf node for inserting e
        Tree24Node<E> leafNode = null;
        Tree24Node<E> current = root;
        while (current != null)
            if (matched(e, current)) {
                return false; // Duplicate element found, nothing inserted
            } else {
                leafNode = current;
                current = getChildNode(e, current);
            }
        // Insert the element e into the leaf node
        insert(e, null, leafNode); // The right child of e is null
    }
    size++; // Increase size
    return true; // Element inserted
}

/** Insert element e into node u */
private void insert(E e, Tree24Node<E> rightChildOfE, Tree24Node<E> u) {
    // Get the search path that leads to element e
    ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path = path(e);
    for (int i = path.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
        if (u.elements.size() < 3) { // u is a 2-node or 3-node
            insert23(e, rightChildOfE, u); // Insert element e to node u
            break; // No further insertion to u's parent needed
        }
    }
}
else {
    Tree24Node<E> v = new Tree24Node<E>(); // Create a new node
    E median = split(e, rightChildOfe, u, v); // Split u

    if (u == root) {
        root = new Tree24Node<E>(median); // New root
        root.child.add(u); // u is the left child of median
        root.child.add(v); // v is the right child of median
        break; // No further insertion to u's parent needed
    } else {
        // Use new values for the next iteration in the for loop
        e = median; // Element to be inserted to parent
        rightChildOfe = v; // Right child of the element
        u = path.get(i - 1); // New node to insert element
    }
}
}

/** Insert element to a 2- or 3- and return the insertion point */
private void insert23(E e, Tree24Node<E> rightChildOfe,
    Tree24Node<E> node) {
    int i = this.locate(e, node); // Locate where to insert
    node.elements.add(i, e); // Insert the element into the node
    if (rightChildOfe != null)
        node.child.add(i + 1, rightChildOfe); // Insert the child link
}

/** Split a 4-node u into u and v and insert e to u or v */
private E split(E e, Tree24Node<E> rightChildOfe,
    Tree24Node<E> u, Tree24Node<E> v) {
    // Move the last element in node u to node v
    v.elements.add(u.elements.remove(2));
    E median = u.elements.remove(1);

    // Split children for a nonleaf node
    // Move the last two children in node u to node v
    if (u.child.size() > 0) {
        v.child.add(u.child.remove(2));
        v.child.add(u.child.remove(2));
    }

    // Insert e into a 2- or 3- node u or v.
    if (e.compareTo(median) < 0)
        insert23(e, rightChildOfe, u);
    else
        insert23(e, rightChildOfe, v);

    return median; // Return the median element
}

/** Return a search path that leads to element e */
private ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path(E e) {
    ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> list = new ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>>();
    Tree24Node<E> current = root; // Start from the root
    }
while (current != null) {
    list.add(current); // Add the node to the list
    if (matched(e, current)) {
        break; // Element found
    }
    else {
        current = getChildNode(e, current);
    }
}

return list; // Return an array of nodes

/** Delete the specified element from the tree */
public boolean delete(E e) {
    // Locate the node that contains the element e
    Tree24Node<E> node = root;
    while (node != null) {
        if (matched(e, node)) {
            delete(e, node); // Delete element e from node
            size--; // After one element deleted
            return true; // Element deleted successfully
        }
        else {
            node = getChildNode(e, node);
        }
    }
    return false; // Element not in the tree
}

/** Delete the specified element from the node */
private void delete(E e, Tree24Node<E> node) {
    if (node.child.size() == 0) { // e is in a leaf node
        // Get the path that leads to e from the root
        ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path = path(e);
        node.elements.remove(e); // Remove element e
        if (node == root) { // Special case
            if (node.elements.size() == 0)
                root = null; // Empty tree
            return; // Done
        }
        validate(e, node, path); // Check underflow node
    }
    else { // e is in an internal node
        // Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of the node
        int index = locate(e, node); // Index of e in node
        Tree24Node<E> current = node.child.get(index);
        while (current.child.size() > 0) {
            current = current.child.get(current.child.size() - 1);
        }
        E rightmostElement =
            current.elements.get(current.elements.size() - 1);
// Get the path that leads to e from the root
ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path = path(rightmostElement);

// Replace the deleted element with the rightmost element
node.elements.set(index, current.elements.remove(
    current.elements.size() - 1));

validate(rightmostElement, current, path); // Check underflow
}

/** Perform transfer and confusion operations if necessary */
private void validate(E e, Tree24Node<E> u,
    ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> path) {
    for (int i = path.size() - 1; u.elements.size() == 0; i--) {
        Tree24Node<E> parentOfu = path.get(i - 1); // Get parent of u
        int k = locate(e, parentOfu); // Index of e in the parent node

        // Check two siblings
        if (k > 0 && parentOfu.child.get(k - 1).elements.size() > 1) {
            leftSiblingTransfer(k, u, parentOfu);
        }
        else if (k + 1 < parentOfu.child.size() &&
            parentOfu.child.get(k + 1).elements.size() > 1) {
            rightSiblingTransfer(k, u, parentOfu);
        }
        else if (k - 1 >= 0) { // Fusion with a left sibling
            // Get left sibling of node u
            Tree24Node<E> leftNode = parentOfu.child.get(k - 1);

            // Perform a fusion with left sibling on node u
            leftSiblingFusion(k, leftNode, u, parentOfu);

            // Done when root becomes empty
            if (parentOfu == root && parentOfu.elements.size() == 0) {
                root = leftNode;
                break;
            }
        }
        u = parentOfu; // Back to the loop to check the parent node
    }
    else { // Fusion with right sibling (right sibling must exist)
        // Get left sibling of node u
        Tree24Node<E> rightNode = parentOfu.child.get(k + 1);

        // Perform a fusion with right sibling on node u
        rightSiblingFusion(k, rightNode, u, parentOfu);

        // Done when root becomes empty
        if (parentOfu == root && parentOfu.elements.size() == 0) {
            root = rightNode;
            break;
        }
    }
    u = parentOfu; // Back to the loop to check the parent node
/** Locate the insertion point of the element in the node */
private int locate(E o, Tree24Node<E> node) {
    for (int i = 0; i < node.elements.size(); i++) {
        if (o.compareTo(node.elements.get(i)) <= 0) {
            return i;
        }
    }
    return node.elements.size();
}

/** Perform a transfer with a left sibling */
private void leftSiblingTransfer(int k, Tree24Node<E> u, Tree24Node<E> parentOfu) {
    // Move an element from the parent to u
    u.elements.add(0, parentOfu.elements.get(k - 1));

    // Move an element from the left node to the parent
    Tree24Node<E> leftNode = parentOfu.child.get(k - 1);
    parentOfu.elements.set(k - 1,
                           leftNode.elements.remove(leftNode.elements.size() - 1));

    // Move the child link from left sibling to the node
    if (leftNode.child.size() > 0)
        u.child.add(0, leftNode.child.remove(leftNode.child.size() - 1));
}

/** Perform a transfer with a right sibling */
private void rightSiblingTransfer(int k, Tree24Node<E> u, Tree24Node<E> parentOfu) {
    // Transfer an element from the parent to u
    u.elements.add(k, parentOfu.elements.get(k));

    // Transfer an element from the right node to the parent
    Tree24Node<E> rightNode = parentOfu.child.get(k + 1);
    parentOfu.elements.set(k, rightNode.elements.remove(0));

    // Move the child link from right sibling to the node
    if (rightNode.child.size() > 0)
        u.child.add(rightNode.child.remove(0));
}

/** Perform a fusion with a left sibling */
private void leftSiblingFusion(int k, Tree24Node<E> leftNode, Tree24Node<E> u, Tree24Node<E> parentOfu) {
    // Transfer an element from the parent to the left sibling
    leftNode.elements.add(parentOfu.elements.remove(k - 1));

    // Remove the link to the empty node
    parentOfu.child.remove(k);
// Adjust child links for nonleaf node
if (u.child.size() > 0)
    leftNode.child.add(u.child.remove(0));
}

/** Perform a fusion with a right sibling */
private void rightSiblingFusion(int k, Tree24Node<E> rightNode, 
    Tree24Node<E> u, Tree24Node<E> parentOfu) {
    // Transfer an element from the parent to the right sibling
    rightNode.elements.add(0, parentOfu.elements.remove(k));

    // Remove the link to the empty node
    parentOfu.child.remove(k);

    // Adjust child links for nonleaf node
    if (u.child.size() > 0)
        rightNode.child.add(0, u.child.remove(0));
}

/** Get the number of nodes in the tree */
public int getSize() {
    return size;
}

/** Preorder traversal from the root */
public void preorder() {
    preorder(root);
}

/** Preorder traversal from a subtree */
private void preorder(Tree24Node<E> root) {
    if (root == null)return;
    for (int i = 0; i < root.elements.size(); i++)
        System.out.print(root.elements.get(i) + " ");
    for (int i = 0; i < root.child.size(); i++)
        preorder(root.child.get(i));
}

/** Inorder traversal from the root*/
public void inorder() {
    // Left as exercise
}

/** Postorder traversal from the root */
public void postorder() {
    // Left as exercise
}

/** Return true if the tree is empty */
public boolean isEmpty() {
    return root == null;
}

/** Return an iterator to traverse elements in the tree */
public java.util.Iterator iterator() {
protected static class Tree24Node<E extends Comparable<E>> {
    // elements has maximum three values
    ArrayList<E> elements = new ArrayList<E>(3);
    // Each has maximum four children
    ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> child = new ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>>(4);

    /** Create an empty Tree24 node */
    Tree24Node() {
    }

    /** Create a Tree24 node with an initial element */
    Tree24Node(E o) {
        elements.add(o);
    }
}

The Tree24 class contains the data fields root and size (lines 4–5). root references the root node and size stores the number of elements in the tree.

The Tree24 class has two constructors: a no-arg constructor (lines 8–9) that constructs an empty tree and a constructor that creates an initial Tree24 from an array of elements (lines 12–15).

The search method (lines 18–31) searches an element in the tree. It returns true (line 23) if the element is in the tree and returns false if the search arrives at an empty subtree (line 30).

The matched(e, node) method (lines 34–40) checks where the element e is in the node.

The getChildNode(e, node) method (lines 43–49) returns the root of a subtree where e should be searched.

The insert(E e) method inserts an element in a tree (lines 54–78). If the tree is empty, a new root is created (line 56). The method locates a leaf node in which the element will be inserted and invokes insert(e, null, leafNode) to insert the element (line 71).

The insert(e, rightChildOfe, u) method inserts an element into node u (lines 79–107). The method first invokes path(e) (line 82) to obtain a search path from the root to node u. Each iteration of the for loop considers u and its parent parentOfu (lines 84–106). If u is a 2-node
or 3-node, invoke insert23(e, rightChildOfe, u) to insert e and its child link rightChildOfe into u (line 86). No split is needed (line 87). Otherwise, create a new node v (line 90) and invoke split(e, rightChildOfe, u, v) (line 91) to split u into y and v. The split method inserts e into either y and v and returns the median in the original u. If u is the root, create a new root to hold median, and set y and v as the left and right children for median (lines 95–96). If u is not the root, insert median to parentOfu in the next iteration (lines 101–103).

<margin note: insert23>
The insert23(e, rightChildOfe, node) method inserts e along with the reference to its right child into the node (lines 110–116). The method first invokes locate(e, node) (line 112) to locate an insertion point, then insert e into the node (line 113). If rightChildOfe is not null, it is inserted into the child list of the node (line 115).

<margin note: split>
The split(e, rightChildOfe, u, v) method splits a 4-node u (lines 119–139). This is accomplished as follows: (1) move the last element from u to v and remove the median element from u (lines 122–123); (2) move the last two child links from u to v (lines 127–130) if u is a nonleaf node; (3) if e < median, insert e into u; otherwise, insert e into v (lines 133–136); (4) return median (line 138).

<margin note: path>
The path(e) method returns an ArrayList of nodes searched from the root in order to locate e (lines 142–157). If e is in the tree, the last node in the path contains e. Otherwise the last node is where e should be inserted.

<margin note: delete(e)>
The delete(E e) method deletes an element from the tree (lines 160–174). The method first locates the node that contains e and invokes delete(e, node) to delete e from the node (line 165). If the element is not in the tree, return false (line 173).

<margin note: delete(e, node)>
The delete(e, node) method deletes an element from node u (lines 177–211). If the node is a leaf node, obtain the path that leads to e (line 180), delete e (line 182), set root to null if the tree becomes empty (lines 184–188), and invoke validate to apply transfer and fusion operation on empty nodes (line 190). If the node is a nonleaf node, locate the rightmost element (lines 194–200), obtain the path that leads to e (line 203), replace e with the rightmost element (lines 206–207), and invoke validate to apply transfer and fusion operations on empty nodes (line 209).

<margin note: validate>
The validate(e, u, path) method ensures that the tree is a valid 2-4 tree (lines 214–259). The for loop terminates when u is not empty (line 216). The loop body is executed to fix the empty node u by performing a transfer or fusion operation. If a left sibling with more than one element exists, perform a transfer on u with the left sibling (line 222). Otherwise, if a right sibling with more than one element exists, perform a transfer on u with the left sibling (line 226). Otherwise, if a left sibling exists, perform a fusion on u with the left sibling (lines 230–239), and validate parentOfu in the next loop iteration (line 241). Otherwise, perform a fusion on u with the right sibling.
The `locate(e, node)` method locates the index of `e` in the node (lines 262-270).

The `leftSiblingTransfer(k, u, parentOfu)` method performs a transfer on `u` with its left sibling (lines 273-287). The `rightSiblingTransfer(k, u, parentOfu)` method performs a transfer on `u` with its right sibling (lines 290-302). The `leftSiblingFusion(k, leftNode, u, parentOfu)` method performs a fusion on `u` with its left sibling `leftNode` (lines 305-316). The `rightSiblingFusion(k, rightNode, u, parentOfu)` method performs a fusion on `u` with its right sibling `rightNode` (lines 319-330).

The `preorder()` method displays all the elements in the tree in preorder (lines 338-350).

The inner class `Tree24Node` defines a class for a node in the tree (lines 374-389).

### 47.8 Testing the Tree24 Class

Listing 47.5 gives a test program. The program creates a 2-4 tree and inserts elements in lines 6-20, and deletes elements in lines 22-56.

Listing 47.5 TestTree24.java

```java
public class TestTree24 {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create a 2-4 tree
        Tree24<Integer> tree = new Tree24<Integer>();

        tree.insert(34);
        tree.insert(3);
        tree.insert(50);
        tree.insert(20);
        tree.insert(15);
        tree.insert(16);
        tree.insert(25);
        tree.insert(27);
        tree.insert(29);
        tree.insert(24);
        System.out.print("\nAfter inserting 24:");
        printTree(tree);
        tree.insert(23);
        tree.insert(22);
        tree.insert(60);
        tree.insert(70);
```
After inserting 24:
Preorder: 20 15 3 16 27 34 24 25 29 50
The number of nodes is 10

After inserting 70:
Preorder: 20 15 3 16 24 27 34 22 23 25 29 50 60 70
The number of nodes is 14

After deleting 34:
Preorder: 20 15 3 16 24 27 50 22 23 25 29 60 70
The number of nodes is 13

After deleting 25:
Preorder: 20 15 3 16 23 27 50 22 24 29 60 70
The number of nodes is 12

After deleting 50:
Preorder: 20 15 3 16 23 27 60 22 24 29 70
The number of nodes is 11

After deleting 16:
Preorder: 23 20 3 15 22 27 60 24 29 70
The number of nodes is 10

After deleting 3:
Preorder: 23 20 15 22 27 60 24 29 70
The number of nodes is 9

After deleting 15:
Preorder: 27 23 20 22 24 60 29 70
The number of nodes is 8

<End Output>

Figure 47.15 shows how the tree evolves as elements are added. After 34, 3, 50, 20, 15, 16, 25, 27, 29, and 24 are added to the tree, it is as shown in Figure 47.15(a). After inserting 23, 22, 60, and 70, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(b). After inserting 23, 22, 60, and 70, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(b). After deleting 34, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(c). After deleting 25, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(d). After deleting 50, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(e). After deleting 16, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(f). After deleting 3, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(g). After deleting 15, the tree is as shown in Figure 47.15(h).

(a) After inserting 34, 3, 50, 20, 15, 16, 25, 27, 29, and 24, in this order

(b) After inserting 23, 22, 60, and 70
(c) After deleting 34

(d) After deleting 25

(e) After deleting 50
47.9 Time-Complexity Analysis

Since a 2-4 tree is a completely balanced binary tree, its height is at most $O(\log n)$. The search, insert, and delete methods operate on the nodes along a path in the tree. It takes a constant time to search an element within a node. So, the search method takes $O(\log n)$ time. For the insert method, the time for splitting a node takes a constant time. So, the insert method takes $O(\log n)$ time. For the delete method, it takes a constant time to perform a transfer and fusion operation. So, the delete method takes $O(\log n)$ time.

47.10 B-Tree

So far we assume that the entire data set is stored in main memory. What if the data set is too large and cannot fit in the main memory, as in the case with most databases where data is stored on disks? Suppose you use an AVL tree to organize a million records in a database table. To find a record, the average number of nodes traversed is $\log_2 1,000,000 \approx 20$. This is fine if all nodes are stored in main memory. However, for nodes stored on a disk, this means 20 disk reads. Disk I/O is expensive, and it is thousands of times slower than memory access. To improve performance, we need to reduce the number of disk I/Os. An efficient data structure for performing search, insertion, and deletion
for data stored on secondary storage such as hard disks is the B-tree, which is a generalization of the 2-4 tree.

A B-tree of order $d$ is defined as follows:

1. Each node except the root contains between $\left\lceil \frac{d}{2} \right\rceil - 1$ and $d - 1$ keys.
2. The root may contain up to $d - 1$ keys.
3. A nonleaf node with $k$ keys has $k + 1$ children.
4. All leaf nodes have the same depth.

Figure 47.16 shows a B-tree of order 6. For simplicity, we use integers to represent keys. Each key is associated with a pointer that points to the actual record in the database. For simplicity, the pointers to the records in the database are omitted in the figure.

Figure 47.16
In a B-tree of order 6, each node except the root may contain between 2 and 5 keys.

Note that a B-tree is a search tree. The keys in each node are placed in increasing order. Each key in an interior node has a left subtree and a right subtree, as shown in Figure 47.17. All keys in the left subtree are less than the key in the parent node, and all keys in the right subtree are greater than the key in the parent node.

Figure 47.17
The keys in the left (right) subtree of key $k_i$ are less than (greater than) $k_i$.

<margin note: one block per node>
The basic unit of the I/O operations on a disk is a block. When you read data from a disk, the whole block that contains the data is read. You
should choose an appropriate order $d$ so that a node can fit in a single disk block. This will minimize the number of disk IOs.

A 2-4 tree is actually a B-tree of order 4. The techniques for insertion and deletion in a 2-4 tree can be easily generalized for a B-tree.

<margin note: insertion>
Inserting a key to a B-tree is similar to what was done for a 2-4 tree. First locate the leaf node in which the key will be inserted. Insert the key to the node. After the insertion, if the leaf node has $d$ keys, an overflow occurs. To resolve overflow, perform a split operation similar to the one used in a 2-4 tree, as follows:

Let $u$ denote the node needed to be split and let $m$ denote the median key in the node. Create a new node and move all keys greater than $m$ to this new node. Insert $m$ to the parent node of $u$. Now $u$ becomes the left child of $m$ and $v$ becomes the right child of $m$, as shown in Figure 47.18. If inserting $m$ into the parent node of $u$ causes an overflow, repeat the same split process on the parent node.

![Figure 47.18](a) After inserting a new key to node $u$. (b) The median key $k_p$ is inserted to $\text{parentOf}u$.

<margin note: deletion>
A key $k$ can be deleted from a B-tree in the same way as in a 2-4 tree. First locate the node $u$ that contains the key. Consider two cases:

Case 1: If $u$ is a leaf node, remove the key from $u$. After the removal, if $u$ has less than $\left\lceil d/2 \right\rceil - 1$ keys, an underflow occurs. To remedy an underflow, perform a transfer with a sibling $w$ of $u$ that has more than $\left\lceil d/2 \right\rceil - 1$ keys if such sibling exists, as shown in Figure 47.19. Otherwise perform a fusion with a sibling $w$ of $u$, as shown in Figure 47.20.

![Figure 47.19](a) Before a transfer is performed (b) Key $i$ moved to node $u$ (c) Key $j$ moved to $\text{parentOf}u$.

The transfer operation transfers a key from the parentOf$u$ to $u$ and transfers a key from $u$’s sibling parentOf$u$. 
(a) Before a fusion is performed  (b) After a fusion is performed

Figure 47.20
The fusion operation moves key $i$ from the parent of node $u$ to node $w$ and moves all keys in $u$ to $w$.

Case 2: $u$ is a nonleaf node. Find the rightmost leaf node in the left subtree of $k$. Let this node be $w$, as shown in Figure 47.21(a). Move the last key in $w$ to replace $k$ in $u$, as shown in Figure 47.21(b). If $w$ becomes underflow, apply a transfer or fusion operation on $w$.

![Diagram of fusion operation](image)

(a) Key is in $u$  (b) Replace key $k$ with key $i$

Figure 47.21
A key in the internal node is replaced by an element in a leaf node.

<margin note: B-tree performance>
The performance of a B-tree depends on the number of disk IOs (i.e., the number of nodes accessed). The number of nodes accessed for search, insertion, and deletion operations depends on the height of the tree. In the worst case, each node contains $\left\lceil \frac{d}{2} \right\rceil - 1$ keys. So, the height of the tree is $\log_{\left\lceil \frac{d}{2} \right\rceil} n$, where $n$ is the number of keys. In the best case, each node contains $d - 1$ keys. So, the height of the tree is $\log_d n$. Consider a B-tree of order 12 for ten million keys. The height of the tree is between $\log_{12} 10,000,000 \approx 7$ and $\log_{12} 10,000,000 \approx 9$. So, for search, insertion, and deletion operations, the maximum number of nodes visited is 47. If you use an AVL tree, the maximum number of nodes visited is $\log_2 10,000,000 \approx 24$.

Key Terms
- 2-3-4 tree
- 2-4 tree
- 2-node
- 3-node
- 4-node
- B-tree
- fusion operation
- split operation
Chapter Summary

1. A 2-4 tree is a completely balanced search tree. In a 2-4 tree, a node may have one, two, or three elements.
2. Searching an element in a 2-4 tree is similar to searching an element in a binary tree. The difference is that you have searched an element within a node.
3. To insert an element to a 2-4 tree, locate a leaf node in which the element will be inserted. If the leaf node is a 2- or 3-node, simply insert the element into the node. If the node is a 4-node, split the node.
4. The process of deleting an element from a 2-4 tree is similar to that of deleting an element from a binary tree. The difference is that you have to perform transfer or fusion operations for empty nodes.
5. The height of a 2-4 tree is $O(\log n)$. So, the time complexities for the search, insert, and delete methods are $O(\log n)$.
6. A B-tree is a generalization of the 2-4 tree. Each node in a B-tree of order $d$ can have between $\left[\frac{d}{2}\right]-1$ and $d-1$ keys except the root. 2-4 trees are flatter than AVL trees and B-trees are flatter than 2-4 trees. B-trees are efficient for creating indexes for data in database systems where large amounts of data are stored on disks.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 47.1–47.2

47.1
What is a 2-4 tree? What are a 2-node, 3-node, and 4-node?

47.2
Describe the data fields in the Tree24 class and those in the Tree24Node class.

47.3
What is the minimum number of elements in a 2-4 tree of height 5? What is the maximum number of elements in a 2-4 tree of height 5?

Sections 47.3–47.5

47.4
How do you search an element in a 2-4 tree?

47.5
How do you insert an element into a 2-4 tree?

47.6
How do you delete an element from a 2-4 tree?
Show the change of a 2-4 tree when inserting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 into it, in this order.

47.8
For the tree built in the preceding question, show the change of the tree after deleting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 from it in this order.

47.9
Show the change of a B-tree of order 6 when inserting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6, 17, 25, 18, 26, 14, 52, 63, 74, 80, 19, 27 into it, in this order.

47.10
For the tree built in the preceding question, show the change of the tree after deleting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 from it, in this order.

Programming Exercises

47.1*
(Implement inorder) The inorder method in Tree24 is left as an exercise. Implement it.

47.2
(Implement postorder) The postorder method in Tree24 is left as an exercise. Implement it.

47.3
(Implement iterator) The iterator method in Tree24 is left as an exercise. Implement it to iterate the elements using inorder.

47.4*
(Display a 2-4 tree graphically) Write an applet that displays a 2-4 tree.

47.5***
(2-4 tree animation) Write a Java applet that animates the 2-4 tree insert, delete, and search methods, as shown in Figure 47.4.

47.6**
(Parent reference for Tree24) Redefine Tree24Node to add a reference to a node’s parent, as shown below:

```
Tree24Node<E>

elements: ArrayList<E>
child: ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>>
parent: Tree24Node<E>
```

An array list for storing the elements.
An array list for storing the links to the child nodes.
Refers to the parent of this node.

```
+Tree24()
+Tree24(e: E)
```

Creates an empty tree node.
Creates a tree node with an initial element.

Add the following two new methods in Tree24:

```
public Tree24Node<E> getParent(Tree24Node<E> node)
```
Returns the parent for the specified node.

**public ArrayList<Tree24Node<E>> getPath(Tree24Node<E> node)**

Returns the path from the specified node to the root in an array list.

Write a test program that adds numbers 1, 2, ..., 100 to the tree and displays the paths for all leaf nodes.

47.7***

(The BTree class) Design and implement a class for B-trees.
CHAPTER 48

Red-Black Trees

Objectives

- To know what a red-black tree is ($§48.1$).
- To convert a red-black tree to a 2-4 tree and vice versa ($§48.2$).
- To design the RBTree class that extends the BinaryTree class ($§48.3$).
- To insert an element in a red-black tree and resolve the double-red violation if necessary ($§48.4$).
- To delete an element from a red-black tree and resolve the double-black problem if necessary ($§48.5$).
- To implement and test the RBTree class ($§§48.6-48.7$).
- To compare the performance of AVL trees, 2-4 trees, and RBTree ($§48.8$).
48.1 Introduction

A red-black tree is a binary search tree derived from a 2-4 tree. A red-black tree corresponds to a 2-4 tree. Each node in a red-black tree has a color attribute red or black, as shown in Figure 48.1(a). A node is called external if its left or right subtree is empty. Note that a leaf node is external, but an external node is not necessarily a leaf node. For example, node 25 is external, but it is not a leaf. The black depth of a node is defined as the number of black nodes in a path from the node to the root. For example, the black depth of node 25 is 2 and that of node 27 is 2.

Figure 48.1

A red-black tree can be represented using a 2-4 tree, and vice versa.

NOTE: The red nodes appear in blue in the text.

48.2 Conversion between Red-Black Trees and 2-4 Trees

You can design insertion and deletion algorithms for red-black trees without having knowledge of 2-4 trees. However, the correspondence between red-black trees and 2-4 trees provides useful intuition about the structure of red-black trees and operations. For this reason, this section discusses the correspondence between these two types of trees.

To convert a red-black tree to a 2-4 tree, simply merge every red node with its parent to create a 3-node or a 4-node. For example, the red nodes 15 and 34 are merged to their parent to create a 4-node, and the
red node 27 is merged to its parent to create a 3-node, as shown in Figure 48.1(b).

<margin note: 2-4 to red-black>

To convert a 2-4 tree to a red-black tree, perform the following transformations for each node $u$:

<margin note: converting 2-node>

1. If $u$ is a 2-node, color it black, as shown in Figure 48.2(a).

<margin note: converting 3-node>

2. If $u$ is a 3-node with element values $e_0$ and $e_1$, there are two ways to convert it. Either make $e_0$ the parent of $e_1$ or make $e_1$ the parent of $e_0$. In any case, color the parent black and the child red, as shown in Figure 48.2(b).

<margin note: converting 4-node>

3. If $u$ is a 4-node with element values $e_0$, $e_1$, and $e_2$, make $e_1$ the parent of $e_0$ and $e_2$. Color $e_1$ black and $e_0$ and $e_2$ red, as shown in Figure 48.2(c).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2-3-4 Tree</th>
<th>Equivalent red-black tree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Converting a 2-node</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Converting a 3-node</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Converting a 4-node</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 48.2

A node in a 2-4 tree can be transformed to nodes in a red-black tree.

<margin note: not unique>

Let us apply the transformation for the 2-4 tree in Figure 48.1(b). After transforming the 4-node, the tree is as shown in Figure 48.3(a). After transforming the 3-node, the tree is as shown in Figure 48.3(b). Note that the transformation for a 3-node is not unique. Therefore, the conversion from a 2-4 tree to a red-black tree is not unique. After transforming the 3-node, the tree could also be as shown in Figure 48.3(c).
Figure 48.3
The conversion from a 2-4 tree to a red-black tree is not unique.

You can prove that the conversion results in a red-black tree that satisfies all three properties.

<margin note: Property 1 proof>
Property 1. The root is black.
Proof: If the root of a 2-4 tree is a 2-node, the root of the red-black tree is black. If the root of a 2-4 tree is a 3-node or 4-node, the transformation produces a black parent at the root.

<margin note: Property 2 proof>
Property 2. Two adjacent nodes cannot be both red.
Proof: Since the parent of a red node is always black, no two adjacent nodes can be both red.

<margin note: Property 3 proof>
Property 3. All external nodes have the same black depth.
Proof: When you covert a node in a 2-4 tree to red-black tree nodes, you get one black node and zero, one, or two red nodes as its children, depending on whether the original node is a 2-, 3-, or 4-node. Only a leaf 2-4 node may produce external red-black nodes. Since a 2-4 tree is perfectly balanced, the number of black nodes in any path from the root to an external node is the same.

48.3 Designing Classes for Red-Black Trees

A red-black tree is a binary search tree. So, you can define the RBTree class to extend the BinaryTree class, as shown in Figure 48.4. The BinaryTree and TreeNode classes are defined in §26.2.5.
The RBTree class extends BinaryTree with new implementations for the insert and delete methods.

Each node in a red-black tree has a color property. Because the color is either red or black, it is efficient to use the boolean type to denote it. The RBTreeNode class can be defined to extend BinaryTree.TreeNode with the color property. For convenience, we also provide the methods for checking the color and setting a new color. Note that TreeNode is defined as a static inner class in BinaryTree. RBTreeNode will be defined as a static inner class in RBTree. Note that BinaryTreeNode contains the data fields element, left, and right, which are inherited in RBTreeNode. So, RBTreeNode contains four data fields, as pictured in Figure 48.5.

```plaintext
node: RBTreeNode<E>
#element: E
-red: boolean
#left: TreeNode
#right: TreeNode
```

An RBTreeNode contains data fields element, red, left, and right.

In the BinaryTree class, the createNewNode() method creates a TreeNode object. This method is overridden in the RBTree class to create an RBTreeNode. Note that the return type of the createNewNode() method in the BinaryTree class is TreeNode, but the return type of the createNewNode() method in RBTree class is RBTreeNode. This is fine, since RBTreeNode is a subtype of TreeNode.

Searching an element in a red-black tree is the same as searching in a regular binary search tree. So, the search method defined in the BinaryTree class also works for RBTree.

The insert and delete methods are overridden to insert and delete an element and perform operations for coloring and restructuring if necessary to ensure that the three properties of the red-black tree are satisfied.

Pedagogical NOTE

<side remark: Red-Black tree animation>
Run from
www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang-animation/RBTreeAnimation.html
to see how a red-black tree works, as shown in Figure 48.6.
Figure 48.6
The animation tool enables you to insert, delete, and search elements in a red-black tree visually.

***End NOTE

48.4 Overriding the insert Method

A new element is always inserted as a leaf node. If the new node is the root, color it black. Otherwise, color it red. If the parent of the new node is red, it violates Property 2 of the red-black tree. We call this a double-red violation.

Let \( u \) denote the new node inserted, \( v \) the parent of \( u \), \( w \) the parent of \( v \), and \( x \) the sibling of \( v \). To fix the double-red violation, consider two cases:

Case 1: \( x \) is black or \( x \) is null. There are four possible configurations for \( u \), \( v \), \( w \), and \( x \), as shown in Figures 48.7(a), 48.8(a), 48.9(a), and 48.10(a). In this case, \( u \), \( v \), and \( w \) form a 4-node in the corresponding 2-4 tree, as shown in Figures 48.7(c), 48.8(c), 48.9(c), and 48.10(c), but are represented incorrectly in the red-black tree. To correct this error, restructure and recolor three nodes \( u \), \( v \), and \( w \), as shown in Figures 48.7(b), 48.8(b), 48.9(b), and 48.10(b). Note that \( x \), \( y_1 \), \( y_2 \), and \( y_3 \) may be null.

Figure 48.7
Case 1.1: \( u < v < w \).
Figure 48.8
Case 1.2: \( v < u < w \)

Figure 48.9
Case 1.3: \( w < v < u \)

Figure 48.10
Case 1.4: \( w < u < v \)

Case 2: \( X \) is red. There are four possible configurations for \( u, v, w, \) and \( X \), as shown in Figures 48.11(a), 48.11(b), 48.11(c), and 48.11(d). All of these configurations correspond to an overflow situation in the corresponding 4-node in a 2-4 tree, as shown in Figure 48.12(a). A splitting operation is performed to fix the overflow problem in a 2-4 tree, as shown in Figure 48.12(b). We perform an equivalent recoloring operation to fix the problem in a red-black tree. Color \( w \) and \( u \) red and color two children of \( w \) black. Assume \( u \) is a left child of \( v \), as shown in Figure 48.11(a). After recoloring, the nodes are shown in Figure 48.12(c). Now \( w \) is red, if \( w \)'s parent is black, the double-red violation is fixed. Otherwise, a new double-red violation occurs at node \( w \). We need to continue the same process to eliminate the double-red violation at \( w \), recursively.
Figure 48.11
Case 2 has four possible configurations.

(a) A 4-node          (b) Splitting a 4-node        (c) Recoloring nodes

Figure 48.12
Splitting a 4-node corresponds to recoloring the nodes in the red-black tree.

A more detailed algorithm for inserting an element is described in Listing 48.1.

Listing 48.1 Inserting an Element to a Red-Black Tree

<margin note line 1: insert to tree>
<margin note line 2: invoke super.insert>
<margin note line 4: duplicate element>
<margin note line 6: ensure color and depth>

<margin note line 13: ensure color and depth>
<margin note line 14: get path>
<margin note line 15: node index>
<margin note line 16: get u, v>
<margin note line 20: u is root?>
<margin note line 22: double-red violation>

<margin note line 27: fix double red>
public boolean insert(E e) {
    boolean successful = super.insert(e);
    if (!successful)
        return false; // e is already in the tree
    else {
        ensureRBTree(e);
    }

    return true; // e is inserted
}

/** Ensure that the tree is a red-black tree */
private void ensureRBTree(E e) {
    Get the path that leads to element e from the root.
    int i = path.size() - 1; // Index to the current node in the path
    Get u, v from the path. u is the node that contains e and v
    is the parent of u.
    Color u red;

    if (u == root) // If e is inserted as the root, set root black
        u.setBlack();
    else if (v.isRed())
        fixDoubleRed(u, v, path, i); // Fix double-red violation at u
}

/** Fix double-red violation at node u */
private void fixDoubleRed(RBTreeNode<E> u, RBTreeNode<E> v,
    ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path, int i) {
    Get w from the path. w is the grandparent of u.
    // Get v's sibling named x
    RBTreeNode<E> x = (w.left == v) ?
        (RBTreeNode<E>)(w.right) : (RBTreeNode<E>)(w.left);

    if (x == null || x.isBlack()) {
        // Case 1: v's sibling x is black
        if (w.left == v && v.left == u) {
            // Case 1.1: u < v < w, Restructure and recolor nodes
        }
    else if (w.left == v && v.right == u) {
        // Case 1.2: v < u < w, Restructure and recolor nodes
    }
    else if (w.right == v && v.right == u) {

}
// Case 1.3: w < v < u, Restructure and recolor nodes
} else {
// Case 1.4: w < u < v, Restructure and recolor nodes
}

else { // Case 2: v's sibling x is red
  Color w and u red
  Color two children of w black.
  if (w is root) {
    Set w black;
  }
  else if (the parent of w is red) {
    // Propagate along the path to fix new double-red violation
    u = w;
    v = parent of w;
    fixDoubleRed(u, v, path, i - 2); // i – 2 propagates upward
  }
}

<margin note: insert(E, e)>
The insert(E, e) method (lines 1–10) invokes the insert method in the BinaryTree class to create a new leaf node for the element (line 2). If the element is already in the tree, return false (line 4). Otherwise, invoke ensureRBTree(e) (line 6) to ensure that the tree satisfies the color and black depth property of the red-black tree.

<margin note: ensureRBTree(E, e)>
The ensureRBTree(E, e) method (lines 13–24) obtains the path that leads to e from the root (line 14), as shown in Figure 48.13. This path plays an important role to implement the algorithm. From this path, you get nodes u and v (lines 16–17). If u is the root, color u black (lines 20–21). If v is red, a double-red violation occurs at node u. Invoke fixDoubleRed to fix the problem.

<margin note: fixDoubleRed>
The fixDoubleRed method (lines 27–63) fixes the double-red violation. It first obtains w (the parent of v) from the path (line 29) and x (the
sibling of \( v \) (lines 32–33). If \( x \) is empty or a black node, restructure and recolor three nodes \( u, v, \) and \( w \) to eliminate the problem (lines 35–49). If \( x \) is a red node, recolor the nodes \( u, v, w \) and \( x \) (lines 51–52). If \( w \) is the root, color \( w \) black (lines 54–56). If the parent of \( w \) is red, the double-red violation reappears at \( w \). Invoke \texttt{fixDoubleRed} with new \( u \) and \( v \) to fix the problem (line 61). Note that now \( i - 2 \) points to the new \( u \) in the path. This adjustment is necessary to locate the new nodes \( w \) and parent of \( w \) along the path.

\textit{<margin note: insertion example>}

Figure 48.14 shows the steps of inserting 34, 3, 50, 20, 15, 16, 25, and 27 into an empty red-black tree. When inserting 20 into the tree in (d), Case 2 applies to recolor 3 and 50 to black. When inserting 15 into the tree in (g), Case 1.4 applies to restructure and recolor nodes 15, 20, and 3. When inserting 16 into the tree in (i), Case 2 applies to recolor nodes 3 and 20 to black and nodes 15 and 16 to red. When inserting 27 into the tree in (l), Case 2 applies to recolor nodes 16 and 25 to black and nodes 20 and 27 to red. Now a new double-red problem occurs at node 20. Apply Case 1.2 to restructure and recolor nodes. The new tree is shown in (n).
Figure 48.14
Inserting into a red-black tree: (a) initial empty tree; (b) inserting 34; (c) inserting 3; (d) inserting 50; (e) inserting 20 causes a double red; (f) after recoloring (Case 2); (g) inserting 15 causes a double red; (h) after restructuring and recoloring (Case 1.4); (i) inserting 16 causes a double red; (j) after recoloring (Case 2); (k) inserting 25; (l) inserting 27 causes a double red at 27; (m) a double red at 20 reappears after recoloring (Case 2); (n) after restructuring and recoloring (Case 1.2).

48.5 Overriding the delete Method

To delete an element from a red-black tree, first search the element in the tree to locate the node that contains the element. If the element is not in the tree, the method returns false. Let \( u \) be the node that contains the element. If \( u \) is an internal node with both left and right children, find the rightmost node in the left subtree of \( u \). Replace the element in \( u \) with the element in the rightmost node. Now we will only consider deleting external nodes.

Let \( u \) be an external node to be deleted. Since \( u \) is an external node, it has at most one child, denoted by \( \text{childOf} u \). \( \text{childOf} u \) may be null. Let \( \text{parentOf} u \) denote the parent of \( u \), as shown in Figure 48.15(a). Delete \( u \) by connecting \( \text{childOf} u \) with \( \text{parentOf} u \), as shown in Figure 48.15(b).

Figure 48.15
\( u \) is an external node and \( \text{childOf} u \) may be null.

Consider the following case:

- If \( u \) is red, we are done.
• If $u$ is black and $childOfu$ is red, color $childOfu$ black to maintain the black height for $childOfu$.

**<margin note: double black>**

• Otherwise, assign $childOfu$ a fictitious double black, as shown in Figure 48.16(a). We call this a double-black problem, which indicates that the black-depth is short by 1, caused by deleting a black node $u$.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 48.16**

(a) $childOfu$ is denoted double black. (b) $u$ corresponds to an empty node in a 2-4 tree.

A double black in a red-black tree corresponds to an empty node for $u$ (i.e., underflow situation) in the corresponding 2-4 tree, as shown in Figure 48.16(b). To fix the double-black problem, we will perform equivalent transfer and fusion operations. Consider three cases:

**<margin note: Case 1>**

**Case 1**: The sibling $y$ of childOfu is black and has a red child. This case has four possible configurations, as shown in Figures 48.17(a), 48.18(a), 48.19(a), and 48.20(a). The dashed circle denotes that the node is either red or black. To eliminate the double-black problem, restructure and recolor the nodes, as shown in Figures 48.17(b), 48.18(b), 48.19(b), and 48.20(b).

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 48.17**

Case 1.1: The sibling $y$ of $childOfu$ is black and $y_1$ is red.

13
Figure 48.18
Case 1.2: The sibling y of childOfu is black and y2 is red.

Figure 48.19
Case 1.3: The sibling y of childOfu is black and y1 is red.

Figure 48.20
Case 1.4: the sibling y of childOfu is black and y2 is red.

Note
<margin note: transfer operation>
Case 1 corresponds to a transfer operation in the 2-4 tree. For example, the corresponding 2-4 tree for Figure 48.17(a) is shown in Figure 48.21(a), and it is transformed into 48.21(b) through a transfer operation.
Case 1 corresponds to a transfer operation in the corresponding 2-4 tree.

***END of NOTE

Case 2: The sibling $y$ of $childOfu$ is black and its children are black or null. In this case, change $y$'s color to red. If parent is red, change it to black, and we are done, as shown in Figure 48.22. If parent is black, we denote parent double black, as shown in Figure 48.23. The double-black problem propagates to the parent node.

Case 2: Recoloring propagates the double-black problem if parent is black.

Note
Figures 48.22 and 48.22 show that childOfu is a right child of parent. If childOfu is a left child of parent, recoloring is performed identically.

Note

Case 2 corresponds to a fusion operation in the 2-4 tree. For example, the corresponding 2-4 tree for Figure 48.22(a) is shown in Figure 48.24(a), and it is transformed into 48.24(b) through a fusion operation.

Figure 48.24
Case 2 corresponds to a fusion operation in the corresponding 2-4 tree.

***END of NOTE

Case 3: The sibling y of childOfu is red. In this case, perform an adjustment operation. If y is a left child of parent, let y1 and y2 be the left and right child of y, as shown in Figure 48.25. If y is a right child of parent, let y1 and y2 be the left and right child of y, as shown in Figure 48.26. In both cases, color y black and parent red. childOfu is still a fictitious double-black node. After the adjustment, the sibling of childOfu is now black, and either Case 1 or Case 2 applies. If Case 1 applies, a one-time restructuring and recoloring operation eliminates the double-black problem. If Case 2 applies, the double-black problem cannot reappear, since parent is now red. Therefore, one-time application of Case 1 or Case 2 will complete Case 3.

Figure 48.25
Case 3.1: y is a left red child of parent.
Case 3.2: $y$ is a right red child of parent.

Note

Case 3 results from the fact that a 3-node may be transformed in two ways to a red-black tree, as shown in Figure 48.27.

A 3-node may be transformed in two ways to red-black tree nodes.

Based on the foregoing discussion, Listing 48.2 presents a more detailed algorithm for deleting an element.

**Listing 48.2 Deleting an Element from a Red-Black Tree**

(delete $e$ from tree)

locate the node

element not found

internal element?

rightmost node

path to external node

delete the node

one element deleted
public boolean delete(E e) {
    Locate the node to be deleted
    if (the node is not found)
        return false;

    if (the node is an internal node) {
        Find the rightmost node in the subtree of the node;
        Replace the element in the node with the one in rightmost;
        The rightmost node is the node to be deleted now;
    }

    Obtain the path from the root to the node to be deleted;

    // Delete the last node in the path and propagate if needed
    deleteLastNodeInPath(path);

    size--; // After one element deleted
    return true; // Element deleted
}

/** Delete the last node from the path. */
public void deleteLastNodeInPath(ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path) {
    Get the last node u in the path;
    Get parentOfu and grandparentOfu in the path;
    Get childOfu from u;
    Delete node u. Connect childOfu with parentOfu

    // Recolor the nodes and fix double black if needed
    if (childOfu == root || u.isRed())
        return; // Done if childOfu is root or if u is red
    else if (childOfu != null && childOfu.isRed())
        childOfu.setBlack(); // Set it black, done
    else // u is black, childOfu is null or black
        fix double black on parentOfu
```java
fixDoubleBlack(grandparentOfu, parentOfu, childOfu, path, i);

/** Fix the double black problem at node parent */
private void fixDoubleBlack(
    RBTreeNode<E> grandparent, RBTreeNode<E> parent,
    RBTreeNode<E> db, ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path, int i) {

    Obtain y, y1, and y2
    
    if (y.isBlack() && y1 != null && y1.isRed()) {
        if (parent.right == db) {
            // Case 1.1: y is a left black sibling and y1 is red
            Restructure and recolor parent, y, and y1 to fix the problem;
        } else {
            // Case 1.3: y is a right black sibling and y1 is red
            Restructure and recolor parent, y1, and y to fix the problem;
        }
    } else if (y.isBlack() && y2 != null && y2.isRed()) {
        if (parent.right == db) {
            // Case 1.2: y is a left black sibling and y2 is red
            Restructure and recolor parent, y2, and y to fix the problem;
        } else {
            // Case 1.4: y is a right black sibling and y2 is red
            Restructure and recolor parent, y, and y2 to fix the problem;
        }
    } else if (y.isBlack()) {
        // Case 2: y is black and y's children are black or null
        Recolor y to red;

        if (parent.isRed())
            parent.setBlack(); // Done
        else if (parent != root) {
            // Propagate double black to the parent node
            // Fix new appearance of double black recursively
            db = parent;
            parent = grandparent;
            grandparent =
            (i >= 3) ? (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 3)) : null;
            fixDoubleBlack(grandparent, parent, db, path, i - 1);
        }
    } else if (y.isRed()) {
        if (parent.right == db) {
            // Case 3.1: y is a left red child of parent
            parent.left = y2;
            y.right = parent;
        } else {
            // Case 3.2: y is a right red child of parent
            parent.right = y.left;
            y.left = parent;
        }
    }
```
parent.setRed(); // Color parent red
y.setBlack(); // Color y black
connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y); // y is new parent
fixDoubleBlack(y, parent, db, path, i - 1);
}

The delete(E e) method (lines 1–19) locates the node that contains e (line 2). If the node does not exist, return false (lines 3–4). If the node is an internal node, find the right most node in its left subtree and replace the element in the node with the element in the right most node (lines 6–9). Now the node to be deleted is an external node. Obtain the path from the root to the node (line 12). Invoke deleteLastNodeInPath(path) to delete the last node in the path and ensure that the tree is still a red-black tree (line 15).

The deleteLastNodeInPath method (lines 22–36) obtains the last node u, parentOfu, grandparendOfu, and childOfu (lines 23–26). If childOfu is the root or u is red, the tree is fine (lines 29–30). If childOfu is red, color it black (lines 31–32). We are done. Otherwise, u is black and childOfu is null or black. Invoke fixDoubleBlack to eliminate the double-black problem (line 35).

The fixDoubleBlack method (lines 39–97) eliminates the double-black problem. Obtain y, y1, and y2 (line 42). y is the sibling of the double-black node. y1 and y2 are the left and right children of y. Consider three cases:
1. If y is black and one of its children is red, the double-black problem can be fixed by one-time restructuring and recoloring in Case 1 (lines 44–63).
2. If y is black and its children are null or black, change y to red. If parent of y is black, denote parent to be the new double-black node and invoke fixDoubleBlack recursively (line 77).
3. If y is red, adjust the nodes to make parent a child of y (lines 84, 89) and color parent red and y black (lines 92–93). Make y the new parent (line 94). Recursively invoke fixDoubleBlack on the same double-black node with a different color for parent (line 95).

Figure 48.28 shows the steps of deleting elements. To delete 50 from the tree in Figure 48.28(a), apply Case 1.2, as shown in Figure 48.28(b). After restructuring and recoloring, the new tree is as shown in Figure 48.28(c).

When deleting 20 in Figure 48.28(c), 20 is an internal node, and it is replaced by 16, as shown in Figure 48.28(d). Now Case 2 applies to deleting the rightmost node, as shown in Figure 48.28(e). Recolor the nodes results in a new tree, as shown in Figure 48.28(f).

When deleting 15, connect node 3 with node 20 and color node 3 black, as shown in Figure 48.28(g). We are done.
After deleting 25, the new tree is as shown in Figure 48.28(j). Now delete 16. Apply Case 2, as shown in Figure 48.28(k). The new tree is shown in Figure 48.28(l).

After deleting 34, the new tree is as shown in Figure 48.28(m).

After deleting 27, the new tree is as shown in Figure 48.28(n).
48.6 Implementing RBTree Class

Listing 48.3 gives a complete implementation for the RBTree class.

Listing 48.3 RBTree.java
<margin note line 5: no-arg constructor>
<margin note line 9: constructor>
<margin note line 14: create a new node>
<margin note line 19: insert to tree>
<margin note line 20: invoke super.insert>
<margin note line 22: duplicate element>
<margin note line 24: ensure color and depth>

<margin note line 31: ensure color and depth>
<margin note line 33: get path>
<margin note line 35: node index>
<margin note line 38: get u >
<margin note line 41: get v>

<margin note line 46: u is root?>
<margin note line 49: double-red violation>

<margin note line 53: fix double red>
<margin note line 56: get w>
<margin note line 61: get x>
<margin note line 65: Case 1>
<margin note line 66: Case 1.1>
<margin note line 73: Case 1.2>
<margin note line 81: Case 1.3>
<margin note line 87: Case 1.4>
<margin note line 96: Case 2>
<margin note line 98: recoloring>
<margin note line 103: w is root?>
<margin note line 108: propagate upward>
<margin note line 110: fix new double red>

<margin note line 116: restructure/recol0r>
<margin note line 133: delete e from tree>
<margin note line 135: locate the node>
<margin note line 147: element not found>
<margin note line 153: internal element?>
<margin note line 155: rightmost node>
<margin note line 160: path to external node>
<margin note line 169: delete the node>
<margin note line 171: one element deleted>
<margin note line 172: deletion successful>

<margin note line 176: delete a node>
<margin note line 179: u>
<margin note line 180: parentOfu>
<margin note line 182: grandparentOfu>
<margin note line 185: childOfu>
<margin note line 189: delete u>
<margin note line 193: done>
import java.util.ArrayList;

public class RBTree<E extends Comparable<E>> extends BinaryTree<E> {
    /** Create a default RB tree */
    public RBTree() {
    }

    /** Create an RB tree from an array of elements */
    public RBTree(E[] elements) {
        super(elements);
    }

    /** Override createNewNode to create an RBTreeNode */
    protected RBTreeNode<E> createNewNode(E e) {
        return new RBTreeNode<E>(e);
    }

    /** Override the insert method to balance the tree if necessary */
    public boolean insert(E e) {
        boolean successful = super.insert(e);
        if (!successful)
            return false; // e is already in the tree
        else {
            ensureRBTree(e);
        }
        return true; // e is inserted
    }

    /** Ensure that the tree is a red-black tree */
    private void ensureRBTree(E e) {
        // Get the path that leads to element e from the root
        ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path = path(e);
        int i = path.size() - 1; // Index to the current node in the path
        // u is the last node in the path, u contains element e
        RBTreeNode<E> u = (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i));
        // ...
// v is the parent of u, if exists
RBTreeNode<E> v = (u == root) ? null :
    (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 1));

u.setRed(); // It is OK to set u red

if (u == root) // If e is inserted as the root, set root black
    u.setBlack();
else if (v.isRed())
    fixDoubleRed(u, v, path, i); // Fix double-red violation at u

/** Fix double-red violation at node u */
private void fixDoubleRed(RBTreeNode<E> u, RBTreeNode<E> v,
    ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path, int i) {
    // w is the grandparent of u
    RBTreeNode<E> w = (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 2));
    RBTreeNode<E> parentOfw = (w == root) ? null :
        (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 3));

    // Get v's sibling named x
    RBTreeNode<E> x = (w.left == v) ?
        (RBTreeNode<E>)(w.right) : (RBTreeNode<E>)(w.left);

    if (x == null || x.isBlack()) {
        // Case 1: v's sibling x is black
        if (w.left == v && v.left == u) {
            // Case 1.1: u < v < w, Restructure and recolor nodes
            restructureRecolor(u, v, w, w, parentOfw);
            w.left = v.right; // v.right is v3 in Figure 48.6
            v.right = w;
        }
        else if (w.left == v && v.right == u) {
            // Case 1.2: v < u < w, Restructure and recolor nodes
            restructureRecolor(v, u, w, w, parentOfw);
            v.right = u.left;
            w.left = u.right;
            u.left = v;
            u.right = w;
        }
        else if (w.right == v && v.right == u) {
            // Case 1.3: w < v < u, Restructure and recolor nodes
            restructureRecolor(w, v, u, w, parentOfw);
            w.right = v.left;
            v.left = w;
        }
        else if (w.right == v && v.left == u) {
            // Case 1.4: w < u < v, Restructure and recolor nodes
            restructureRecolor(w, u, v, w, parentOfw);
            w.right = u.left;
            v.left = u.right;
            u.left = w;
            u.right = v;
        }
    }
    else {
        // Case 1.5: u < v < w, Restructure and recolor nodes
        restructureRecolor(u, v, w, w, parentOfw);
    }
}
else { // Case 2: v's sibling x is red
    // Recolor nodes
    w.setRed();
    u.setRed();
    ((RBTreeNode<E>)(w.left)).setBlack();
    ((RBTreeNode<E>)(w.right)).setBlack();

    if (w == root) {
        w.setBlack();
    } else if (((RBTreeNode<E>)parentOfw).isRed()) {
        // Propagate along the path to fix new double-red violation
        u = w;
        v = (RBTreeNode<E>)parentOfw;
        fixDoubleRed(u, v, path, i - 2); // i – 2 propagates upward
    }
}

/** Connect b with parentOfw and recolor a, b, c for a < b < c */
private void restructureRecolor(RBTreeNode<E> a, RBTreeNode<E> b,
                                RBTreeNode<E> c, RBTreeNode<E> w, RBTreeNode<E> parentOfw) {
    if (parentOfw == null)
        root = b;
    else if (parentOfw.left == w)
        parentOfw.left = b;
    else
        parentOfw.right = b;

    b.setBlack(); // b becomes the root in the subtree
    a.setRed(); // a becomes the left child of b
    c.setRed(); // c becomes the right child of b
}

/** Delete an element from the RBTree. */
public boolean delete(E e) {
    // Locate the node to be deleted
    TreeNode<E> current = root;
    while (current != null) {
        if (e.compareTo(current.element) < 0) {
            current = current.left;
        } else if (e.compareTo(current.element) > 0) {
            current = current.right;
        } else
            break; // Element is in the tree pointed by current
    }

    if (current == null)
        return false; // Element is not in the tree

    java.util.ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path;
// current node is an internal node
if (current.left != null && current.right != null) {
    // Locate the rightmost node in the left subtree of current
    TreeNode<E> rightMost = current.left;
    while (rightMost.right != null) {
        rightMost = rightMost.right; // Keep going to the right
    }
    path = path(rightMost.element); // Get path before replacement
    // Replace the element in current by the element in rightMost
    current.element = rightMost.element;
    else
    path = path(e); // Get path to current node

    // Delete the last node in the path and propagate if needed
    deleteLastNodeInPath(path);
    size--; // After one element deleted
    return true; // Element deleted
}

/** Delete the last node from the path. */
public void deleteLastNodeInPath(ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path) {
    int i = path.size() - 1; // Index to the node in the path
    // u is the last node in the path
    RBTreeNode<E> u = (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i));
    RBTreeNode<E> parentOfu = (u == root) ? null :
    (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 1));
    RBTreeNode<E> grandparentOfu = (parentOfu == null ||
    parentOfu == root) ? null :
    (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 2));
    RBTreeNode<E> childOfu = (u.left == null) ?
    (RBTreeNode<E>)(u.right) : (RBTreeNode<E>)(u.left);

    // Delete node u. Connect childOfu with parentOfu
    connectNewParent(parentOfu, u, childOfu);
    // Recolor the nodes and fix double black if needed
    if (childOfu == root || u.isRed())
    return; // Done if childOfu is root or if u is red
    else if (childOfu != null && childOfu.isRed())
    childOfu.setBlack(); // Set it black, done
    else // u is black, childOfu is null or black
    // Fix double black on parentOfu
    fixDoubleBlack(grandparentOfu, parentOfu, childOfu, path, i);
}

/** Fix the double-black problem at node parent */
private void fixDoubleBlack(RBTreeNode<E> grandparent, RBTreeNode<E> parent, 
                      RBTreeNode<E> db, ArrayList<TreeNode<E>> path, int i) {
    // Obtain y, y1, and y2
    RBTreeNode<E> y = (parent.right == db) ?

(RBTreeNode<E>)(parent.left) = (RBTreeNode<E>)(parent.right);
RBTreeNode<E> y1 = (RBTreeNode<E>)(y.left);
RBTreeNode<E> y2 = (RBTreeNode<E>)(y.right);

if (y.isBlack() && y1 != null && y1.isRed()) {
    if (parent.right == db) {
        // Case 1.1: y is a left black sibling and y1 is red
        connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y);
        recolor(parent, y, y1); // Adjust colors
        // Adjust child links
        parent.left = y.right;
        y.right = parent;
    }
    else {
        // Case 1.3: y is a right black sibling and y1 is red
        connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y1);
        recolor(parent, y1, y); // Adjust colors
        // Adjust child links
        parent.right = y1.left;
        y.left = y1.right;
        y1.left = parent;
        y1.right = y;
    }
}
else if (y.isBlack() && y2 != null && y2.isRed()) {
    if (parent.right == db) {
        // Case 1.2: y is a left black sibling and y2 is red
        connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y2);
        recolor(parent, y2, y); // Adjust colors
        // Adjust child links
        y.right = y2.left;
        parent.left = y2.right;
        y2.left = y;
        y2.right = parent;
    }
    else {
        // Case 1.4: y is a right black sibling and y2 is red
        connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y);
        recolor(parent, y, y2); // Adjust colors
        // Adjust child links
        y.left = parent;
        parent.right = y1;
    }
}
else if (y.isBlack()) {
    // Case 2: y is black and y's children are black or null
    y.setRed(); // Change y to red
    if (parent.isRed())
        parent.setBlack(); // Done
    else if (parent != root) {
        // Propagate double black to the parent node
        // Fix new appearance of double black recursively
db = parent;
    parent = grandparent;
    grandparent =
    (i >= 3) ? (RBTreeNode<E>)(path.get(i - 3)) : null;
    fixDoubleBlack(grandparent, parent, db, path, i - 1);
}
}
else { // y.isRed()
    if (parent.right == db)
        // Case 3.1: y is a left red child of parent
        parent.left = y2;
        y.right = parent;
    }
    else {
        // Case 3.2: y is a right red child of parent
        parent.right = y.left;
        y.left = parent;
    }
    parent.setRed(); // Color parent red
    y.setBlack(); // Color y black
    connectNewParent(grandparent, parent, y); // y is new parent
    fixDoubleBlack(y, parent, db, path, i - 1);
}
/** Recolor parent, newParent, and c. Case 1 removal */
private void recolor(RBTreeNode<E> parent,
    RBTreeNode<E> newParent, RBTreeNode<E> c) {
    // Retain the parent's color for newParent
    if (parent.isRed())
        newParent.setRed();
    else
        newParent.setBlack();
    // c and parent become the children of newParent; set them black
    parent.setBlack();
    c.setBlack();
}
/** Connect newParent with grandParent */
private void connectNewParent(RBTreeNode<E> grandparent,
    RBTreeNode<E> parent, RBTreeNode<E> newParent) {
    if (parent == root) {
        root = newParent;
        if (root != null)
            newParent.setBlack();
    }
    else if (grandparent.left == parent)
        grandparent.left = newParent;
    else
        grandparent.right = newParent;
}
/** Preorder traversal from a subtree */
protected void preorder(TreeNode<E> root) {
if (root == null) return;
    System.out.print(root.element +
        ((RBTreeNode<E>)root).isRed() ? ' (red) ' : ' (black) ');
    preorder(root.left);
    preorder(root.right);
}

/** RBTreeNode is TreeNode plus color indicator */
protected static class RBTreeNode<E extends Comparable<E>> extends
    BinaryTree.TreeNode<E> {
    private boolean red = true; // Indicate node color

    public RBTreeNode(E e) {
        super(e);
    }

    public boolean isRed() {
        return red;
    }

    public boolean isBlack() {
        return!red;
    }

    public void setBlack() {
        red = false;
    }

    public void setRed() {
        red = true;
    }

    int blackHeight;
}

<margin note: constructors>
The RBTree class extends BinaryTree. Like the BinaryTree class, the RBTree class has a no-arg constructor that constructs an empty RBTree (lines 5–6) and a constructor that creates an initial RBTree from an array of elements (lines 9–11).

<margin note: createNewNode()>
The createNewNode() method defined in the BinaryTree class creates a TreeNode. This method is overridden to return an RBTreeNode (lines 14–16). This method is invoked in the insert method in BinaryTree to create a node.

<margin note: insert>
The insert method in RBTree is overridden in lines 19–28. The method first invokes the insert method in BinaryTree, then invokes ensureRBTree(e) (line 24) to ensure that tree is still a red-black tree after inserting a new element.

<margin note: ensureRBTree>
The ensureRBTree(E e) method first obtains the path of nodes that lead to element e from the root (line 33). It obtains u and v (the parent of
u) from the path. If u is the root, color u black (lines 46-47). If v is red, invoke fixDoubleRed to fix the double-red on both u and v (lines 48-49).

<margin note: fixDoubleRed>
The fixDoubleRed(u, v, path, i) method fixes the double-red violation at node u. The method first obtains w (the grandparent of u from the path) (line 56), parentOfw if exists (lines 57-58), and x (the sibling of v) (lines 61-62). If x is null or black, consider four subcases to fix the double-red violation (lines 66-95). If x is red, color w and u red and color w’s two children black (lines 100-103). If w is the root, color w black (lines 103-105). Otherwise, propagate along the path to fix the new double-red violation (lines 108-110).

<margin note: delete>
The delete(E e) method in RBTree is overridden in lines 133-173. The method locates the node that contains e (lines 135-145). If the node is null, no element is found (lines 147-148). The method considers two cases:

- If the node is internal, find the rightmost node in its left subtree (lines 155-158). Obtain a path from the root to the rightmost node (line 160), and replace the element in the node with the element in the rightmost node (line 163).

- If the node is external, obtain the path from the root to the node (line 166).

The last node in the path is the node to be deleted. Invoke deleteLastNodeInPath(path) to delete it and ensure the tree is a red-black after the node is deleted (line 169).

<margin note: deleteLastNodeInPath>
The deleteLastNodeInPath(path) method first obtains u, parentOfu, grandparendOfu, and childOfu (lines 179-186). u is the last node in the path. Connect childOfu as a child of parentOfu (line 189). This in effect deletes u from the tree. Consider three cases:

- If childOfu is the root or childOfu is red, we are done (lines 192-193).
- Otherwise, if childOfu is red, color it black (lines 194-195).
- Otherwise, invoke fixDoubleBlack to fix the double-black problem on childOfu (line 198).

<margin note: fixDoubleBlack>
The fixDoubleBlack method first obtains y, y1, and y2 (lines 206-209). y is the sibling of the first double-black node, and y1 and y2 are the left and right children of y. Consider three cases:

- If y is black and y1 or y2 is red, fix the double-black problem for Case 1 (lines 212-254).

- Otherwise, if y is black, fix the double-black problem for Case 2 by recoloring the nodes. If parent is black and not a root, propagate double black to parent and recursively invoke fixDoubleBlack (lines 263-267).
Otherwise, y is red. In this case, adjust the nodes to make parent the child of y (lines 271–280). Invoke `fixDoubleBlack` with the adjusted nodes (line 285) to fix the double-black problem.

The `preorder(TreeNode<E> root)` method is overridden to display the node colors (lines 318–324).

### 48.7 Testing the `RBTree` Class

Listing 48.4 gives a test program. The program creates an `RBTree` initialized with an array of integers 34, 3, and 50 (lines 4–5), inserts elements in lines 10–22, and deletes elements in lines 25–46.

```java
public class TestRBTree {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Create an RB tree
        RBTree<Integer> tree =
            new RBTree<Integer>(new Integer[]{34, 3, 50});
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(20);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(15);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(16);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(25);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.insert(27);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(50);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(20);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(15);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(3);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(25);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(16);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(34);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(27);
        printTree(tree);
    }
}
```
```java
        tree.delete(15);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(3);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(25);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(16);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(34);
        printTree(tree);

        tree.delete(27);
        printTree(tree);
    }

    public static void printTree(BinaryTree tree) {
        // Traverse tree
        System.out.print("Inorder (sorted): ");
        tree.inorder();
        System.out.print("\nPostorder: ");
        tree.postorder();
        System.out.print("\nPreorder: ");
        tree.preorder();
        System.out.print("\nThe number of nodes is "+tree.getSize());
        System.out.println();
    }

<Output>
Inorder (sorted): 3 34 50
Postorder: 3 50 34
Preorder: 34 (black) 3 (red) 50 (red)
The number of nodes is 3

Inorder (sorted): 3 20 34 50
Postorder: 20 3 50 34
Preorder: 34 (black) 3 (black) 20 (red) 50 (black)
The number of nodes is 4

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 20 34 50
Postorder: 3 20 15 50 34
Preorder: 34 (black) 15 (black) 3 (red) 20 (red) 50 (black)
The number of nodes is 5

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 16 20 34 50
Postorder: 3 16 20 15 50 34
Preorder: 34 (black) 15 (red) 3 (black) 20 (black) 16 (red) 50 (black)
The number of nodes is 6

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 16 20 25 34 50
Postorder: 3 16 25 20 15 50 34
Preorder: 34 (black) 15 (red) 3 (black) 20 (black) 16 (red) 25 (red)
```
50 (black)
The number of nodes is 7

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 16 20 25 27 34 50
Postorder: 3 16 15 27 25 50 34 20
Preorder: 20 (black) 15 (red) 3 (black) 16 (black) 34 (red) 25 (black)
   27 (red) 50 (black)
The number of nodes is 8

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 16 20 25 27 34
Postorder: 3 16 15 27 25 34 20
Preorder: 20 (black) 15 (red) 3 (black) 16 (black) 27 (red)
   25 (black) 34 (black)
The number of nodes is 7

Inorder (sorted): 3 15 16 25 27 34
Postorder: 3 16 15 27 34 25 20
Preorder: 16 (black) 15 (black) 3 (red) 27 (red) 25 (black) 34 (black)
The number of nodes is 6

Inorder (sorted): 3 16 25 27 34
Postorder: 3 25 34 27 16
Preorder: 16 (black) 3 (black) 27 (red) 25 (black) 34 (black)
The number of nodes is 5

Inorder (sorted): 16 25 27 34
Postorder: 25 16 34 27
Preorder: 27 (black) 16 (black) 25 (red) 34 (black)
The number of nodes is 4

Inorder (sorted): 16 27 34
Postorder: 16 34 27
Preorder: 27 (black) 16 (black) 34 (black)
The number of nodes is 3

Inorder (sorted): 27 34
Postorder: 34 27
Preorder: 27 (black) 34 (red)
The number of nodes is 2

Inorder (sorted): 27
Postorder: 27
Preorder: 27 (black)
The number of nodes is 1

Inorder (sorted):
Postorder:
Preorder:
The number of nodes is 0

<End Output>

Figure 48.14 shows how the tree evolves as elements are added to it, and Figure 48.28 shows how the tree evolves as elements are deleted from it.
48.8 Performance of the RBTree Class

The search, insertion, and deletion times in a red-black tree depend on the height of the tree. A red-black tree corresponds to a 2-4 tree. When you convert a node in a 2-4 tree to red-black tree nodes, you get one black node and zero, one, or two red nodes as its children, depending on whether the original node is a 2-node, 3-node, or 4-node. So, the height of a red-black tree is at most as twice that of its corresponding 2-4 tree. Since the height of a 2-4 tree is $\log n$, the height of a red-black tree is $2\log n$.

A red-black tree has the same time complexity as an AVL tree, as shown in Table 48.1. In general, a red-black is more efficient than an AVL tree, because a red-black tree requires only one time restructuring of the nodes for insert and delete operations.

A red-black tree has the same time complexity as a 2-4 tree, as shown in Table 48.1. In general, a red-black is more efficient than a 2-4 tree for two reasons:

1. A red-black tree requires only one-time restructuring of the nodes for insert and delete operations. However, a 2-4 tree may require many splits for an insert operation and fusion for a delete operation.

2. A red-black tree is a binary search tree. A binary tree can be implemented more space efficiently than a 2-4 tree, because a node in a 2-4 tree has at most three elements and four children. Space is wasted for 2-nodes and 3-nodes in a 2-4 tree.

Table 48.1
Time Complexities for Methods in RBTree, AVLTree, and Tree234

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Red-Black Tree</th>
<th>AVL Tree</th>
<th>2-4 Tree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>search(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insert(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delete(e: E)</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getSize()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isEmpty()</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listing 48.5 gives an empirical test of the performance of AVL trees, 2-4 trees, and red-black trees.

Listing 48.5 TreePerformanceTest.java

<margin note line 6: an AVL tree>
<margin note line 11: a 2-4 tree>
<margin note line 16: a red-black tree>
<margin note line 21: start time>
<margin note line 29: shuffle>
<margin note line 33: add to tree>
public class TreePerformanceTest {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        final int TEST_SIZE = 500000; // Tree size used in the test

        // Create an AVL tree
        Tree<Integer> tree1 = new AVLTree<Integer>();
        System.out.println("AVL tree time: "+
                           getTime(tree1, TEST_SIZE) + " milliseconds");

        // Create a 2-4 tree
        Tree<Integer> tree2 = new Tree24<Integer>();
        System.out.println("2-4 tree time: "+
                           + getTime(tree2, TEST_SIZE) + " milliseconds");

        // Create a red-black tree
        Tree<Integer> tree3 = new RBTree<Integer>();
        System.out.println("RB tree time: "+
                           + getTime(tree3, TEST_SIZE) + " milliseconds");
    }

    public static long getTime(Tree<Integer> tree, int testSize) {
        long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis(); // Start time

        // Create a list to store distinct integers
        java.util.List<Integer> list = new java.util.ArrayList<Integer>();
        for (int i = 0; i < testSize; i++)
            list.add(i);

        java.util.Collections.shuffle(list); // Shuffle the list

        // Insert elements in the list to the tree
        for (int i = 0; i < testSize; i++)
            tree.insert(list.get(i));

        java.util.Collections.shuffle(list); // Shuffle the list

        // Delete elements in the list from the tree
        for (int i = 0; i < testSize; i++)
            tree.delete(list.get(i));

        // Return elapse time
        return System.currentTimeMillis() - startTime;
    }
}

<Output>
AVL tree time: 7609 milliseconds
2-4 tree time: 8594 milliseconds
RB tree time: 5515 milliseconds
<End Output>

The `getTime` method creates a list of distinct integers from 0 to `testSize - 1` (lines 25–27), shuffles the list (line 29), adds the
elements from the list to a tree (lines 32–33), shuffles the list again (line 35), removes the elements from the tree (lines 38–39), and finally returns the execution time (line 42).

The program creates an AVL (line 6), a 2-4 tree (line 11), and a red-black tree (line 16). The program obtains the execution time for adding and removing 500000 elements in the three trees.

<margin note: red-black tree best>
As you see, the red-black tree performs the best, followed by the AVL tree.

NOTE:
<margin note: java.util.TreeSet>
The java.util.TreeSet class in the Java API is implemented using a red-black tree. Each entry in the set is stored in the tree. Since the search, insert, and delete methods in a red-black tree take $O(\log n)$ time, the get, add, remove, and contains methods in java.util.TreeSet take $O(\log n)$ time.

NOTE:
<margin note: java.util.TreeMap>
The java.util.TreeMap class in the Java API is implemented using a red-black tree. Each entry in the map is stored in the tree. The order of the entries is determined by their keys. Since the search, insert, and delete methods in a red-black tree take $O(\log n)$ time, the get, put, remove, and containsKey methods in java.util.TreeMap take $O(\log n)$ time.

Key Terms
- black depth
- double-black violation
- double-red violation
- external node
- red-black tree

Chapter Summary
1. A red-black tree is a binary search tree, derived from a 2-4 tree. A red-black tree corresponds to a 2-4 tree. You can convert a red-black tree to a 2-4 tree or vice versa.
2. In a red-black tree, each node is colored red or black. The root is always black. Two adjacent nodes cannot be both red. All external nodes have the same black depth.
3. Since a red-black tree is a binary search tree, the RBTree class extends the BinaryTree class.
4. Searching an element in a red-black tree is the same as in binary search tree, since a red-black tree is a binary search tree.
5. A new element is always inserted as a leaf node. If the new node is the root, color it black. Otherwise, color it red. If the parent of the new node is red, we have to fix the double-red violation by reassigning the color and/or restructuring the tree.
6. If a node to be deleted is internal, find the rightmost node in its left subtree. Replace the element in the node with the element in the rightmost node. Delete the rightmost node.
7. If the external node to be deleted is red, simply reconnect the
parent node of the external node with the child node of the
external node.
8. If the external node to be deleted is black, you need to consider
several cases to ensure that black height for external nodes in
the tree is maintained correctly.
9. The height of a red-black tree is $O(\log n)$. So, the time
complexities for the search, insert, and delete methods are
$O(\log n)$.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at

Review Questions

Sections 48.1–48.2
48.1
What is a red-black tree? What is an external node? What is black-depth?
48.2
Describe the properties of a red-black tree.
48.3
How do you convert a red-black tree to a 2-4 tree? Is the conversion
unique?
48.4
How do you convert a 2-4 tree to a red-black tree? Is the conversion
unique?

Sections 48.3–48.5
48.5
What are the data fields in RBTreeNode?
48.6
How do you insert an element into a red-black tree and how do you fix
the double-red violation?
48.7
How do you delete an element from a red-black tree and how do you fix
the double-black problem?
48.8
Show the change of the tree when inserting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6
into it, in this order.
48.9
For the tree built in the preceding question, show the change of the
tree after deleting 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 9, 7, 5, 8, 6 from it in this order.

Programming Exercises

48.1*
(red-black tree to 2-4 tree) Write a program that converts a red-black
tree to a 2-4 tree.
48.2*  
(2-4 tree to red-black tree) Write a program that converts a red-black  
tree to a 2-4 tree.

48.3***  
(red-black tree animation) Write a Java applet that animates the red-  
black tree insert, delete, and search methods, as shown in  
Figure 48.6.

48.4**  
(Parent reference for RBTree) Suppose that the TreeNode class defined in  
BinaryTree contains a reference to the node’s parent, as  
shown in Exercise 26.17. Implement the RBTree class to  
support this change. Write a test program that adds numbers  
1, 2, ..., 100 to the tree and displays the paths for all  
leaf nodes.
CHAPTER 49

Java 2D

Objectives

- To obtain a Graphics2D object for rendering Java 2D shapes (§49.2).
- To use geometric models to separate modeling of shapes from rendering (§49.3).
- To know the hierarchy of shapes (§49.3).
- To model lines, rectangles, ellipses, arcs using Line2D, Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Ellipse2D, and Arc2D (§49.4).
- To perform coordinate transformation using the translate, rotate, and scale methods (§49.5).
- To specify the attributes of lines using the BasicStroke class (§49.6).
- To define a varying color using GradientPaint and define an image paint using TexturePaint (§49.7).
- To model quadratic curves and cubic curves using the QuadCurve2D and CubicCurve2D classes (§49.8).
- To model an arbitrary geometric path using Path2D and to define interior points using the WIND EVEN_ODD and WIND NON_ZERO rules (§49.9).
- To perform constructive area geometry using the Area class (§49.10).
49.1 Introduction

Using the methods in the Graphics class, you learned how to draw lines, rectangles, ovals, arcs, and polygons. This chapter introduces Java 2D, which enables you to draw advanced and complex two-dimensional graphics.

NOTE:

This chapter introduces the basic and commonly used features in Java 2D. For a complete coverage of Java 2D, please see Computer Graphics Using Java 2D and 3D by Hong Zhang and Y. Daniel Liang, published by Prentice Hall.

49.2 Obtaining a Graphics2D Object

You used the drawing methods in the Graphics class in the text. The Graphics class is primitive. The Java 2D API provides the java.awt.Graphics2D class, which extends java.awt.Graphics with advanced capabilities for rendering graphics. Normally, you write the code to draw graphics in the paintComponent method in a GUI component. The coding template for the method is as follows:

```java
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);
    // Use the method in Graphics to draw graphics
    ...
}
```

The parameter passed to the paintComponent method is actually an instance of Graphics2D. So, to obtain a Graphics2D reference, you may simply cast the parameter g to Graphics2D as follows:

```java
protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
    super.paintComponent(g);
    Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g; // Get a Graphics2D object
    // Use the method in Graphics2D to draw graphics
    ...
}
```

Since Graphics2D is a subclass of Graphics, all the methods in Graphics can be used in Graphics2D. Additionally, you can use the methods in Graphics2D.

49.3 Geometric Models

You have used the methods in the Graphics class to draw lines, rectangles, arcs, ellipses, and polygons. The Java 2D API uses the model-view controller architecture to separate rendering from modeling. This approach enables you to create shapes and perform manipulations, such as transforming and rotating, to combine shapes using models, and to use Graphics2D to render shapes.
Java 2D provides facilities to construct basic shapes and to combine them to form more complex shapes. Figure 49.1 shows various shapes supported in Java 2D.

**<Side remark: methods in Shape>**

The `Shape` interface defines the common features for shapes and provides the `contains` method to test whether a point or a rectangle is inside a shape, and the `intersects` method to test whether the shape overlaps with a rectangle, as shown in Figure 49.2. These methods are often useful in geometrical programming.
Shape is the root interface for all Java 2D shapes.

Classes Line2D, Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Arc2D, Ellipse2D, QuadCurve2D, CubicCurve2D, and Path2D are abstract classes. Each contains two concrete static inner classes named Double and Float for double and float coordinates, respectively. For example, Line2D.Double refers to the static inner class Double defined in the Line2D class. You can use either Line2D.Double or Line2D.Float to create an object for modeling a line, depending on whether you want to use double or float for coordinates. These inner classes are also subclasses of their respective outer classes. So Line2D.Double is a subclass of Line2D.

A point can be modeled using the abstract Point2D class. It contains two concrete static inner classes Point2D.Double and Point2D.Float for double and float coordinates, respectively. Point2D.Double and Point2D.Float are also subclasses of Point2D. The Point class was introduced in JDK 1.1 and now is included in Java 2D for backward compatibility. Point is now defined as a subclass of Point2D. Point2D contains the methods for finding the distance between two points.

To create a shape, use the constructor of a concrete shape class. For example, to model a line from \((x_1, y_1)\) to \((x_2, y_2)\), you may create a Line2D object with double data type using the following constructor:

```java
Line2D line = new Line2D.Double(x1, y1, x2, y2);
```

The Graphics2D class contains the `draw(Shape s)` method to draw the boundary of the shape and the `fill(Shape s)` method to fill the interior of the shape. To render the line on a GUI component, use

```java
g2d.draw(line);
```

where `g2d` is a Graphics2D object for the GUI component.

49.4 Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Arc2D, and Ellipse2D

RectangularShape is an abstract base class for Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Arc2D, and Ellipse2D, whose geometry is defined by a
rectangular frame. Figure 49.3 shows the UML diagram for RectangularShape.

```
«interface»
java.awt.Shape
```

```
java.awt.geom.RectangularShape
+getCenterX(): double
+getCenterY(): double
+getWidth(): double
+getHeight(): double
+getX(): double
+getY(): double
```

Returns the x-coordinate of the center of the framing rectangle.

Returns the y-coordinate of the center of the framing rectangle.

Returns the width of the framing rectangle.

Returns the height of the framing rectangle.

Returns the x-coordinate of the upper-left corner of the framing rectangle.

Returns the y-coordinate of the upper-left corner of the framing rectangle.

---

Figure 49.3

RectangularShape defines a shape with a bounding rectangle.

<Side remark: Rectangle2D>

Rectangle2D models a rectangle with horizontal and vertical sides. The Rectangle class was introduced in JDK 1.1 and now is included in Java 2D for backward compatibility. Rectangle is now defined as a subclass of Rectangle2D. It models a rectangle with integer coordinates, while Rectangle2D.Double and Rectangle2D.Float model a rectangle with double and float coordinates, respectively. You can construct a Rectangle using

```
new Rectangle(x, y, w, h)
```

The parameters x and y represent the upper-left corner of the rectangle, and w and h are its width and height (see Figure 49.4a).

![Rectangle and Round rectangle](image)

(a) Rectangle          (b) Round rectangle

Figure 49.4

(a) A rectangle is defined in four parameters. (b) A round rectangle is defined in six parameters.

The following code creates three Rectangle2D objects with integer, double, and float coordinates, respectively. The upper-left corner of the rectangle is at (20, 40) with width 100 and height 200.

```
Rectangle2D ri = new Rectangle(20, 40, 100, 200);
Rectangle2D rd = new Rectangle.Double(20D, 40D, 100D, 200D);
Rectangle2D rf = new Rectangle.Double(20F, 40F, 100F, 200F);
```

<Side remark: RoundRectangle2D>
RoundRectangle2D models a rectangle with round corners. You can construct a RoundRectangle using

```java
    new RoundRectangle2D.Double(x, y, w, h, aw, ah)
```

Parameters \(x, y, w, \text{ and } h\) specify a rectangle, parameter \(aw\) is the horizontal diameter of the arcs at the corner, and \(ah\) is the vertical diameter of the arcs at the corner (see Figure 49.4(b)). In other words, \(aw\) and \(ah\) are the width and the height of the oval that produces a quarter-circle at each corner.

**<Side remark: Ellipse2D>**

Ellipse2D models an ellipse. You can construct an Ellipse2D using

```java
    new Ellipse2D.Double(x, y, w, h)
```

Parameters \(x, y, w\) and \(h\) specify the bounding rectangle for the ellipse, as shown in Figure 49.5a.

![Figure 49.5](image)

(a) Ellipse                    (b) Arc

**Figure 49.5**

An ellipse or oval is defined by its bounding rectangle.

**<Side remark: Arc2D>**

Arc2D models an elliptic arc. You can construct an Arc2D using

```java
    new Arc2D.Double(x, y, w, h, startAngle, arcAngle, type)
```

Parameters \(x, y, w, \text{ and } h\) specify the bounding rectangle for the arc; parameter \(startAngle\) is the starting angle; \(arcAngle\) is the spanning angle (i.e., the angle covered by the arc). Angles are measured in degrees and follow the usual mathematical conventions (i.e., 0 degrees is in the easterly direction, and positive angles indicate counterclockwise rotation from the easterly direction); see Figure 49.5(b).

Parameter \(type\) is Arc2D.OPEN, Arc2D.CHORD, or Arc2D.PIE. Arc2D.OPEN specifies that the arc is open. Arc2D.CHORD specifies that the arc is connected by drawing a line segment from the start the arc to the end of the arc. Arc2D.PIE specifies that the arc is connected by drawing straight line segments from the start of the arc segment to the center of the full ellipse and from that point to the end of the arc segment.

Listing 49.1 gives a program that demonstrates how to draw various shapes using Graphics2D. Figure 49.6 shows a sample run of the program.

**Listing 49.1 Graphics2DDemo.java**

**<Side remark: Line 2: import for shape classes>**
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class Graphics2DDemo extends JApplet {
    public Graphics2DDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

    static class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);
            Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
            g2d.draw(new Line2D.Double(10, 10, 40, 80));
            g2d.draw(new Rectangle2D.Double(50, 10, 30, 70));
            g2d.fill(new Rectangle2D.Double(90, 10, 30, 70));
            g2d.fill(new RoundRectangle2D.Double(130, 10, 30, 70, 20, 30));
            g2d.draw(new Ellipse2D.Double(170, 10, 30, 70));
            g2d.draw(new Arc2D.Double(220, 10, 30, 70, 0, 270, Arc2D.OPEN));
            g2d.draw(new Arc2D.Double(260, 10, 30, 70, 0, 270, Arc2D.PIE));
            g2d.draw(new Arc2D.Double(300, 10, 30, 70, 0, 270, Arc2D.CHORD));
        }
    }
}

Figure 49.6

You can draw various shapes using Java 2D.

The shape classes Line2D, Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Arc2D, and Ellipse2D are in the java.awt.geom package. So, they are imported in line 2.

A Graphics2D reference is obtained in line 14 in order to invoke the methods in Graphics2D. The statement new Line2D.Double(10, 10, 40, 80) (line 16) creates an instance of Line2D.Double, which is also an
instance of Line2D and Shape. The instance models a line from (10, 10) to (40, 80).

.Side remark: Rectangle2D

The statement `new Rectangle2D.Double(50, 10, 30, 70)` (line 17) creates an instance of Rectangle2D.Double, which is also an instance of Rectangle2D and Shape. The instance models a rectangle whose upper-left corner point is (50, 10) with width 30 and height 70.

.Side remark: fill

The `fill(Shape)` method (line 18) renders a filled rectangle.

.Side remark: RoundRectangle2D

The statement `new RoundRectangle2D.Double(130, 10, 30, 70, 20, 30)` (line 19) creates an instance of RoundRectangle2D.Double, which is also an instance of RoundRectangle2D and Shape. The instance models a round-cornered rectangle whose parameters are the same as in the `drawRoundRect(int x, int y, int w, int h, int aw, int ah)` method in the Graphics class.

.Side remark: Ellipse2D

The statement `new Ellipse2D.Double(300, 10, 30, 70)` (line 20) creates an instance of Ellipse2D.Double, which is also an instance of Ellipse2D and Shape. The instance models an ellipse. The parameters in this constructor are the same as the parameters in the `drawOval(int x, int y, int w, int h)` method in the Graphics class.

.Side remark: Arc2D

The statement `new Arc2D.Double(170, 10, 30, 70, 0, 270, Arc2D.OPEN)` (line 21) creates an instance of Arc2D.Double, which is also an instance of Arc2D and Shape. The instance models an open arc. The parameters in this constructor are similar to the parameters in the `drawArc(int x, int y, int w, int h, int startAngle, int arcAngle)` method in the Graphics class, except that the last parameter specifies whether the arc is open or closed. The value Arc2D.OPEN specifies that the arc is open. The value Arc2D.PIE (line 23) specifies that the arc is closed by drawing straight line segments from the start of the arc segment to the center of the full ellipse and from that point to the end of the arc segment. The value Arc2D.CHORD (line 25) specifies that the arc is closed by drawing a straight line segment from the start of the arc segment to the end of the arc segment.

49.5 Coordinate Transformations

Java 2D provides the classes for modeling geometric objects. It also supports coordinate transformations using translation, rotation, and scaling.

49.5.1 Translations

You can use the `translate(double x, double y)` method in the Graphics class to move the subsequent rendering by the specified distance relative to the previous position. For example, `translate(5, -10)` moves subsequent rendering 5 pixels to the right and 10 pixels up from the previous position, and `translate(-5, 10)` moves all shapes 5 pixels to the left and 10 pixels down from the previous position. Figure 49.7 shows a rectangle displayed before and after applying translation. After invoking `g2d.translate(-6, 4)`, the rectangle is displayed 6 pixels to the left and 4 pixels down from the previous position.
Figure 49.7

(a) After applying `g2d.translate(-6, 4)`, the subsequent rendering of the rectangle is moved by the specified distance relative to the previous position.

Listing 49.2 gives a program that demonstrates the effect of translation of coordinates. Figure 49.8 shows a sample run of the program.

**Listing 49.2 TranslationDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;
public class TranslateDemo extends JApplet {
    public TranslateDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);

        Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
        Rectangle2D rectangle = new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 50, 60);
        java.util.Random random = new java.util.Random();
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
            g2d.setColor(new Color(random.nextInt(256),
                                     random.nextInt(256), random.nextInt(256)));
            g2d.draw(rectangle);
            g2d.translate(20, 5);
        }
    }
}
```
The rectangles are displayed successively in new locations.

Line 17 creates a `Random` object. The `Random` class was introduced in §8.6.2, “The Random Class.” Invoking `random.nextInt(256)` (line 19) returns a random `int` value between 0 and 255. The `setColor` method (line 19) sets a new color for subsequent rendering. Line 21 draws a rectangle. The `translate(20, 5)` method in line 22 moves the subsequent rendering 20 pixels to the right and 5 pixels down.

49.5.2 Rotations

You can use the `rotate(double theta)` method in the `Graphics2D` class to rotate subsequent rendering by `theta` degrees from the origin clockwise, where `theta` is a double value in radians. By default the origin is (0, 0). You can use the `translate(x, y)` method to move the origin to a specified location. For example, `rotate(Math.PI / 4)` rotates subsequent rendering 45 degrees counterclockwise along the northern direction from the origin, as shown in Figure 49.9.

Listing 49.3 gives a program that demonstrates the effect of rotation of coordinates. Figure 49.10 shows a sample run of the program.

Listing 49.3 RotationDemo.java

```java
.Side remark: Line 2: import for shape classes
.Side remark: Line 5: applet
.Side remark: Line 14: Graphics2D reference
.Side remark: Line 15: a rectangle
.Side remark: Line 17: new origin
.Side remark: Line 18: draw center point
.Side remark: Line 19: random number
```
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class RotationDemo extends JApplet {
    public RotationDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
        Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
        Rectangle2D rectangle = new Rectangle2D.Double(20, 20, 50, 60);
        g2d.translate(150, 120); // Move origin to the center
        g2d.fill(new Ellipse2D.Double(-5, -5, 10, 10));
        java.util.Random random = new java.util.Random();
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
            g2d.setColor(new Color(random.nextInt(256),
                                      random.nextInt(256), random.nextInt(256)));
            g2d.draw(rectangle);
            g2d.rotate(Math.PI / 5);
        }
    }
}

Figure 49.10

After the rotate method is invoked, the rectangles are displayed successively in new locations.

The translate(150, 120) method moves the origin from (0, 0) to (150, 120) (line 17). The loop is repeated ten times. Each iteration sets a new color randomly (line 21), draws the rectangle (line 23), and rotates 36 degrees from the new origin (line 24).

49.5.3 Scaling
You can use the `scale(double sx, double sy)` method in the Graphics2D class to resize subsequent rendering by the specified scaling factors. For example, `scale(2, 2)` resizes the object by doubling the x- and y-coordinates in the object, as shown in Figure 49.11.

![Figure 49.11](image)

After performing `g2d.scale(2, 2)`, the x- and y-coordinates in the original rectangle are doubled.

Listing 49.4 gives a program that demonstrates the effect of using scaling. Figure 49.12 shows a sample run of the program.

```
Listing 49.4 ScalingDemo.java

import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class ScalingDemo extends JApplet {
    public ScalingDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

    class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);
            Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
            Rectangle2D rectangle = new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 10, 10);
            for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
                g2d.draw(rectangle);
                g2d.scale(2, 2);
                g2d.draw(rectangle);
            }
        }
    }
}
```
After scaling is applied, the rectangles are displayed successively.

The program draws four rectangles. The upper-left corner of the first rectangle is at (10, 10). After invoking `scale(2, 2)` (line 19) on the `Graphics2D` object `g2d` in the first iteration of the loop, the upper-left corner of the second rectangle is at (20, 20), since this `scale` method causes the coordinates in the current object to be doubled. After invoking `scale(2, 2)` (line 19) on the `Graphics2D` object `g2d` in the second iteration of the loop, the upper-left corner of the third rectangle is at (40, 40). After invoking `scale(2, 2)` (line 19) on the `Graphics2D` object `g2d` in the third iteration of the loop, the upper-left corner of the fourth rectangle is at (80, 80).

It is interesting to note that the thickness of line segments also doubles each time `scale(2, 2)` is invoked. We will discuss the thickness of lines in the next section.

### 49.6 Strokes

Java 2D allows you to specify the attributes of lines, called *strokes*. You can specify the width of the line, how the line ends (called *end caps*), how lines join together (called *line joins*), and whether the line is dashed. These attributes are defined in a `Stroke` object. You can create a `Stroke` object using the `BasicStroke` class, as shown in Figure 49.13.

```java
public class BasicStroke {
    // Constructor default attributes.
    BasicStroke() {
        // Constructs a BasicStroke with default attributes.
    }
    // Constructs a solid BasicStroke with the specified width.
    BasicStroke(float width) {
    }
    // Constructs a solid BasicStroke with the specified width, cap, and join.
    BasicStroke(float width, int cap, int join) {
    }
    // Constructs a solid BasicStroke with the specified width, cap, join, and miter limit.
    BasicStroke(float width, int cap, int join, float miterLimit) {
    }
    // Constructs a solid BasicStroke with the specified width, cap, join, miter limit, dashing pattern, and the offset to start dashing pattern.
    BasicStroke(float width, int cap, int join, float miterLimit, float dash[], float dashPhase) {
    }
}
```

You can create a `Stroke` using the `BasicStroke` class.

The parameter `width` specifies the thickness of the stroke with a default value 1.0.
The parameter `cap` is one of three values:

- `BasicStroke.CAP_ROUND` for round cap.
- `BasicStroke.CAP_SQUARE` for square cap.
- `BasicStroke.CAP_BUTT` for no added decorations.

The parameter `join` is one of three values:

- `BasicStroke.JOIN_BEVEL` for joining the outer corners of their wide outlines with a straight segment.
- `BasicStroke.JOIN_MITER` for joining path segments by extending their outside edges until they meet.
- `BasicStroke.JOIN_ROUND` for joining path segments by rounding off the corner at a radius of half the line width.

The parameter `miterlimit` sets a limit for `JOIN_MITER` to prevent a very long join when the angle between the two lines is small.

The parameter `dash array` defines a dash pattern by alternating between opaque and transparent sections. The `dash_phase` parameter specifies the offset to start the dashing pattern.

To set a stroke in `Graphics2D`, use

```java
void setStroke(Stroke stroke)
```

Listing 49.5 gives a program that demonstrates the effect of using basic strokes. Figure 49.14 shows a sample run of the program.

**Listing 49.5 BasicStrokeDemo.java**

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class BasicStrokeDemo extends JApplet {
    public BasicStrokeDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

    class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);

            Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
            g2d.setStroke(new BasicStroke(15.0f, BasicStroke.CAP_ROUND,
```
You can specify the attributes for strokes.

The statement `new BasicStroke(15.0f, BasicStroke.CAP_ROUND, BasicStroke.JOIN_BEVEL)` (line 16) creates an instance of `BasicStroke`, which is also an instance of the `Stroke` interface. The `setStroke(Stroke)` method sets a `Stroke` object for the `Graphics2D` context. The program sets new `Stroke` objects in lines 21, 26, 34, 39, 49. Line 44 sets a new `Stroke` object with width 4.0f, round square cap, round join, miter limit 1.0, dashed pattern {8}, and dash phase 0.
You can use the `setColor(Color c)` method in the Graphics class to set a color. It sets only a solid color. Graphics2D provides the `setPaint(Paint p)` method to set a paint. Paint is a generalization of color. It can represent more attributes than simple solid colors.

Paint is an interface for three concrete classes including `Color`, as shown in Figure 49.15.

```
``interface``
java.awt.Paint

``interface``
java.awt.Color

``java.awt.GradientPaint``
+GradientPaint(x1: float, y1: float, c1: Color, x2: float, y2: float, c2: Color)
+GradientPaint(p1: Point2D, c1: Color, p2: Point2D, c2: Color)
+GradientPaint(x1: float, y1: float, c1: Color, x2: float, y2: float, c2: Color, cycl: boolean)
+GradientPaint(p1: Point2D, c1: Color, p2: Point2D, c2: Color, cycl: boolean)

``java.awt.TexturePaint``
+TexturePaint(image: BufferedImage, anchor: Rectangle2D)

Figure 49.15

A `Paint` object specifies colors.

GradientPaint defines a varying color, specified by two points and two colors. As the location moves from the first point to the second, the paint changes gradually from the first color to the second. A GradientPaint can be cyclic or acyclic. A cyclic paint repeats the same pattern periodically.

TexturePaint defines an image to fill a shape or characters. The parameter `image` is specified as a `BufferedImage`. The anchor parameter specifies a rectangle on which the image is anchored. The image is repeated around the anchor rectangle, as shown in Figure 49.16.

Figure 49.16
A TexturePaint is specified by an image in an anchor rectangle.

Listing 49.6 gives a program that demonstrates the effect of using GradientPaint and TexturePaint. Figure 49.17 shows a sample run of the program.

Listing 49.6 PaintDemo.java

import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.imageio.ImageIO;
import javax.swing.*;
public class PaintDemo extends JApplet {
    public PaintDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }
    class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);
            Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
            g2d.setPaint(new GradientPaint(10, 10, Color.RED, 40, 40, Color.BLUE, true));
            g2d.fill(new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 90, 70));
            g2d.setFont(new Font("Serif", Font.BOLD, 50));
            g2d.drawString("GradientPaint", 10, 120);
            g2d.translate(100, 0);
            g2d.setPaint(new GradientPaint(10, 10, Color.YELLOW, 40, 40, Color.BLACK));
            g2d.fill(new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 90, 70));
            g2d.translate(100, 0);
            g2d.setPaint(Color.YELLOW);
            g2d.fill(new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 90, 70));
            try {
                java.net.URL url =
                    getClass().getClassLoader().getResource("image/ca.gif");
                java.awt.image.BufferedImage image = ImageIO.read(url);
                TexturePaint texturePaint = new TexturePaint(image, new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 100, 70));
                g2d.translate(130, 0);
                g2d.setPaint(texturePaint);
                g2d.fill(new Ellipse2D.Double(10, 10, 100, 70));
            }
        }
    }
}
texturePaint = new TexturePaint(image,  
    new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 50, 70));
g2d.translate(110, 0);
g2d.setPaint(texturePaint);
g2d.fill(new Ellipse2D.Double(10, 10, 100, 70));

texturePaint = new TexturePaint(image,  
    new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 50, 35));
g2d.translate(110, 0);
g2d.setPaint(texturePaint);
g2d.fill(new Ellipse2D.Double(10, 10, 100, 70));
g2d.drawString("TexturePaint", -190, 120);
}

catch (java.io.IOException ex) {
    ex.printStackTrace();
}
}

Figure 49.17

Shapes and characters are drawn with gradient paint, solid color, and texture paint.

The statement in lines 17–18

    g2d.setPaint(new GradientPaint(10, 10, Color.RED, 40, 40,  
            Color.BLUE, true));

creates an instance of GradientPaint and sets the paint in g2d.

The program sets a new Paint object (lines 17, 24, 29) before drawing a filled rectangle (lines 19, 26, 30). Note that you can use the setPaint method to set a Color object (line 29) or use the setColor method in the Graphics class to set a color.

As you see in Figure 49.17, the gradient colors are repeated in the first rectangle, since the GradientPaint is cyclic (lines 17–18). The gradient colors are not repeated in the second rectangle, since the GradientPaint is acyclic (lines 24–25).

To create a TexturePaint, you need to create a BufferedImage from an image file. The URL of the image file is created in lines 33–49. This subject was introduced in §18.10, "Locating Resources Using the URL Class." You can use the static method read in the ImageIO Class to obtain a BufferedImage from the URL of the image (line 35).
The statement in lines 36-37

```java
TexturePaint texturePaint = new TexturePaint(image,
    new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 100, 70));
```

creates a `TexturePaint` with the image anchored in the rectangle whose upper-left corner is (10, 10) and width and height are 100 and 70. This `TexturePaint` object is set in `g2d` in line 39. Line 40 fills an ellipse with this `TexturePaint`, as shown in Figure 49.18a.

![Image](image)

Figure 49.18

The anchor rectangle defines the size and position of the starting image.

The statement in lines 42-43

```java
texturePaint = new TexturePaint(image,
    new Rectangle2D.Double(10, 10, 50, 70));
```

creates a `TexturePaint` with the image anchored in the rectangle whose upper-left corner is (10, 10) and width and height are 50 and 70. This `TexturePaint` object is set in `g2d` in line 45. Line 46 fills an ellipse with this `TexturePaint`, as shown in Figure 49.18(b). As you see in the sample output in Figure 49.17, the texture paint is repeated from the anchor rectangle.

Line 53 displays a string. The characters are filled with the paint set in line 51.

### 49.8 QuadCurve2D and CubicCurve2D

Java 2D provides the `QuadCurve2D` and `CubicCurve2D` classes for modeling quadratic curves and cubic curves. `QuadCurve2D.Double` and `QuadCurve2D.Float` are two concrete subclasses of `QuadCurve2D`. `CubicCurve2D.Double` and `CubicCurve2D.Float` are two concrete subclasses of `CubicCurve2D`.

A quadratic curve is mathematically defined as a quadratic polynomial. To create a `QuadCurve2D.Double`, use the following constructor:

```java
QuadCurve2D.Double(double x1, double y1,
    double ctrlx, double ctrly, double x2, double y2)
```
where \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) specify two endpoints and \((\text{ctrlx}, \text{ctrly})\) is a control point. The control point is usually not on the curve instead of defining the trend of the curve, as shown in Figure 49.19a.

\[(x_1, y_1)\]  
\[(x_2, y_2)\]  
\[(\text{ctrlx}, \text{ctrly})\]

(a)  
(b)

Figure 49.19

(a) A quadratic curve is specified using three points. (b) A cubic curve is specified using four points.

A cubic curve is mathematically defined as a cubic polynomial. To create a `CubicCurve2D.Double`, use the following constructor:

```
CubicCurve2D.Double(double x1, double y1, double ctrlx1,
double ctrly1, double ctrlx2, double ctrly2, double x2, double y2)
```

where \((x_1, y_1)\) and \((x_2, y_2)\) specify two endpoints and \((\text{ctrlx1}, \text{ctrly1})\) and \((\text{ctrlx2}, \text{ctrly2})\) are two control points. The control points are usually not on the curve instead of defining the trend of the curve, as shown in Figure 49.19(b).

Listing 49.7 gives a program that demonstrates how to draw quadratic curves and cubic curves. Figure 49.20 shows a sample run of the program.

```
import java.awt.*;  
import java.awt.geom.*;  
import javax.swing.*;  
public class CurveDemo extends JApplet {  
    public CurveDemo() {  
        add(new CurvePanel());  
    }  
}  
static class CurvePanel extends JPanel {  
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {  
        super.paintComponent(g);  
        Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g;
```
// Draw a quadratic curve
    g2d.draw(new QuadCurve2D.Double(10, 80, 40, 20, 150, 56));
    g2d.fillOval(40 + 3, 20 + 3, 6, 6);
    g2d.drawString("Control point", 40 + 5, 20);

    // Draw a cubic curve
    g2d.draw(new CubicCurve2D.Double(200, 80, 240, 20, 350, 156, 450, 80));
    g2d.fillOval(240 + 3, 20 + 3, 6, 6);
    g2d.drawString("Control point 1", 240 + 3, 20);
    g2d.fillOval(350 + 3, 156 + 3, 6, 6);
    g2d.drawString("Control point 2", 350 + 3, 156 + 3);
}
}

Figure 49.20

You can draw quadratic and cubic curves using Java 2D.

**<Side remark: QuadCurve2D>**
A Graphics2D reference is obtained in line 14 in order to invoke the methods in Graphics2D. The statement new QuadCurve2D.Double(10, 80, 40, 20, 150, 56) (line 17) creates an instance of QuadCurve2D.Double, which is also an instance of QuadCurve2D and Shape. The instance models a quadratic curves with two endpoints (10, 80), (150, 56) and a control point (40, 20).

The fillOval (line 18) and drawString (line 19) methods are defined in the Graphics class and so can be used in the Graphics2D class.

**<Side remark: CubicCurve2D>**
The statement new CubicCurve2D.Double(200, 80, 240, 20, 350, 156, 450, 80)) (lines 22–23) creates an instance of CubicCurve2D.Double, which is also an instance of QuadCurve2D and Shape. The instance models a quadratic curves with two endpoints (200, 80), (450, 80) and two control points (240, 20), (450, 80).

49.9 Path2D

The Path2D class models an arbitrary geometric path. Path2D.Double and Path2D.Float are two concrete subclasses of Path2D. Java 2D also contains the GeneralPath class which is now superseded by Path2D.Float.

You can construct path segments using the methods, as shown in Figure 49.21.

**<PD: UML Class Diagram>**
The Path2D class contains the methods for constructing path segments.

You may create a Path2D using a constructor from Path2D.Double and Path2D.Float. The process of the path construction can be viewed as drawing with a pen. At any moment, the pen has a current position. You can use the moveTo(x, y) method to move the pen to the new position at point (x, y), use the lineTo(x, y) to add a point (x, y) to the path by drawing a straight line from the current point to this new point, use the quadTo(ctrlx, ctrly, x, y) method to draw a quadratic curve from the current location to (x, y) using (ctrlx, ctrly) as the control point, use the curveTo(ctrlx1, ctrly1, ctrlx2, ctrly2, x, y) method to draw a cubic curve from the current location to (x, y) using (ctrlx1, ctrly1) and (ctrlx2, ctrly2) as the control points, and use the closePath() method to connect the current point with the point in the last moveTo method.

Listing 49.8 gives a program that demonstrates how to draw a shape using Path2D. Figure 49.22 shows a sample run of the program.

Listing 49.8 Path2DDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class Path2DDemo extends JApplet {
    public Path2DDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }
}
```
Figure 49.22

You can draw an arbitrary shape using the Path2D class.

The statement new Path2D.Double() (line 15) creates an empty path. The moveTo(100, 100) method (line 16) sets the current pen position at (100, 100). Invoking path.curveTo(150, 50, 250, 150, 300, 100) (line 17) creates a cubic curve from (100, 100) to (300, 100) with control points (150, 50) and (250, 150). Invoking path.moveTo(100, 100) (line 18) moves the pen position back to (100, 100). Invoking path.curveTo(150, 150, 250, 50, 300, 100) (line 19) creates a cubic curve from (100, 100) to (300, 100) with control points (150, 150) and (250, 50). Now the current position is at (300, 100). Invoking path.lineTo(200, 20) (line 20) creates a line from (300, 100) to (200, 20). Invoking path.closePath() (line 21) draws a line connecting the current position (i.e., (200, 20)) with the last moveTo position (i.e., (100, 100)). Finally, Invoking g2d.draw(path) (line 23) draws the path.

For a simple shape, it is easy to decide which point is inside a shape. A path may form many shapes. It is not easy to decide which point is inside an enclosed path. Java 2D uses the winding rules to define the interior points. There are two winding rules: WIND EVEN ODD and WIND NON ZERO.

<Side remark: WIND EVEN ODD>

The WIND EVEN ODD rule defines a point as inside a path if a ray from the point toward infinity in an arbitrary direction intersects the path an odd number of times. Consider the path in Figure 49.23a. Points A and C are outside the path, because the ray intersects the path twice. Point B is inside the path, because the ray intersects the path once.
The WIND EVEN ODD and WIND NON_ZERO rules define interior points.

With the WIND NON_ZERO rule, the direction of the path is taken into consideration. A point is inside a path if a ray from the point toward infinity in an arbitrary direction intersects the path an unequal number of opposite directions. Consider the path in Figure 49.23(b). Point A is outside the path, because the ray intersects the path twice in opposite directions. Point B is inside the path, because the ray intersects the path once. Point C is inside the path, because the ray intersects the path twice in the same directions. By default, a Path2D is created using the WIND NON ZERO rule. You can use the setWindingRule method to set a new winding rule.

Listing 49.9 gives a program that demonstrates winding rules in Path2D. Figure 49.24 shows a sample run of the program.

Listing 49.9 WindingRuleDemo.java

```java
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class WindingRuleDemo extends JApplet {
    public WindingRuleDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
    protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        super.paintComponent(g);
    }

    public void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
        // Draw shapes here...
    }
}
```

```
Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g; // Get Graphics2D

g2d.translate(10, 10); // Translate to a new origin
   g2d.draw(createAPath()); // Create and draw a path

   g2d.translate(160, 0); // Translate to a new origin
   Path2D path2 = createAPath(); // Create a path
   path2.setWindingRule(Path2D.WIND_EVEN_ODD); // Set a new rule
   g2d.fill(path2); // Create and fill a path

   g2d.translate(160, 0); // Translate to a new origin
   Path2D path3 = createAPath(); // Create a path
   path3.setWindingRule(Path2D.WIND_NON_ZERO); // Set a new rule
   g2d.fill(path3); // Create and fill a path
}

private Path2D createAPath() {
   // Define the outer rectangle
   Path2D path = new Path2D.Double();
   path.moveTo(0, 0);
   path.lineTo(0, 100);
   path.lineTo(100, 100);
   path.lineTo(100, 0);
   path.lineTo(0, 0);

   // Define the inner rectangle
   path.moveTo(30, 30);
   path.lineTo(30, 70);
   path.lineTo(70, 70);
   path.lineTo(70, 30);
   path.lineTo(30, 30);

   return path;
}

Figure 49.24

The winding rule defines the interior points.

<Side remark: createAPath>

The createAPath() method creates a path for two rectangles. The outer rectangle is created in lines 33-37 and the inner rectangle in lines 40-49.

The program translates the coordinate’s origin to (10, 10) in line 16, invokes createAPath to create a path, and displays it in line 17.
The program translates the coordinate’s origin to (160, 0) in line 19, creates a new path (line 20), sets the path winding rule to WIND_EVEN_ODD (line 21), and displays it in line 22.

The program translates the coordinate’s origin to (160, 0) in line 24, creates a new path (line 25), sets the path winding rule to WIND_NON_ZERO (line 26), and displays it in line 27.

Note that if a path is unclosed, the fill method implicitly closes it and draws a filled path.

49.10 Constructive Area Geometry

Shapes can be combined to create new shapes. This is known as constructive area geometry. Java 2D provides class Area to perform constructive area geometry, as shown in Figure 49.25.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+Area()</td>
<td>Creates an empty area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Area(s: Shape)</td>
<td>Creates an Area for the specified shape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+add(area: Area): void</td>
<td>Adds the shape in the specified area with the shape in this area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+subtract(area: Area): void</td>
<td>Subtracts the shape in the specified area from the shape in this area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+intersect(area: Area): void</td>
<td>Sets the shape of this area to the intersection of its current shape with the shape in the specified area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+exclusiveOr(area: Area): void</td>
<td>Same as invoking this.add(area) and then invoking this.subtract(area).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 49.25

The Area class contains the methods for constructing new areas.

Area implements Shape and provides the methods add, subtract, intersect, and exclusiveOr to perform set-theoretic operations union, difference, intersection, and symmetric difference. These operations perform on the shapes stored in the areas. The union of two areas consists of all points that are in either area. The difference of two areas consists of the points that are in the first area, but not in the second area. The intersection of two areas consists of all points that are in both areas. The symmetric difference consists of the points that are in exactly one of the two areas.

Listing 49.10 gives a program that demonstrates constructive geometry using the Area class. Figure 49.26 shows a sample run of the program.

Listing 49.10 AreaDemo.java

<Side remark: Line 2: import for shape classes>
<Side remark: Line 5: applet>
<Side remark: Line 14: Graphics2D reference>
<Side remark: Line 17: two shapes>
<Side remark: Line 19: new origin>
<Side remark: Line 23: draw shapes>
<Side remark: Line 25: add>
<Side remark: Line 30: fill area>
import java.awt.*;
import java.awt.geom.*;
import javax.swing.*;

public class AreaDemo extends JApplet {
    public AreaDemo() {
        add(new ShapePanel());
    }

    class ShapePanel extends JPanel {
        protected void paintComponent(Graphics g) {
            super.paintComponent(g);

            Graphics2D g2d = (Graphics2D)g; // Get Graphics2D

            // Create two shapes
            Shape shape1 = new Ellipse2D.Double(0, 0, 50, 50);
            Shape shape2 = new Ellipse2D.Double(25, 0, 50, 50);
            g2d.translate(10, 10); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.draw(shape1); // Draw the shape
            g2d.draw(shape2); // Draw the shape

            Area area1 = new Area(shape1); // Create an area
            Area area2 = new Area(shape2);
            area1.add(area2); // Add area2 to area1
            g2d.translate(100, 0); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.draw(area1); // Draw the outline of the shape in the area

            g2d.translate(100, 0); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.fill(area1); // Fill the shape in the area

            area1 = new Area(shape1);
            area1.subtract(area2); // Subtract area2 from area1
            g2d.translate(100, 0); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.fill(area1); // Fill the shape in the area

            area1 = new Area(shape1);
            area1.intersect(area2); // Intersection of area2 with area1
            g2d.translate(100, 0); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.fill(area1); // Fill the shape in the area

            area1 = new Area(shape1);
            area1.exclusiveOr(area2); // Exclusive or of area2 with area1
            g2d.translate(100, 0); // Translate to a new origin
            g2d.fill(area1); // Fill the shape in the area
        }
    }
}
The Area class can be used to perform constructive geometry.

The program creates two ellipses (lines 17–18) and displays them (lines 20–21). The program creates two areas and invokes add (line 25), subtract (line 33), intersect (line 38), and exclusiveOr (line 43) to perform constructive area geometry.

Key Terms
- constructive area geometry
- cubic curves
- gradient paint
- quadratic curves
- rotation
- scaling
- stroke
- texture paint
- translation
- WIND_EVEN_ODD
- WIND_NON_ZERO

Chapter Summary
1. The Java 2D API provides the java.awt.Graphics2D class, which extends java.awt.Graphics with advanced capabilities for rendering graphics.
2. The Java 2D API provides an object-oriented approach that separates rendering from modeling. All shapes are defined under the Shape interface.
3. Classes Line2D, Rectangle2D, RoundRectangle2D, Arc2D, Ellipses2D, QuadCurve2D, CubicCurve2D, and Path2D are abstract classes. Each contains two concrete static inner classes named Double and Float for double and float coordinates, respectively. The Inner classes are subclasses of their respective abstract classes.
4. A point can be modeled using the abstract Point2D class. It contains two concrete static inner classes Point2D.Double and Point2D.Float, which are subclasses of Point2D.
5. The Graphics2D class is for rendering shapes. You can invoke its draw(Shape) method to render the boundary of the shape and fill(Shape) method to fill the interior of the shape.
6. You can use the translate(double x, double y) method in the Graphics class to move the subsequent rendering by the specified distance relative to the previous position.
7. You can use the rotate(double theta) method in the Graphics2D class to rotate subsequent rendering by theta degrees from the origin, where theta is a double value in radians.
8. You can use the scale(double sx, double sy) method in the Graphics2D class to resize subsequent rendering by the specified scaling factors.
9. Java 2D allows you to specify the attributes of lines, called strokes.
10. You can specify the width of the line, how the line ends (called end caps), how lines join together (called line joins), and whether the line is dashed. These attributes are defined in a Stroke object.

11. You can create a Stroke object using the BasicStroke class.

12. To set a stroke, use the setStroke(Stroke) method in the Graphics2D class.

13. Graphics2D provides the setPaint(Paint) method to set a paint. Paint is a generalization of color. It has more attributes than simple solid colors.

14. GradientPaint defines a varying color, specified by two points and two colors. As the location moves from the first point to the second, the paint changes gradually from the first color to the second.

15. A GradientPaint can cyclic or acyclic. A cyclic paint repeats the same pattern periodically.

16. TexturePaint defines an image to fill a shape or characters. A texture paint is defined by an image anchored in a rectangle.

17. Java 2D provides the QuadCurve2D and CubicCurve2D classes for modeling quadratic curves and cubic curves.

18. A quadratic curve is mathematically defined as a quadratic polynomial.

19. A cubic curve is mathematically defined as a cubic polynomial.

20. The Path2D class models an arbitrary geometric path. Path2D.Double and Path2D.Float are two concrete subclasses of Path2D.

21. The winding rule defines interior points in a path.

22. The WIND EVEN_ODD rule defines a point as inside a path if a ray from the point toward infinity in an arbitrary direction intersects the path an odd number of times.

23. With the WIND NON ZERO rule, the direction of the path is taken into consideration. A point is inside a path if a ray from the point toward infinity in an arbitrary direction intersects the path an unequal number of opposite directions.

24. Java 2D provides class Area to perform constructive area geometry.

25. Area implements Shape and provides the methods add, subtract, intersect, and exclusiveOr to perform set-theoretic operations union, difference, intersection, and symmetric difference.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

Sections 49.2–49.3

49.1 How do you obtain a reference to a Graphics2D object?

49.2 List some methods defined in the Shape interface.

49.3 How do you create a Line2D object?

49.4 Are Line2D.Double and Line2D.Float inner classes of Line2D? Are they also subclasses of Line2D?
49.5 How do you render a Shape object?

49.6 What are the relationships among Point2D, Point2D.Double, Point2D.Float, and Point? Check Java API to see what methods are defined in Point2D.

Section 49.4
49.7 What are the relationships among Rectangle2D, Rectangle2D.Double, Rectangle2D.Float, and Rectangle?

49.8 You can draw basic shapes such as lines, rectangles, ellipses, and arcs using the drawing/filling methods in the Graphics class or create a Shape object and render them using the draw(Shape) or fill(Shape). What are the advantages of using the latter?

Section 49.5
49.9 Suppose a rectangle is created using new Rectangle2D.Double(2, 3, 4, 5). Where is it displayed after applying g2d.translate(10, 10) and g2d.draw(rectangle)?

49.10 Suppose a rectangle is created using new Rectangle2D.Double(2, 3, 4, 5). Where is it displayed after applying g2d.rotate(Math.PI / 5) and g2d.draw(rectangle)?

49.11 Suppose a rectangle is created using new Rectangle2D.Double(2, 3, 4, 5). Where is it displayed after applying g2d.scale(10, 10) and g2d.draw(rectangle)?

Sections 49.6–49.7
49.12 How do you create a Stroke and set a stroke in Graphics2D?

49.13 How do you create a Paint and set a paint in Graphics2D?

49.14 What is a gradient paint? How do you create a GradientPaint?

49.15 What is a texture paint? How do you create a TexturePaint?

Sections 49.8–49.10
49.16 How do you create a QuadCurve2D? How do you create a CubicCurve2D?

49.17 Describe the methods in Path2D?

49.18 What is the winding rule? What is WIND_EVEN_ODD? What is WIND_NON_ZERO?

49.19 How do you create an Area from a shape? Describe the add, subtract, intersect, and exclusiveOr methods in the Area class.

Programming Exercises
Section 49.4
49.1* (Inside a rectangle?) Write a program that displays a rectangle with upper-left corner point at (20, 20), width 100, and height 100. Whenever you move the mouse, display a message indicating whether the mouse point is inside the rectangle, as shown in Figure 49.27a–b.
Exercise 49.1 detects whether a point is inside a rectangle. (c-e) Exercise 49.2 detects whether a circle contains, intersects, or is outside a rectangle.

49.2* (Contains, intersects, or outside?) Write a program that displays a rectangle with upper-left corner point at (40, 40), width 40, and height 60. Display a circle. The circle’s upper-left corner of the bounding rectangle is at the mouse point. Pressing the up/down arrow key increases/decreases the circle radius by 5 pixels by. Display a message at the mouse point to indicate whether the circle contains, intersects, or is outside of the rectangle, as shown in Figure 49.27c-e.

49.3* (Translation) Write a program that displays a rectangle with upper-left corner point at (40, 40), width 50, and height 40. Enter the values in the text fields x and y and press the Translate button to translate the rectangle to a new location, as shown in Figure 49.28a.

49.4* (Rotation) Write a program that displays an ellipse. The center of the ellipse is at (0, 0) with width 60 and height 40. Use the translate method to move the origin to (100, 70). Enter the value in the text
field Angle and press the Rotate button to rotate the ellipse to a new location, as shown in Figure 49.28b.

49.5*
(Scale graphics) Write a program that displays an ellipse. The center of the ellipse is at \((0, 0)\) with width 60 and height 40. Use the translate method to move the origin to \((150, 50)\). Enter the scaling factors in the text fields and press the Scale button to scale the ellipse, as shown in Figure 49.28c.

49.6*
(Vertical strings) Write a program that displays three strings vertically, as shown in Figure 49.29a.

![Figure 49.29](image)

(a) Exercise 49.6 displays strings vertically. (b) Exercise 49.7 displays characters around the circle. (c) Exercise 49.8 displays a sine function.

49.7*
(Characters around circle) Write a program that displays a string around the circle, as shown in Figure 49.29b.

49.8*
(Plot the sine function) Write a program that plots the sine function, as shown in Figure 49.29c.

49.9*
(Plot the log function) Write a program that plots the log function, as shown in Figure 49.30a.

![Figure 49.30](image)

(a) Exercise 49.9 displays the log function. (b) Exercise 49.10 displays the \(n^2\) function.

49.10*
(Plot the \(n^2\) function) Write a program that plots the \(n^2\) function, as shown in Figure 49.30b.
49.11*  
(Plot the log, n, nlogn, and n² functions) Write a program that plots the log, n, nlogn, and n² functions, as shown in Figure 49.31a.

![Figure 49.31](image1)

Figure 49.31

(a) Exercise 49.11 displays several functions. (b) Exercise 49.12 displays the sunshine. (c) Exercise 49.13 displays a cylinder.

49.12*  
(Sunshine) Write a program that displays a circle filled with a gradient color to animate a sun and display light rays coming out from the sun using dashed lines, as shown in Figure 49.31b.

49.13*  
(Display a cylinder) Write a program that displays a cylinder, as shown in Figure 49.31c. Use dashed strokes to draw the dashed arc.

49.14*  
(Filled cylinder) Write a program that displays a filled cylinder, as shown in Figure 49.32a.

![Figure 49.32](image2)

Figure 49.32

(a) Exercise 49.14 displays a filled cylinder. (b) Exercise 49.15 displays symmetric difference of two areas. (c) Exercise 49.16 displays two eyes.

49.15*  
(Area geometry) Write a program that creates two areas: a circle and a path consisting of two cubic curves. Draw the areas and fill the symmetric difference of the areas, as shown in Figure 49.32(b).

49.16*  
(Eyes) Write a program that displays two eyes in an oval, as shown in Figure 49.32c.

49.17**  
(Geometry: strategic point of a polygon) Revise Exercise 14.33 to enable the user to drag and move the vertices and the program dynamically redisplay the polygon and its strategic point. Write a program as an applet and assume the five points of the polygon are initially located at (25, 20), (170, 25), (200, 100), (100, 110), and (50, 80).
49.18*  
*(Scale and rotate graphics)* Write an applet that enables the user to scale and rotate the STOP sign, as shown in Figure 49.33. The user can press the CTRL and +/- key to increase/decrease the size and press the RIGHT/LEFT arrow key to rotate left or right.

![Figure 49.33](image)

*The applet can scale and rotate the painting.*
CHAPTER 50

Testing Using JUnit

Objectives

- To know what JUnit is and how JUnit works (§50.2).
- To create and run a JUnit test class from the command window (§50.2).
- To create and run a JUnit test class from NetBeans (§50.3).
- To create and run a JUnit test class from Eclipse (§50.4).
50.1 Introduction

At the very beginning of this book in Section 2.16, we introduced software development process that includes requirements specification, analysis, design, implementation, testing, deployment, and maintenance. Testing is an important part of this process. This chapter introduces how to test Java classes using JUnit.

50.2 JUnit Basics

JUnit, test runner, test class

JUnit is the de facto framework for testing Java programs. JUnit is a third-party open source library packed in a jar file. The jar file contains a tool called test runner, which is used to run test programs. Suppose you have a class named A. To test this class, you write a test class named ATest. This test class, called a test class, contains the methods you write for testing class A. The test runner executes ATest to generate a test report, as shown in Figure 50.1.

![JUnit Test Runner](image)

Figure 50.1

JUnit test runner executes the test class to generate a test report.

You will see how JUnit works from an example. To create the example, first you need to download JUnit from http://sourceforge.net/projects/junit/files/. At present, the latest version is junit-4.10.jar. Download this file to c:\book\lib and add it to the classpath environment variable as follows:

```bash
set classpath=.;%classpath%;c:\book\lib\junit-4.10.jar
```

To test if this environment variable is set correctly, open a new command window, and type the following command:

```bash
java org.junit.runner.JUnitCore
```

You should see the message displayed as shown in Figure 50.2.

![JUnit Test Output](image)

Figure 50.2
The JUnit test runner displays the JUnit version.

To use JUnit, create a test class. By convention, if the class to be tested is named A, the test class should be named ATest. A simple template of a test class may look like this:

```java
package mytest;

import org.junit.*;
import static org.junit.Assert.*;

public class ATest {
    @Test
    public void m1() {
        // Write a test method
    }

    @Test
    public void m2() {
        // Write another test method
    }

    @Before
    public void setUp() throws Exception {
        // Common objects used by test methods may be set up here
    }
}
```

To run the test from the console, use the following command:

```
java org.junit.runner.JUnitCore mytest.ATest
```

When this command is executed, JUnitCore controls the execution of ATest. It first executes the `setUp()` method to set up the common objects used for the test, and then executes test methods `m1` and `m2` in this order. You may define multiple test methods if desirable.

The following methods can be used to implement a test method:

- `assertTrue(booleanExpression)`
  The method reports success if the booleanExpression evaluates true.

- `assertEquals(Object, Object)`
  The method reports success if the two objects are the same using the `equals` method.

- `assertNull(Object)`
  The method reports success if the object reference passed is `null`.

- `fail(String)`
  The method causes the test to fail and prints out the string.

Listing 50.1 is an example of a test class for testing `java.util.ArrayList`.

```java
Listing 50.1 ArrayListTest.java
```

<Side Remark line 7: test class>
package mytest;

import org.junit.*;
import static org.junit.Assert.*;
import java.util.*;

public class ArrayListTest {
    private ArrayList<String> list = new ArrayList<String>();

    @Before
    public void setUp() throws Exception {
    
    }

    @Test
    public void testInsertion() {
        list.add("Beijing");
        assertEquals("Beijing", list.get(0));
        list.add("Shanghai");
        list.add("Hongkong");
        assertEquals("Hongkong", list.get(list.size() - 1));
    }

    @Test
    public void testDeletion() {
        list.clear();
        assertTrue(list.isEmpty());
        list.add("A");
        list.add("B");
        list.add("C");
        list.remove("B");
        assertEquals(2, list.size());
    }
}

A test run of the program is shown in Figure 50.3. Note that you have to first compile ArrayListTest.java. The ArrayListTest class is placed in the mytest package. So you should place ArrayListTest.java in the directory named mytest.
Figure 50.3

The test report is displayed from running ArrayListTest.

No errors are reported in this JUnit run. If you mistakenly change

```
assertEquals(2, list.size());
```

in line 32 to

```
assertEquals(3, list.size());
```

Run ArrayListTest now. You will see an error reported as shown in Figure 50.4.

![JUnit Test Report](image)

Figure 50.4

The test report reports an error.

You can define any number of test methods. In this example, two test methods testInsertion and testDeletion are defined. JUnit executes testInsertion and testDeletion in this order.

**NOTE:** The test class must be placed in a named package such as mytest in this example. The JUnit will not work if the test class is placed a default package.

Listing 50.2 gives a test class for testing the Loan class in Listing 10.2. For convenience, we create Loan.java in the same directory with LoanTest.java. The Loan class is shown in Listing 50.3.

**Listing 50.2 LoanTest.java**

```
package mytest;

import org.junit.*;
import static org.junit.Assert.*;

public class LoanTest {

```
@Before
public void setUp() throws Exception {
}

@Test
public void testPaymentMethods() {
    double annualInterestRate = 2.5;
    int numberOfYears = 5;
    double loanAmount = 1000;
    Loan loan = new Loan(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount);

    assertTrue(loan.getMonthlyPayment() ==
        getMonthlyPayment(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount));
    assertTrue(loan.getTotalPayment() ==
        getTotalPayment(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount));
}

/** Find monthly payment */
private double getMonthlyPayment(double annualInterestRate, int numberOfYears, double loanAmount) {
    double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;
    double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 -
    (1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12)));
    return monthlyPayment;
}

/** Find total payment */
public double getTotalPayment(double annualInterestRate, int numberOfYears, double loanAmount) {
    return getMonthlyPayment(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount) * numberOfYears * 12;
}
}

Listing 50.3 Loan.java

<Side Remark line 1: mytest package>
<Side Remark line 3: the Loan class>
<Side Remark line 56: getMonthlyPayment>
<Side Remark line 64: getTotalPayment>

package mytest;

public class Loan {
    private double annualInterestRate;
    private int numberOfYears;
    private double loanAmount;
    private java.util.Date loanDate;

    /** Default constructor */
    public Loan() {
        this(2.5, 1, 1000);
    }
}
/** Construct a loan with specified annual interest rate, 
number of years, and loan amount */
public Loan(double annualInterestRate, int numberOfYears,
            double loanAmount) {
    this.annualInterestRate = annualInterestRate;
    this.numberOfYears = numberOfYears;
    this.loanAmount = loanAmount;
    loanDate = new java.util.Date();
}

/** Return annualInterestRate */
public double getAnnualInterestRate() {
    return annualInterestRate;
}

/** Set a new annualInterestRate */
public void setAnnualInterestRate(double annualInterestRate) {
    this.annualInterestRate = annualInterestRate;
}

/** Return numberOfYears */
public int getNumberOfYears() {
    return numberOfYears;
}

/** Set a new numberOfYears */
public void setNumberOfYears(int numberOfYears) {
    this.numberOfYears = numberOfYears;
}

/** Return loanAmount */
public double getLoanAmount() {
    return loanAmount;
}

/** Set a new loanAmount */
public void setLoanAmount(double loanAmount) {
    this.loanAmount = loanAmount;
}

/** Find monthly payment */
public double getMonthlyPayment() {
    double monthlyInterestRate = annualInterestRate / 1200;
    double monthlyPayment = loanAmount * monthlyInterestRate / (1 -
    (1 / Math.pow(1 + monthlyInterestRate, numberOfYears * 12)));
    return monthlyPayment;
}

/** Find total payment */
public double getTotalPayment() {
    double totalPayment = getMonthlyPayment() * numberOfYears * 12;
    return totalPayment;
}
/** Return loan date */

    public java.util.Date getLoanDate() {
        return loanDate;
    }

The **testPaymentMethods()** in LoanTest creates an instance of Loan (line 16-17) and tests whether loan.getMonthlyPayment() returns the same value as getMonthlyPayment(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount). The latter method is defined in the LoanTest class (lines 28-34).

The **testPaymentMethods()** also tests whether loan.getTotalPayment() returns the same value as getTotalPayment(annualInterestRate, numberOfYears, loanAmount). The latter method is defined in the LoanTest class (lines 37-41).

A sample run of the program is shown in Figure 50.5.

![Figure 50.5](image_url)

The JUnit test runner executes LoanTest and reports no errors.

### 50.3 Using JUnit from NetBeans

An IDE like NetBeans and Eclipse can greatly simplify the process for creating and running test classes. This section introduces using JUnit from NetBeans and the next section introduces using JUnit from Eclipse.

If you not familiar with NetBeans, see Supplement II.B. Assume you have installed NetBeans 7.0. Create a project named chapter50 as follows:

Step 1: Choose File, New Project to display the New Project dialog box.
Step 2: Choose Java in the Categories section and Java Application in the Projects section. Click Next to display the New Java Application dialog box.
Step 3: Enter chapter50 as the Project Name and c:\book as Project Location. Click Finish to create the project as shown in Figure 50.6.
A new project named chapter50 is created.

To demonstrate how to create a test class, we first create class to be tested. Let the class be Loan from Listing 10.2. Here are the steps to create the Loan class under chapter50.

Step 1: Right-click the project node chapter50 and choose New, Java Class to display the New Java Class dialog box.
Step 2: Enter Loan as Class Name and chapter50 in the Package field and click Finish to create the class.
Step 3: Copy the code in Listing 10.2 to the Loan class and make sure the first line is package chapter50, as shown in Figure 50.7.
The **Loan** class is created.

Now you can create a test class to test the **Loan** class as follows:

Step 1: Right-click **Loan.java** in the project to display a context menu and choose **Tools**, **Create JUnit Test** to display the Select JUnit version dialog box, as shown in Figure 50.8.

Step 2: Choose JUnit 4.x. You will see the Create Tests dialog box displayed as shown in Figure 50.9. Click **OK** to generate a Test class named LoanTest as shown in Figure 50.10. Note that LoanTest.java is placed under the Test Packages node in the project.

![Select JUnit Version](image_url)

**Figure 50.8**

You should select JUnit 4.x framework to create test classes.
The Create Tests dialog box creates a Test class.

The LoanTest class is automatically generated.

You can now modify LoanTest by copying the code from Listing 50.2. Run LoanTest.java. You will see the test report as shown in Figure 50.11.
The test report is displayed after the LoanTest class is executed.

50.4 Using JUnit from Eclipse

This section introduces using JUnit from Eclipse. If you are not familiar with Eclipse, see Supplement II.D. Assume you have installed Eclipse 3.7. Create a project named chapter50 as follows:

Step 1: Choose File, New Java Project to display the New Java Project dialog box, as shown in Figure 50.12.
Step 2: Enter chapter50 in the project name field and click Finish to create the project.
The New Java Project dialog creates a new project.

To demonstrate how to create a test class, we first create class to be tested. Let the class be Loan from Listing 10.2. Here are the steps to create the Loan class under chapter50.

Step 1: Right-click the project node chapter50 and choose New, Class to display the New Java Class dialog box, as shown in Figure 50.13.
Step 2: Enter mytest in the Package field and click Finish to create the class.
Step 3: Copy the code in Listing 10.2 to the Loan class and make sure the first line is package mytest, as shown in Figure 50.14.
Figure 50.13

The New Java Class dialog creates a new Java class.
The `Loan` class is created.

Now you can create a test class to test the `Loan` class as follows:

Step 1: Right-click `Loan.java` in the project to display a context menu and choose `New, JUnit Test Case` to display the New JUnit Test Case dialog box, as shown in Figure 50.15.

Step 2: Click `Finish`. You will see a dialog prompting you to add JUnit 4 to the project build path. Click `OK` to add it. Now a test class named `LoanTest` is created as shown in Figure 50.16.
The New JUnit Test Case dialog box creates a Test class.

The LoanTest class is automatically generated.

You can now modify LoanTest by copying the code from Listing 50.2. Run LoanTest.java. You will see the test report as shown in Figure 50.17.
Figure 50.17

The test report is displayed after the LoanTest class is executed.

Key Terms

- JUnit
- JUnitCore
- test class
- test runner

Chapter Summary

1. JUnit is an open source framework for testing Java programs.
2. To test a Java class, you create a test class for the class to be tested and use JUnit’s test runner to execute the test class to generate a test report.
3. You can create and run a test class from the command window or use a tool such as NetBeans and Eclipse.

Test Questions

Do the test questions for this chapter online at www.cs.armstrong.edu/liang/intro9e/test.html.

Review Questions

50.1 What is JUnit?
50.2 What is a JUnit test runner?
50.3 What is a test class? How do you create a test class?

50.4 How do you use the `assertTrue` method?

50.5 How do you use the `assertEquals` method?

**Programming Exercises**

50.1

Write a test class to test the methods `length`, `charAt`, `substring`, and `indexOf` in the `java.lang.String` class.

50.2

Write a test class to test the methods `add`, `remove`, `addAll`, `removeAll`, `size`, `isEmpty`, and `contains` in the `java.util.HashSet` class.

50.3

Write a test class to test the method `isPrime` in Listing 5.7 PrimeNumberMethod.java.

50.4

Write a test class to test the methods `getBMI` and `getStatus` in the `BMI` class in Listing 10.4.
APPENDIXES

Appendix A
Java Keywords

Appendix B
The ASCII Character Set

Appendix C
Operator Precedence Chart

Appendix D
Java Modifiers

Appendix E
Special Floating-Point Values

Appendix F
Number Systems

Appendix G
Bitwise Operations
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Java Keywords

The following fifty keywords are reserved for use by the Java language:

- abstract
- assert
- boolean
- break
- byte
- case
- class
- const
- continue
- default
- do
- double
- else
- enum
- extends
- final
- finally
- float
- for
- goto
- if
- implements
- import
- instanceof
- int
- interface
- new
- native
- native
- new
- package
- private
- protected
- public
- return
- short
- static
- strictfp
- super
- switch
- synchronized
- this
- throw
- throws
- transient
- try
- void
- volatile
- while
- with
- \null

The keywords goto and const are C++ keywords reserved, but not currently used, in Java. This enables Java compilers to identify them and to produce better error messages if they appear in Java programs.

The literal values true, false, and null are not keywords, just like literal value 100. However, you cannot use them as identifiers, just as you cannot use 100 as an identifier. In the code listing, we use the keyword color for true, false, and null to be consistent with their coloring in Java IDEs.

assert is a keyword added in JDK 1.4 and enum is a keyword added in JDK 1.5.

*The strictfp keyword is a modifier for a method or class that enables it to use strict floating-point calculations. Floating-point arithmetic can be executed in one of two modes: strict or nonstrict. The strict mode guarantees that the evaluation result is the same on all Java Virtual Machine implementations. The nonstrict mode allows intermediate results from calculations to be stored in an extended format different from the standard IEEE floating-point number format. The extended format is machine-dependent and enables code to be executed faster. However, when you execute the code using the nonstrict mode on different JVMs, you may not always get precisely the same results. By default, the nonstrict mode is used for floating-point calculations. To use the strict mode in a method or a class, add the strictfp keyword in the method or the class declaration. Strict floating-point may give you slightly better precision than nonstrict floating-point, but the distinction will only affect some applications. Strictness is not inherited; that is, the presence of strictfp on a class or interface declaration does not cause extended classes or interfaces to be strict.
The ASCII Character Set

Tables B.1 and B.2 show ASCII characters and their respective decimal and hexadecimal codes. The decimal or hexadecimal code of a character is a combination of its row index and column index. For example, in Table B.1, the letter A is at row 6 and column 5, so its decimal equivalent is 65; in Table B.2, letter A is at row 4 and column 1, so its hexadecimal equivalent is 41.
### Table B.1  ASCII Character Set in the Decimal Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>nul</td>
<td>soh</td>
<td>stx</td>
<td>etx</td>
<td>eot</td>
<td>enq</td>
<td>ack</td>
<td>bel</td>
<td>bs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>nl</td>
<td>vt</td>
<td>ff</td>
<td>cr</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>si</td>
<td>dle</td>
<td>dcl</td>
<td>dc2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>dc4</td>
<td>nak</td>
<td>syn</td>
<td>etb</td>
<td>can</td>
<td>em</td>
<td>sub</td>
<td>esc</td>
<td>fs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>rs</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>sp</td>
<td>!</td>
<td>”</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>$</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(</td>
<td>)</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>,</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>@</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Z</td>
<td>[</td>
<td>\</td>
<td>]</td>
<td>∧</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>‘</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>{</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>}</td>
<td>~</td>
<td>del</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table B.2  ASCII Character Set in the Hexadecimal Index

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | nul | soh | stx | etx | eot | enq | ack | bel | bs | ht | nl | vt | ff | cr | so | si |
| 1 | dle | dcl | dc2 | dc3 | dc4 | nak | syn | etb | can | em | sub | esc | fs | gs | rs | us |
| 2 | sp | ! | ” | # | $ | % | & | ’ | ( | ) | * | + | , | – | . | / |
| 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | : | ; | < | = | > | ? |
| 4 | @ | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O |
| 5 | P | Q | R | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z | [ | \ | ] | ∧ | – |
| 6 | ‘ | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i | j | k | l | m | n | o |
| 7 | p | q | r | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z | { | | | } | ~ | del |
### Operator Precedence Chart

The operators are shown in decreasing order of precedence from top to bottom. Operators in the same group have the same precedence, and their associativity is shown in the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Associativity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(</td>
<td>Parentheses</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
<td>Function call</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[</td>
<td>Array subscript</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>Object member access</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>Postincrement</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>Postdecrement</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>Preincrement</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>Predecrement</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Unary plus</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Unary minus</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>Unary logical negation</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(type)</td>
<td>Unary casting</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new</td>
<td>Creating object</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Multiplication</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Remainder</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Subtraction</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
<td>Left shift</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Right shift with sign extension</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Right shift with zero extension</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>Less than</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>Less than or equal to</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>Greater than or equal to</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instanceof</td>
<td>Checking object type</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Associativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>==</code></td>
<td>Equal comparison</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>!=</code></td>
<td>Not equal</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&amp;</code></td>
<td>(Unconditional AND)</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>^</code></td>
<td>(Exclusive OR)</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>`</td>
<td>`</td>
<td>(Unconditional OR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&amp;&amp;</code></td>
<td>Conditional AND</td>
<td>Left to right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>`</td>
<td></td>
<td>`</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>?:</code></td>
<td>Ternary condition</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>=</code></td>
<td>Assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>+=</code></td>
<td>Addition assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-=</code></td>
<td>Subtraction assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>*=</code></td>
<td>Multiplication assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>/=</code></td>
<td>Division assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%=</code></td>
<td>Remainder assignment</td>
<td>Right to left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Java Modifiers

Modifiers are used on classes and class members (constructors, methods, data, and class-level blocks), but the `final` modifier can also be used on local variables in a method. A modifier that can be applied to a class is called a `class modifier`. A modifier that can be applied to a method is called a `method modifier`. A modifier that can be applied to a data field is called a `data modifier`. A modifier that can be applied to a class-level block is called a `block modifier`.

The following table gives a summary of the Java modifiers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Constructor</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Block</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(default)*</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>A class, constructor, method, or data field is visible in this package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>A class, constructor, method, or data field is visible to all programs in any package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>A constructor, method, or data field is only visible in this class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protected</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>A constructor, method, or data field is visible in this package and in subclasses of this class in any package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Define a class method, a class data field, or a static initialization block.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>final</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>A final class cannot be extended. A final method cannot be modified in a subclass. A final data field is a constant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abstract</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>An abstract class must be extended. An abstract method must be implemented in a concrete subclass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>native</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>A native method indicates that the method is implemented using a language other than Java.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Default access doesn’t have a modifier associated with it. For example: `class Test {}`
The modifiers default (no modifier), **public**, **private**, and **protected** are known as **visibility** or **accessibility modifiers** because they specify how classes and class members are accessed.

The modifiers **public**, **private**, **protected**, **static**, **final**, and **abstract** can also be applied to inner classes.
Special Floating-Point Values

Dividing an integer by zero is invalid and throws `ArithmeticException`, but dividing a floating-point value by zero does not cause an exception. Floating-point arithmetic can overflow to infinity if the result of the operation is too large for a `double` or a `float`, or underflow to zero if the result is too small for a `double` or a `float`. Java provides the special floating-point values `POSITIVE_INFINITY`, `NEGATIVE_INFINITY`, and `NaN` (Not a Number) to denote these results. These values are defined as special constants in the `Float` class and the `Double` class.

If a positive floating-point number is divided by zero, the result is `POSITIVE_INFINITY`. If a negative floating-point number is divided by zero, the result is `NEGATIVE_INFINITY`. If a floating-point zero is divided by zero, the result is `NaN`, which means that the result is undefined mathematically. The string representations of these three values are `Infinity`, `-Infinity`, and `NaN`. For example,

```
System.out.print(1.0 / 0); // Print Infinity
System.out.print(-1.0 / 0); // Print -Infinity
System.out.print(0.0 / 0); // Print NaN
```

These special values can also be used as operands in computations. For example, a number divided by `POSITIVE_INFINITY` yields a positive zero. Table E.1 summarizes various combinations of the `/`, `*`, `%`, `+`, and `-` operators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>x/y</th>
<th>x*y</th>
<th>x%y</th>
<th>x + y</th>
<th>x - y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>Finite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>infinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>infinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
<td>± infinity</td>
<td>± 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
<td>NaN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note

If one of the operands is NaN, the result is NaN.
Number Systems

F.1 Introduction

Computers use binary numbers internally, because computers are made naturally to store and process 0s and 1s. The binary number system has two digits, 0 and 1. A number or character is stored as a sequence of 0s and 1s. Each 0 or 1 is called a bit (binary digit).

In our daily life we use decimal numbers. When we write a number such as 20 in a program, it is assumed to be a decimal number. Internally, computer software is used to convert decimal numbers into binary numbers, and vice versa.

We write computer programs using decimal numbers. However, to deal with an operating system, we need to reach down to the “machine level” by using binary numbers. Binary numbers tend to be very long and cumbersome. Often hexadecimal numbers are used to abbreviate them, with each hexadecimal digit representing four binary digits. The hexadecimal number system has 16 digits: 0–9 and A–F. The letters A, B, C, D, E, and F correspond to the decimal numbers 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15.

The digits in the decimal number system are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. A decimal number is represented by a sequence of one or more of these digits. The value that each digit represents depends on its position, which denotes an integral power of 10. For example, the digits 7, 4, 2, and 3 in decimal number 7423 represent 7000, 400, 20, and 3, respectively, as shown below:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
& 7 & 4 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline
10^3 & 10^2 & 10^1 & 10^0 \\
\hline
7 \times 10^3 & 4 \times 10^2 & 2 \times 10^1 & 3 \times 10^0 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[10^3 \times 10^2 \times 10^1 \times 10^0 = 7000 + 400 + 20 + 3 = 7423\]

The decimal number system has ten digits, and the position values are integral powers of 10. We say that 10 is the base or radix of the decimal number system. Similarly, since the binary number system has two digits, its base is 2, and since the hex number system has 16 digits, its base is 16.

If 1101 is a binary number, the digits 1, 1, 0, and 1 represent \[1 \times 2^3, 1 \times 2^2, 0 \times 2^1,\] and \[1 \times 2^0,\] respectively:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
& 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
\hline
2^3 & 2^2 & 2^1 & 2^0 \\
\hline
1 \times 2^3 & 1 \times 2^2 & 0 \times 2^1 & 1 \times 2^0 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[2^3 \times 2^2 \times 2^1 \times 2^0 = 8 + 4 + 0 + 1 = 13\]

If 7423 is a hex number, the digits 7, 4, 2, and 3 represent \[7 \times 16^3, 4 \times 16^2, 2 \times 16^1,\] and \[3 \times 16^0,\] respectively:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
& 7 & 4 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline
16^3 & 16^2 & 16^1 & 16^0 \\
\hline
7 \times 16^3 & 4 \times 16^2 & 2 \times 16^1 & 3 \times 16^0 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[16^3 \times 16^2 \times 16^1 \times 16^0 = 28672 + 1024 + 32 + 3 = 29731\]
F.2 Conversions Between Binary and Decimal Numbers

Given a binary number $b_nb_{n-1}b_{n-2} \ldots b_2b_1b_0$, the equivalent decimal value is

$$b_n \times 2^n + b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \ldots + b_2 \times 2^2 + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$

Here are some examples of converting binary numbers to decimals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Binary</th>
<th>Conversion Formula</th>
<th>Decimal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>$1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10101011</td>
<td>$1 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To convert a decimal number $d$ to a binary number is to find the bits $b_n, b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, \ldots, b_2, b_1$, and $b_0$ such that

$$d = b_n \times 2^n + b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \ldots + b_2 \times 2^2 + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$

These bits can be found by successively dividing $d$ by 2 until the quotient is 0. The remainders are $b_0, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{n-2}, b_{n-1}$, and $b_n$.

For example, the decimal number 123 is 111011 in binary. The conversion is done as follows:

```
   123
-  2  60
  7  30
-  2  14
  6  30
-  2  14
  3  15
-  2  7
  1  15
-  2  3
  2  15
-  2  7
  0  15
-  2  3
  1  15
```

Tip

The Windows Calculator, as shown in Figure F.1, is a useful tool for performing number conversions. To run it, search for Calculator from the Start button and launch Calculator, then under View select Scientific.
F.3 Conversions Between Hexadecimal and Decimal Numbers

Given a hexadecimal number \( h_n h_{n-1} h_{n-2} \ldots h_2 h_1 h_0 \), the equivalent decimal value is $h_n \times 16^n + h_{n-1} \times 16^{n-1} + h_{n-2} \times 16^{n-2} + \ldots + h_2 \times 16^2 + h_1 \times 16^1 + h_0 \times 16^0$.

Here are some examples of converting hexadecimal numbers to decimals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hexadecimal</th>
<th>Conversion Formula</th>
<th>Decimal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7F</td>
<td>$7 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0$</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFFF</td>
<td>$15 \times 16^3 + 15 \times 16^2 + 15 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0$</td>
<td>65535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>431</td>
<td>$4 \times 16^2 + 3 \times 16^1 + 1 \times 16^0$</td>
<td>1073</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To convert a decimal number \( d \) to a hexadecimal number is to find the hexadecimal digits \( h_n, h_{n-1}, h_{n-2}, \ldots, h_2, h_1, h_0 \) such that

$$d = h_n \times 16^n + h_{n-1} \times 16^{n-1} + h_{n-2} \times 16^{n-2} + \ldots + h_2 \times 16^2$$

$$+ h_1 \times 16^1 + h_0 \times 16^0$$

These numbers can be found by successively dividing \( d \) by 16 until the quotient is 0. The remainders are \( h_0, h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_{n-2}, h_{n-1}, h_n \).

For example, the decimal number 123 is 7B in hexadecimal. The conversion is done as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{Quotient} & 16 & 16 \\
\text{Remainder} & 0 & 123 \\
\hline
7 & 112 & 7 \\
0 & 11 & 112 \\
\hline
h_1 & h_0 & \\
\end{array}
\]

F.4 Conversions Between Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

To convert a hexadecimal to a binary number, simply convert each digit in the hexadecimal number into a four-digit binary number, using Table F.1.

For example, the hexadecimal number 7B is 111011, where 7 is 111 in binary, and B is 1011 in binary.

To convert a binary number to a hexadecimal, convert every four binary digits from right to left in the binary number into a hexadecimal number.

For example, the binary number 1110001101 is 38D, since 1101 is D, 1000 is 8, and 11 is 3, as shown below.

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
\hline
3 & 8 & D & \\
\end{array}
\]
Appendix F

Note
Octal numbers are also useful. The octal number system has eight digits, 0 to 7. A decimal number 8 is represented in the octal system as 10.

Here are some good online resources for practicing number conversions:
- http://people.sinclair.edu/nickreeder/Flash/binDec.htm
- http://people.sinclair.edu/nickreeder/Flash/binHex.htm

Check Point
MyProgrammingLab

F.1 Convert the following decimal numbers into hexadecimal and binary numbers:
100; 4340; 2000

F.2 Convert the following binary numbers into hexadecimal and decimal numbers:
1000011001; 100000000; 100111

F.3 Convert the following hexadecimal numbers into binary and decimal numbers:
FEFA9; 93; 2000

| TABLE F.1 Converting Hexadecimal to Binary |
|-------------------------------|------------------|--------|
| Hexadecimal | Binary   | Decimal |
| 0            | 0000     | 0      |
| 1            | 0001     | 1      |
| 2            | 0010     | 2      |
| 3            | 0011     | 3      |
| 4            | 0100     | 4      |
| 5            | 0101     | 5      |
| 6            | 0110     | 6      |
| 7            | 0111     | 7      |
| 8            | 1000     | 8      |
| 9            | 1001     | 9      |
| A            | 1010     | 10     |
| B            | 1011     | 11     |
| C            | 1100     | 12     |
| D            | 1101     | 13     |
| E            | 1110     | 14     |
| F            | 1111     | 15     |
## Bitwise Operations

To write programs at the machine-level, often you need to deal with binary numbers directly and perform operations at the bit-level. Java provides the bitwise operators and shift operators defined in Table G.1.

The bit operators apply only to integer types (`byte`, `short`, `int`, and `long`). A character involved in a bit operation is converted to an integer. All bitwise operators can form bitwise assignment operators, such as `=`, `|=`, `<<=`, `>>=`, and `>>>=`.

### Table G.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>Bitwise AND</td>
<td>10101110 &amp; 100100010</td>
<td>The AND of two corresponding bits yields a 1 if both bits are 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>yields 10000010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bitwise inclusive OR</td>
<td>10101110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>yields 10111110</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Bitwise exclusive OR</td>
<td>10101110 ^ 100100010</td>
<td>The XOR of two corresponding bits yields a 1 only if two bits are different.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>yields 00111100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>One’s complement</td>
<td>~10101110 yields</td>
<td>The operator toggles each bit from 0 to 1 and from 1 to 0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01010001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
<td>Left shift</td>
<td>10101110 &lt;&lt; 2 yields</td>
<td>The operator shifts bits in the first operand left by the number of bits specified in the second operand, filling with 0s on the right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10111000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Right shift</td>
<td>10101110 &gt;&gt; 2 yields</td>
<td>The operator shifts bit in the first operand right by the number of bits specified in the second operand, filling with the highest (sign) bit on the left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with sign extension</td>
<td>11101011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>00101110 &gt;&gt; 2 yields</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>00001011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Unsigned right</td>
<td>10101110 &gt;&gt;&gt; 2 yields</td>
<td>The operator shifts bit in the first operand right by the number of bits specified in the second operand, filling with 0s on the left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shift with zero</td>
<td>00101011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>extension</td>
<td>00101110 &gt;&gt;&gt; 2 yields</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>00001011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Console Input

Scanner `input = new Scanner(System.in);`

```
int intValue = input.nextInt();
long longValue = input.nextLong();
double doubleValue = input.nextDouble();
float floatValue = input.nextFloat();
String string = input.next();
```

### Console Output

`System.out.println(anyValue);`

### Primitive Data Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>8 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>16 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>32 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>64 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>32 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>64 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>16 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boolean</td>
<td>true/false</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Arithmetic Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>remainder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++var</td>
<td>preincrement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--var</td>
<td>predecrement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var++</td>
<td>postincrement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var--</td>
<td>postdecrement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Logical Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>short circuit AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>NOT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>exclusive OR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Switch Statements

```
switch (intExpression) {
    case value1:
        statements;
        break;
    ...
    case valuen:
        statements;
        break;
    default:
        statements;
}
```

### GUI Input Dialog

```
String string = JOptionPane.showInputDialog("
Enter input");  
int intValue = Integer.parseInt(string);  
double doubleValue = Double.parseDouble(string);  
```

### Message Dialog

```
JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Enter input");
```

### Relational Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>less than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>less than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>greater than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>greater than or equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==</td>
<td>equal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!=</td>
<td>not equal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Assignment Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+=</td>
<td>addition assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-=</td>
<td>subtraction assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*=</td>
<td>multiplication assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>division assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%=</td>
<td>remainder assignment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### If Statements

```
if (condition) {
    statements;
}
```

```
if (condition) {
    statements;
} else {
    statements;
}
```

```
if (condition1) {
    statements;
} else if (condition2) {
    statements;
} else {
    statements;
}
```

### Do-While Loop

```
do {
    statements;
} while (condition);
```

### For Loop

```
for (init; condition; adjustment) {
    statements;
}
```

### Companion Website

[www.pearsonhighered.com/liang](http://www.pearsonhighered.com/liang)