

CST281
Object Oriented Programming
MODULE 3
More features of Java



Syllabus

More features of Java:

Inheritance - Super Class, Sub Class, The Keyword `super`, protected Members, Calling Order of Constructors, Method Overriding, the `Object` class, Abstract Classes and Methods, Using `final` with Inheritance.

Packages and Interfaces - Defining Package, CLASSPATH, Access Protection, Importing Packages, Interfaces.

Exception Handling - Checked Exceptions, Unchecked Exceptions, try Block and catch Clause,

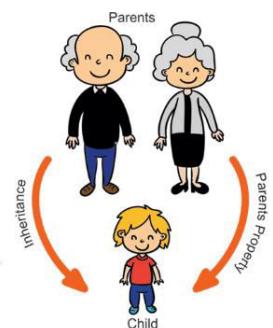
Multiple catch Clauses, Nested try Statements, `throw`, `throws` and `finally`.

- Inheritance –
 - Super Class,
 - Sub Class,
 - The Keyword `super`,
 - `protected` Members,
 - Calling Order of Constructors,
 - Method Overriding,
 - the Object class,
 - Abstract Classes and Methods,
 - Using `final` with Inheritance.

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Inheritance

- Inheritance helps to create hierarchical classifications.
- Using inheritance we can create a general class(**base** or **super class**) that defines features **common** to a set of related items.
 - This class can then **be inherited** by other, more specific classes(**subclasses**).



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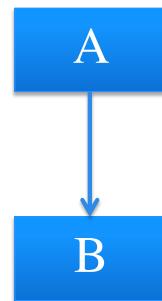
- A **subclass** is a specialized version of a **superclass**.
- Subclass **inherits all of the instance variables** and methods defined by the superclass and adds its own, unique elements.
- To inherit a class, we have to use **extends** keyword along with subclass definition.

```
class superclass
{ //statements.....}
class subclass extends superclass
{ //statements.....}
```

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```
// A simple example of inheritance.
class A
{
    int i, j;
    void showij()
    {
        System.out.println("i and j: " + i + " " + j);
    }
}
class B extends A {
int k;
void showk() {
    System.out.println("k: " + k);
}
void sum() {
    System.out.println("i+j+k: " + (i+j+k));
}
}
```

Here A is the superclass of B



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```

class A
{
    int i, j;
    void showij()
    {
        System.out.println(i + " " + j);
    }
}
class B extends A
{
    int k;
    void showk() {
        System.out.println("k: " + k);
    }
    void sum() {
        System.out.println("sum " + (i+j+k));
    }
}

```

```

class SimpleInheritance
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        A superOb = new A();
        B subOb = new B();
        superOb.i = 10;
        superOb.j = 20;
        System.out.println("Superobj Contents ");
        superOb.showij();
        subOb.i = 7;
        subOb.j = 8;
        subOb.k = 9;
        System.out.println("subOb contents ");
        subOb.showij();
        subOb.showk();
        System.out.println("Sum in subOb:");
        subOb.sum(); } }

```

**Superobj
Contents**
10 20
subOb contents
7 8
k: 9
Sum in subOb:24

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Member Access and Inheritance

- Subclass cannot access the **private** members in superclass.

```

class A {
    int i; // public by default
    private int j; // private to A
    void setj(int x) { j = x; }
}
class B extends A {
    int total;
    void sum() {
        total = i + j; // ERROR, j(private) is not accessible here
    }
}

```

*A class member that has been declared as **private** will remain private to its class. It is **not accessible** by any code outside its class, including subclasses.*

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- A major advantage of inheritance is that **once you have created a superclass** that defines the attributes **common** to a set of objects, it can be used to **create any number of more specific subclasses**.
- Each subclass can have its own special features also.
- You can **only specify one superclass for any subclass** that you create.
- Java does not support the **inheritance of multiple superclasses** into a single subclass.
- You can, as stated, create a hierarchy of inheritance in which a subclass becomes a superclass of another subclass.
- However, no class can be a superclass of itself.

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A Superclass Variable Can Reference a Subclass Object

- A **reference variable of a superclass** can be assigned a reference to any subclass derived from that superclass.

```
class A
{
}
class B extends A
{
}
class Sample
{
    A oba=new A();
    B obb=new B();
    oba=obb;
}
```

Superclassobject=subclassobject

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```

class Parent
{
    int a,b;
    void area()
    { System.out.println("Product="+ a*b);
    }
}
class Sub extends Parent
{ int i;
  Sub(int x,int y,int z)
  {
      a=x;
      b=y;
      i=z;
  }
}
  
```

```

class InhRefsub{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        Parent pob=new Parent();
        pob.area();
        Sub subob=new Sub(10,20,30);
        pob=subob;
        pob.area();
        //System.out.println("i="+ pob.i);//ERROR
    }
}
  
```

OUTPUT
Product=0
Product=200

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Using super

- Whenever a subclass needs to refer to its **immediate superclass**, it can be done using the keyword **super**.
- **super** has two general forms.
 1. To call the superclass' constructor.
 2. To access a member of the superclass that has been hidden by a member of a subclass.

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Using super to Call Superclass Constructors

- A subclass can call a constructor defined by its superclass by use of the following form of super:
`super(arg-list);`
- Here, arg-list specifies any arguments needed by the constructor in the superclass.
- `super()` must always be the first statement executed inside a subclass' constructor.

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```

class Parent
{ Parent()
{
System.out.println("Superclass");
}
}
class Sub extends Parent
{
Sub()
{
super();
System.out.println("Subclass");
}
}

```

```

class SupersubDemo{
public static void main(String args[])
{
Sub subob=new Sub();
}
}

```

OUTPUT
Superclass
Subclass

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super keyword to access member

- super always refers to the superclass of the subclass in which it is used.
- To access the member in superclass from subclass `super.member`
 - Here member can be either a method or an instance variable.
- If subclass contains same variable as superclass, then in subclass, the superclass member will be hidden by corresponding subclass member.
 - This can be prevented using `super` keyword

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```

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

```

```

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

```

OUTPUT
 i in superclass: 1
 i in subclass: 2

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Creating multiple hierarchy

```

class A
{ int x;
  A(int p)
  { System.out.println("Superclass A ");
    x=p;  }
}
class B extends A
{ int y;
  B(int p,int q)
  {
    super(p);
    System.out.println("B Subclass of A");
    y=q;
  }
}

```

Superclass A
B Subclass of A
C Subclass of A
x=10
y=20
z=10

```

class C extends B
{ int z;
  C(int p,int q,int r){
    super(p,q);
    System.out.println("C Subclass of A");
    z=r;
  }
}
class Multipleinh{
  public static void main(String args[])
  {
    C ob=new C(10,20,30);
    System.out.println("x="+ob.x);
    System.out.println("y="+ob.y);
    System.out.println("z="+ob.z);
  }
}

```

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- Inheritance –
 - Super Class,
 - Sub Class,
 - The Keyword **super**,
 - **protected Members**,
 - Calling Order of Constructors,
 - Method Overriding,
 - the **Object class**,
 - Abstract Classes and Methods,
 - Using **final** with Inheritance.

Protected members

- Protected members are declared by prefixing the access specifier **protected**.
protected datatype member;
- The protected member in a class can be accessed by
 - any class within the same package.
 - direct sub-classes in other package also.

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- If you want to allow an element(member) to be seen outside your current package, but **only to classes that subclass your class directly**, then declare that element (member) protected.

```
class A
{
    protected int c;//protected variable
    int a;
    private char b;
    public float f;
    protected void add()//protected method
    {
        //statements
    }
    //methods and statements
}
```

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Calling Order of Constructors

- Constructors are called in the **order of derivation**, from superclass to subclass
- When subclass object is created, it first calls superclass constructor then only it calls subclass constructor.
- If **super()** is not used to call superclass constructor, then the **default constructor of each superclass** will be executed before executing subclass constructors.

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```

class A
{ int i;
  A()
  { System.out.println("Constructor of
    superclass A");
  }
}

class B extends A
{ int j;
  B()
  { System.out.println("Constructor of
    subclass B");
  }
}

```

```

class Consorder
{
  public static void main(String args[])
  {
    B obb =new B();
  }
}

```

OUTPUT

Constructor of superclass A
Constructor of subclass B

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```

class A
{ int i;
A()
{ System.out.println("Constructor of
superclass A");}
}
class B extends A
{ int j;
B()
{
System.out.println("Constructor of
subclass B");}
}

```

```

class C extends B
{ int j;
C()
{ System.out.println("Constructor of
subclass C");}
}
class Consorder
{ public static void main(String args[])
{ C obc =new C(); }
}

```

OUTPUT
Constructor of superclass A
Constructor of subclass B
Constructor of subclass C

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- Superclass has no knowledge of any subclass, any initialization it needs to perform is separate and it should be done as a prerequisite to initialize the subclass object.
- Therefore, superclass constructors are executed before executing subclass constructors, when we create subclass object.

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Method Overriding

- In a class hierarchy, when a **method in a subclass** has the **same name and type signature** as a **method in its superclass**, then the method in the subclass is said to **override** the method in the superclass.
- This is called **METHOD OVERRIDING**
- When an overridden method is called from **within a subclass**, it will always **refer** to the method defined by the **subclass**.
 - The version of the method defined by the **superclass** will be **hidden**.

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// Method overriding.

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

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

OUTPUT
k: 3

When **show()** is invoked on an object of type B, the version of **show()** **defined within B is used**. That is, the version of **show()** inside subclass **B** overrides the version declared in **superclass A**.

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

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

OUTPUT
i: 1 j: 2

Here when **show()** is invoked on an object of type B, since the version of **show()** is not defined within **B** the version of show() declared in superclass **A** is called and executed.

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- To access the **superclass** version of an overridden method, we can do using **super keyword**.

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

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

OUTPUT
i:1 j:2
k: 3

When **show()** is invoked on an object of type B, the version of **show()** defined within **B** is used..

super.show() calls the show() method in its superclas.

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- Method overriding occurs **only when the names and the type signatures** of the methods in subclass and superclass are **identical**.
- If names and the type signatures of the two methods are **different**, then the two methods are simply **overloaded**.

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```

class A {
    int i, j;
    A()
    { i = 0;
        j = 0; }
    void show()
    { System.out.println("show in A"); }
}
class B extends A {
    int k;
    B()
    { k = 0; }
    void show(String msg)
    { System.out.println("show in subclass B"); }
}

```

```

class Sample {
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        B subOb = new B();
        subOb.show("k is "); // this calls show() in B
        subOb.show(); // this calls show() in A
    }
}

```

OUTPUT
K is show in subclass B
show in A

Here show() Methods have differing type signatures. So they are overloaded – **not overridden**

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The Object Class

- There is one special class, Object, defined by Java.
- All other classes are subclasses of Object.
- That is, Object is a **superclass** of all other classes.
- Reference variable of type Object can refer to an object of any other class.

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Methods in Object class

Method	Purpose
<code>Object clone()</code>	Creates a new object that is the same as the object being cloned.
<code>boolean equals(Object object)</code>	Determines whether one object is equal to another.
<code>void finalize()</code>	Called before an unused object is recycled.
<code>Class getClass()</code>	Obtains the class of an object at run time.
<code>int hashCode()</code>	Returns the hash code associated with the invoking object.
<code>void notify()</code>	Resumes execution of a thread waiting on the invoking object.
<code>void notifyAll()</code>	Resumes execution of all threads waiting on the invoking object.
<code>String toString()</code>	Returns a string that describes the object.
<code>void wait()</code> <code>void wait(long milliseconds)</code> <code>void wait(long milliseconds, int nanoseconds)</code>	Waits on another thread of execution.

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- The methods `getClass()`, `notify()`, `notifyAll()`, and `wait()` are declared as **final**.
- The `equals()` method compares the contents of two objects.
 - It returns true if the objects are equivalent, and false otherwise.
- The `toString()` method returns a string that contains a description of the object on which it is called.
 - This method is **automatically called when an object is output using `println()`**.
 - Many classes override this method.

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- Inheritance –
 - Super Class,
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Abstract Classes and Methods

- Sometimes we may want to create a superclass that only **defines a generalized form** that will be shared by all of its subclasses, leaving the implementation to be filled by each subclass.
- If we want some way to ensure that **a subclass should override all necessary methods** then we can make them abstract methods.
- For making a method an **abstract method** we have use **abstract type modifier**.

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- Abstract methods are also called **as subclasser responsibility** , because they have no implementation in the superclass, but the implementation should be there in subclasses by overriding.
- To declare an abstract method syntax is :
`abstract type name(parameter-list);`
- Abstract function has no body in superclass.
-

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ABSTRACT CLASS

- Any class that contains **one or more abstract methods** must also be declared **abstract**.
- Abstract class can have **non abstract methods**(concrete methods) also.
- To declare a class abstract, use the **abstract** keyword in front of the class keyword at the beginning of the class declaration.

```
abstract class classname
{
}
```

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- Abstract classes **cannot be instantiated** using new operator.
 - i.e. **Objects are not created** from abstract class.
 - Such objects would be **useless**, because an abstract class **is not fully defined**.
- There are **no abstract constructors**, or **abstract static methods**.
- Any **subclass** of an abstract class must either implement all of the abstract methods in the superclass, or it should be declared abstract class.

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```
// A Simple demonstration of abstract.
abstract class A {
    abstract void callme();
    void callmetoo() {
        System.out.println("concrete method.");
    }
}
class B extends A {
    void callme() {
        System.out.println("callme in B");
    }
}

class AbstractDemo {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        B b = new B();
        b.callme();
        b.callmetoo();
    }
}
```

Output
callme in B
concrete method.

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- Although abstract classes cannot be used to instantiate objects, they can be used to **create object references**, because Java's approach to run-time polymorphism is implemented through the use of superclass references.

```

class Triangle extends Figure {
    Triangle(double a, double b)
    { super(a, b); }
    double area()
    { System.out.println("Triangle Area");
      return dim1 * dim2 / 2; }
}
Class AbstractAreas {
    public static void main(String args[])
    { Rectangle r = new Rectangle(9, 5);
      Triangle t = new Triangle(10, 8);
      Figure figref; // no object is created
      figref = r;
      System.out.println("Area is " + figref.area());
      figref = t;
      System.out.println("Area is " + figref.area()); 42
    }
}

// Using abstract methods and classes.
abstract class Figure
{ double dim1;
  double dim2;
  Figure(double a, double b)
  { dim1 = a;
    dim2 = b; }
  abstract double area();
}

class Rectangle extends Figure
{ Rectangle(double a, double b)
  { super(a, b); }
  double area()
  { System.out.println("Rectangle Area");
    return dim1 * dim2; }
}

```

OUTPUT
 Rectangle Area
 Area is 45.0
 Triangle Area
 Area is 40.0

OUTPUT
Rectangle Area
Area is 45.0
Triangle Area
Area is 40.0

- Here all subclasses of abstract class **Figure** must override area().

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Using final with Inheritance

- Use of **final** keyword
 - final can be used to create **the equivalent of a named constant**.
E.g. **final** int TOTAL=0;
 - final helps **to prevent overriding** in inheritance
 - final helps **to prevent inheritance**.

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Using final to Prevent Overriding

- To disallow a method from being overridden, we can use **final** as a modifier at the start of its method declaration
- Methods declared as **final** **cannot be overridden** by subclass.

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```
class A {  
    final void show()  
    { System.out.println("This is a final method.");  
    }  
}  
class B extends A {  
    void show() // ERROR! Can't override.  
    { System.out.println("Illegal!");  
    }  
}
```

- Here **show()** method is declared as **final** in A. So it cannot be overridden in subclass B. If we try to override, **COMPILE ERROR** will occur in the program.

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- Methods declared as final can sometimes provide a performance enhancement:
 - The compiler is free to call them **inline** because it “knows” they will not be overridden by a subclass.
- When a small final method is called, **Java compiler can copy the bytecode for the subroutine directly inline with the compiled code of the calling method, thus eliminating the costly overhead associated with a method call.**
- Inlining is only an option with final methods.

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- Normally, Java resolves calls to **methods dynamically**, at run time. This is **late binding**.
- However, since **final methods cannot be overridden**, a call to one can be resolved at **compile time**. This is called **early binding**.

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Using final to Prevent Inheritance

- To prevent a class from being inherited it can be declared as final
- Class with **final** modifier cannot be inherited. It cannot act as superclass.
- To make a class a final class, precede the class declaration with final.
- If we declare a class as final, it implicitly declares all of its methods as **final**.
- It is illegal to declare a class as both abstract and final since an abstract class is incomplete by itself

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```
final class A {
```

```
    // ...
```

```
}
```

// The following class is illegal.

```
class B extends A { //ERROR!cannot create a subclass for final class A
```

```
    // ...
```

```
}
```

It is illegal for B to inherit A since **A is declared as final**.

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Packages and Interfaces –

- Defining Package,
- CLASSPATH,
- Access Protection,
- Importing Packages,
- Interfaces.

Package

- Packages are containers for classes.
- A package in Java is used to group related classes and interfaces.
- They are used to keep the class name space compartmentalized.
 - For example, a package allows us to create a class named List, which we can store in our own package and it will not collide with some other class named List stored elsewhere.
- Packages are stored in a hierarchical manner.
- The package is both a naming and a visibility control mechanism.

- We can **define classes inside a package**
 - that are not accessible by code outside that package. (default)

OR

- that can be also accessed by subclasses outside the package. (protected)

OR

- That can be accessed by all classes in all packages(public)

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- To create a package, simply include a **package** command as the first statement in a Java source file.
 - All classes declared in that file will belong to the specified package.
- The package statement defines **a name space** in which classes are stored.
- If we are not writing package statement, the class names are put into the **default package**, which has no name.

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Defining Package

- General form for creating a package :

`package packagename;`

- Example: If we write the following statement at the beginning of our java program then it will create a package

- eg package named Oop.

`package Oop;`

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- Java uses **file system directories** to store packages.
- Example: Any classes that we declare to be part of the **package Oop** must store their **.class files in a directory** called Oop.
- Any file can include the same package statement.
- The package statement simply specifies to which package the classes defined in a file belongs to.

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- We can create a **hierarchy of packages**.
 - Separate each package name from other using period(dot) symbol.
- General form of a multileveled package statement is :
`package pkg1.pkg2.pkg3;`
- This specifies that package pkg3 is inside package pkg2 and pkg2 package is inside pkg1.

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- E.g The package declared as
`package java.awt.image;`
 - needs to be stored in the path `java\awt\image` in a Windows environment
- We cannot rename a package without renaming the directory in which the classes are stored.

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Finding Packages and CLASSPATH

- How does the Java run-time system know where to look for packages that we create?
 1. By default, the Java run-time system uses the **current working directory** as its starting point.
 - if our package is in a subdirectory of the current directory, it will be found.
 2. We can **specify a directory path** or set paths by setting the **CLASSPATH environmental variable**.
 3. We can use the **-classpath** option with **java** and **javac** to specify the path to your classes.

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CLASSPATH

package MyPack;

- For a program to find MyPack, one of three things must be true.
 - Either the program can be executed from a directory immediately above MyPack or
 - the CLASSPATH must be set to include the path to MyPack,
 - or
 - the -classpath option must specify the path to MyPack when the program is run via **java**
- To execute the program
 - **java MyPack.programname**

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- In the case of CLASSPATH and –classpath option , the class path **must not include MyPack, itself**. It must simply specify the **path to MyPack**.
- Suppose the path of MyPack directory is
C:\MyPrograms\Java\MyPack
 - Then **the class path to MyPack is C:\MyPrograms\Java**

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Steps and examples for creating and using packages

- Create a folder pack1 inside E drive
- Create a file A.java

```
package pack1;  
public class A  
{ public static void main(String args[] )  
{ System.out.println("Hello"); }  
public void show()  
{ System.out.println("show in A"); }  
}
```

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Method 1

- Take path before pack1 folder in command prompt here it is E drive.

- Compile using

– E:\>javac pack1/A.java

- To run

E:\>java pack1/A

- Or

E:\>java pack1.A

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Method 2

- Set classpath in command prompt to path to folder before the package pack1

C:\Users\USER>**set CLASSPATH=;E:**

To compile

C:\Users\USER> **javac -cp . E:\pack1\A.java**

To run

C:\Users\USER> **java pack1.A**

Hello

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Method 3

- Using –classpath option
- Compile using

C:\Users\USER> **javac E:\pack1\A.java**

Or

C:\Users\USER> **javac -classpath . E:\pack1\A.java**

- Run using

C:\Users\USER> **java -classpath E:\ pack1.A**

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E.g using import statement

- Create a folder pack2 inside E drive
- Create a file B.java in it

```
package pack2;  
import pack1.*;  
class B{  
    public static void main(String args[]){  
        A obj = new A();  
        obj.show();  
        System.out.println("main in class B");  
    }  
}
```

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Access Protection

- Addresses four categories of visibility for class members:
 - Subclasses in the same package
 - Non-subclasses in the same package
 - Subclasses in different packages
 - Classes that are neither in the same package nor subclasses

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	Private	No Modifier	Protected	Public
Same class	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package non-subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Different package subclass	No	No	Yes	Yes
Different package non-subclass	No	No	No	Yes

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- A non-nested class has only two possible access levels:
 - default
 - public.
- When a class is declared as public, it is accessible by any other code.

```
public class A {///  
}
```

- If a class has default access, then it can only be accessed by other code within its same package.

```
class B  
{}
```

- When a class is public, it must be the only public class declared in the file, and the file must have the same name as the public class.

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Importing Packages

- All of the standard classes are stored in some named package.
- If we want to use classes in some other packages, they must be **fully qualified with their package name or names**,.
- It is difficult to type in the long dot-separated package path name for every class we want to use.
 - TO SOLVE THIS PROBLEM, we can use **import statement**.
 - The import statement helps to bring certain classes, or entire packages, into visibility.
- To use a class or a package from the library, we need to use the **import keyword**
- **import statements is written after the package statement(if exists)** and before all class definitions.

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- General form of the import statement:

```
import pkg1[pkg2].(classname|*);
```

- Here, pkg1 is the name of a top-level package, and pkg2 is the name of a subordinate package inside the package pkg1 separated by a dot
- (.) Here square bracket denotes that it is optional.

- E.g.

```
import pack1; // import the package pack1
```

```
import java.io.*; // import all the classes from the package java.io
```

```
import java.util.Date; //import the Date class from the package java.util
```

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- All of the standard Java classes included with Java are stored in a package called **java**
- The basic language functions are stored in a package inside of the java package called **java.lang**
 - it is implicitly imported by the compiler for all programs.

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```
//Using an import statement:  
import java.util.*;  
class MyDate extends Date {  
    //statements , methods,variables  
}  
  
//Without the import statement looks like this:  
class MyDate extends java.util.Date  
{  
}
```

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```
//Program A.java  
package pack1;  
public class A  
{ int a=100;  
    public int c=20;  
    protected int d=50;  
    public void msg()  
    { System.out.println("Base class A  
Hello");  
    }  
}
```



```
//Program B.java  
package pack2;  
class B{  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    { pack1.A obj = new pack1.A();  
        obj.msg();  
        System.out.println("c="+obj.c);  
        //System.out.println("d="+obj.d);  
        // cannot access protected of  
        //different package i.e. pack1  
        //System.out.println("a="+obj.a);  
        //cannot access private of other class  
    } }
```

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```
//Program A.java
package pack1;
public class A
{
    int a=100;
    public int c=20;
    protected int d=50;
    public void msg()
    { System.out.println("Base class A
        Hello"); }
}
```

```
//Program B.java
package pack2;
import pack1.*;
class B{
    public static void main(String args[])
    { A obj = new A();
        obj.msg();
        System.out.println("c="+obj.c);
        //System.out.println("d="+obj.d);
        // cannot access protected of different
        // package pack1
        //System.out.println("a="+obj.a);
        //cannot access private of other class
    } }
```

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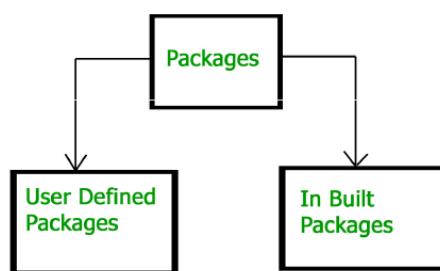
- Using import package.classname statement to import class A in pack1 to program file in pack2

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```
//Program A.java
package pack1;
public class A
{
    int a=100;
    public int c=20;
    protected int d=50;
    public void msg()
    { System.out.println("Base class A
        Hello"); }
}

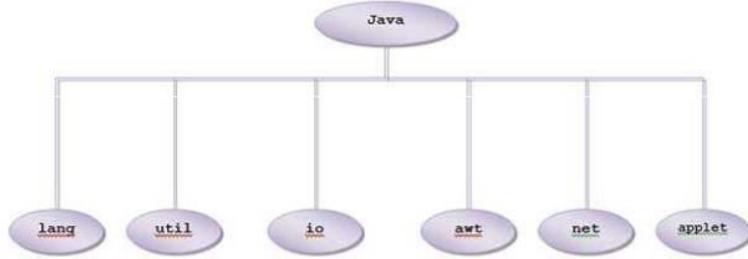
//Program B.java
package pack2;
import pack1.A;
class B{
    public static void main(String args[])
    { A obj = new A();
        obj.msg();
        System.out.println("c="+obj.c);
        //System.out.println("d="+obj.d);
        // cannot access protected of different
        package pack1
        //System.out.println("a="+obj.a);
        //cannot access private of other class
    }
}
```

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Built-in Packages



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Java Foundation Packages

- Java provides a large number of classes grouped into different packages based on their functionality.

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- The six foundation Java packages are:
 - `java.lang`
 - Contains classes for primitive types, strings, math functions, threads, and exception
 - `java.util`
 - Contains classes such as vectors, hash tables, date etc.
 - `java.io`
 - Stream classes for I/O
 - `java.awt`
 - Classes for implementing GUI – windows, buttons, menus etc.
 - `java.net`
 - Classes for networking
 - `java.applet`
 - Classes for creating and implementing applets

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Packages and Interfaces –

- Defining Package,
- CLASSPATH,
- Access Protection,
- Importing Packages,
- Interfaces.

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Interfaces

- Interface can be created using the keyword **interface**.
- Interfaces are syntactically similar to classes.
- Interface **does not** have instance variables.
- The methods in interface are **declared without any body**.
 - Interface never implements methods.
- Any number of classes can implement an interface.
- One class can **implement** any number of interfaces.
 - This helps to achieve **multiple inheritance**.

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- To **implement** an interface,
 - a class must **create and define the complete set of methods** that are declared by the interface.
- Each class can have its own **implementation** of the methods.
- By providing the **interface** keyword, Java allows you to fully utilize the “**one interface, multiple methods**” aspect of polymorphism.
- Interfaces support **dynamic method resolution at run time**.

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- General form of an interface:

```
accessspecifier interface name {  
    return-type method-name1(parameter-list);  
    return-type method-name2(parameter-list);  
    type final-varname1 = value;  
    type final-varname2 = value;  
    // ...  
    return-type method-nameN(parameter-list);  
    type final-varnameN = value;  
}
```

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- When no access specifier is included, then it has default access.
 - the interface is only available to other members of the package in which it is declared.
- The methods are declared have no bodies. They end with a semicolon after the parameter list.
- They are **abstract methods**.
- Each class that includes an interface must implement **all of the methods**.
- **Variables are implicitly final and static, meaning they cannot be changed by the implementing class.**
 - They must also be initialized.
- All methods and variables are **implicitly public**

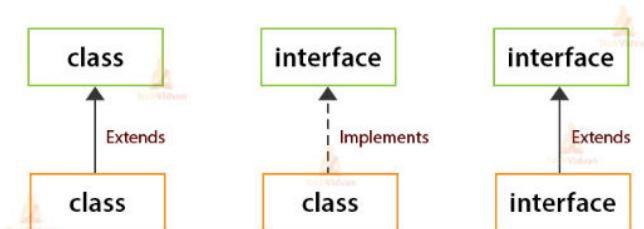
86

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

The relationship between classes and interfaces

Class	Interface
A class describes the attributes and behaviors of an object.	An interface contains behaviors that a class implements.
A class may contain abstract methods, concrete methods.	An interface contains only abstract methods.
Members of a class can be public, private, protected or default.	All the members of the interface are public by default.

Relationship between Class and Interface in Java



```
/* File name : Animal.java */
interface Animal {
    public void eat();
    public void travel();
}
```

Output

```
Mammal eats
Mammal travels
```

```
/* File name : MammalInt.java */
public class MammalInt implements Animal {

    public void eat() {
        System.out.println("Mammal eats");
    }

    public void travel() {
        System.out.println("Mammal travels");
    }

    public int noOfLegs() {
        return 0;
    }

    public static void main(String args[]) {
        MammalInt m = new MammalInt();
        m.eat();
        m.travel();
    }
}
```

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Extending Interfaces

- The **extends** keyword is used to extend an interface, and the child interface inherits the methods of the parent interface.

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```

// Filename: Sports.java
public interface Sports {
    public void setHomeTeam(String name);
    public void setVisitingTeam(String name);
}

// Filename: Football.java
public interface Football extends Sports {
    public void homeTeamScored(int points);
    public void visitingTeamScored(int points);
    public void endOfQuarter(int quarter);
}

// Filename: Hockey.java
public interface Hockey extends Sports {
    public void homeGoalScored();
    public void visitingGoalScored();
    public void endOfPeriod(int period);
    public void overtimePeriod(int ot);
}

```

- The Hockey interface has four methods, but it inherits two from Sports; thus, a class that implements Hockey needs to implement all six methods.
- Similarly, a class that implements Football needs to define the three methods from Football and the two methods from Sports.

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Variables in Interfaces

- When we include an interface in a class (using “implement” the interface), all of those **variable names** in the interface will be in scope as **constants**.
 - That is they are imported to class name space as **final** variables.

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```

import java.util.Random;

interface Interf {
    int NO = 0;
    int YES = 1;
}

class Question implements Interf {
    Random rand = new Random();

    int ask() {
        int prob = (int) (100 * rand.nextDouble());
        if (prob < 50)
            return NO; // 30%
        else
            return YES;
    }
}

```

java

```

class AskMe implements Interf {
    static void answer(int result) {
        switch(result) {
            case NO:
                System.out.println("No");
                break;
            case YES:
                System.out.println("Yes");
                break; } }
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Question q = new Question();
        answer(q.ask()); }
}

```

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Partial Implementations

- If a class includes an interface but does not fully implement the methods required by that interface, then that class must be declared as abstract.

```

interface Callback {
    void show(int param);      }

abstract class Incomplete implements Callback {
    int a, b;
    void display()
    {   System.out.println("display");
    }}

```

- Here the class Incomplete does not implement show() in the interface Callback. So the class Incomplete is abstract class

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Nested Interfaces

- An interface can be declared a member of a class or another interface. Such an interface is called a **member interface or a nested interface**.
- A nested interface can be declared as **public**, **private**, or **protected**.
- The **top level interface** must either be declared as **public** or use the **default access level**.
- If we want to use a **nested interface outside of its enclosing scope**, the nested interface must be **qualified by the name of the class or interface** of which it is a member.

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```

class A {
    //this is a nested interface
    public interface NestedIF {
    }
    boolean isNotNeg(int x);
}
class B implements A.NestedIF {
    public boolean isNotNeg (int x)
    {
        return x < 0 ? false: true;
    }
}

```

```

class NestedIFDemo {
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        A.NestedIF nif = new B();
        if(nif.isNotNeg(10))
            System.out.println("10 is not negative");
    }
}

```

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