

# **Android Studio Dolphin Essentials**

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Java Edition

Android Studio Dolphin Essentials – Java Edition

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## Table of Contents

<b>1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Downloading the Code Samples .....	1
1.2 Feedback .....	1
1.3 Errata .....	2
<b>2. Setting up an Android Studio Development Environment .....</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1 System requirements .....	3
2.2 Downloading the Android Studio package .....	3
2.3 Installing Android Studio .....	4
2.3.1 Installation on Windows .....	4
2.3.2 Installation on macOS .....	4
2.3.3 Installation on Linux .....	5
2.4 The Android Studio setup wizard .....	5
2.5 Installing additional Android SDK packages .....	6
2.6 Making the Android SDK tools command-line accessible .....	9
2.6.1 Windows 8.1 .....	9
2.6.2 Windows 10 .....	10
2.6.3 Windows 11 .....	10
2.6.4 Linux .....	10
2.6.5 macOS .....	10
2.7 Android Studio memory management .....	11
2.8 Updating Android Studio and the SDK .....	11
2.9 Summary .....	11
<b>3. Creating an Example Android App in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>13</b>
3.1 About the Project .....	13
3.2 Creating a New Android Project .....	13
3.3 Creating an Activity .....	14
3.4 Defining the Project and SDK Settings .....	14
3.5 Modifying the Example Application .....	15
3.6 Modifying the User Interface .....	16
3.7 Reviewing the Layout and Resource Files .....	21
3.8 Adding Interaction .....	24
3.9 Summary .....	25
<b>4. Creating an Android Virtual Device (AVD) in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>27</b>
4.1 About Android Virtual Devices .....	27
4.2 Starting the Emulator .....	28
4.3 Running the Application in the AVD .....	29
4.4 Running on Multiple Devices .....	31
4.5 Stopping a Running Application .....	31
4.6 Supporting Dark Theme .....	32
4.7 Running the Emulator in a Separate Window .....	33
4.8 Enabling the Device Frame .....	34

## Table of Contents

4.9 AVD Command-line Creation .....	35
4.10 Android Virtual Device Configuration Files .....	37
4.11 Moving and Renaming an Android Virtual Device .....	37
4.12 Summary .....	37
<b>5. Using and Configuring the Android Studio AVD Emulator .....</b>	<b>39</b>
5.1 The Emulator Environment .....	39
5.2 Emulator Toolbar Options .....	39
5.3 Working in Zoom Mode .....	41
5.4 Resizing the Emulator Window.....	41
5.5 Extended Control Options.....	41
5.5.1 Location .....	42
5.5.2 Displays.....	42
5.5.3 Cellular .....	42
5.5.4 Battery.....	42
5.5.5 Camera.....	42
5.5.6 Phone.....	42
5.5.7 Directional Pad.....	42
5.5.8 Microphone.....	42
5.5.9 Fingerprint .....	42
5.5.10 Virtual Sensors .....	43
5.5.11 Snapshots.....	43
5.5.12 Record and Playback .....	43
5.5.13 Google Play .....	43
5.5.14 Settings .....	43
5.5.15 Help.....	43
5.6 Working with Snapshots.....	43
5.7 Configuring Fingerprint Emulation .....	44
5.8 The Emulator in Tool Window Mode.....	45
5.9 Summary .....	46
<b>6. A Tour of the Android Studio User Interface .....</b>	<b>47</b>
6.1 The Welcome Screen .....	47
6.2 The Main Window .....	48
6.3 The Tool Windows .....	49
6.4 Android Studio Keyboard Shortcuts .....	52
6.5 Switcher and Recent Files Navigation .....	53
6.6 Changing the Android Studio Theme .....	54
6.7 Summary .....	55
<b>7. Testing Android Studio Apps on a Physical Android Device.....</b>	<b>57</b>
7.1 An Overview of the Android Debug Bridge (ADB) .....	57
7.2 Enabling USB Debugging ADB on Android Devices.....	57
7.2.1 macOS ADB Configuration .....	58
7.2.2 Windows ADB Configuration .....	59
7.2.3 Linux adb Configuration.....	60
7.3 Resolving USB Connection Issues .....	60
7.4 Enabling Wireless Debugging on Android Devices .....	61
7.5 Testing the adb Connection .....	63
7.6 Summary .....	63



<b>8. The Basics of the Android Studio Code Editor.....</b>	<b>65</b>
8.1 The Android Studio Editor.....	65
8.2 Splitting the Editor Window.....	67
8.3 Code Completion.....	68
8.4 Statement Completion.....	69
8.5 Parameter Information.....	70
8.6 Parameter Name Hints.....	70
8.7 Code Generation.....	70
8.8 Code Folding.....	71
8.9 Quick Documentation Lookup.....	72
8.10 Code Reformatting.....	73
8.11 Finding Sample Code.....	73
8.12 Live Templates.....	74
8.13 Summary.....	74
<b>9. An Overview of the Android Architecture .....</b>	<b>75</b>
9.1 The Android Software Stack.....	75
9.2 The Linux Kernel.....	76
9.3 Android Runtime – ART.....	76
9.4 Android Libraries.....	76
9.4.1 C/C++ Libraries.....	77
9.5 Application Framework.....	77
9.6 Applications.....	78
9.7 Summary.....	78
<b>10. The Anatomy of an Android Application .....</b>	<b>79</b>
10.1 Android Activities.....	79
10.2 Android Fragments.....	79
10.3 Android Intents.....	80
10.4 Broadcast Intents.....	80
10.5 Broadcast Receivers.....	80
10.6 Android Services.....	80
10.7 Content Providers.....	81
10.8 The Application Manifest.....	81
10.9 Application Resources.....	81
10.10 Application Context.....	81
10.11 Summary.....	81
<b>11. An Overview of Android View Binding.....</b>	<b>83</b>
11.1 Find View by Id.....	83
11.2 View Binding.....	83
11.3 Converting the AndroidSample project.....	84
11.4 Enabling View Binding.....	84
11.5 Using View Binding.....	84
11.6 Choosing an Option.....	85
11.7 View Binding in the Book Examples.....	86
11.8 Migrating a Project to View Binding.....	86
11.9 Summary.....	87
<b>12. Understanding Android Application and Activity Lifecycles.....</b>	<b>89</b>
12.1 Android Applications and Resource Management.....	89

## Table of Contents

12.2 Android Process States .....	89
12.2.1 Foreground Process .....	90
12.2.2 Visible Process .....	90
12.2.3 Service Process .....	90
12.2.4 Background Process.....	90
12.2.5 Empty Process .....	91
12.3 Inter-Process Dependencies .....	91
12.4 The Activity Lifecycle.....	91
12.5 The Activity Stack.....	91
12.6 Activity States .....	92
12.7 Configuration Changes .....	92
12.8 Handling State Change.....	93
12.9 Summary .....	93
<b>13. Handling Android Activity State Changes.....</b>	<b>95</b>
13.1 New vs. Old Lifecycle Techniques.....	95
13.2 The Activity and Fragment Classes.....	95
13.3 Dynamic State vs. Persistent State.....	97
13.4 The Android Lifecycle Methods .....	98
13.5 Lifetimes .....	99
13.6 Foldable Devices and Multi-Resume .....	100
13.7 Disabling Configuration Change Restarts .....	100
13.8 Lifecycle Method Limitations.....	100
13.9 Summary .....	101
<b>14. Android Activity State Changes by Example .....</b>	<b>103</b>
14.1 Creating the State Change Example Project .....	103
14.2 Designing the User Interface .....	104
14.3 Overriding the Activity Lifecycle Methods .....	104
14.4 Filtering the Logcat Panel.....	106
14.5 Running the Application.....	108
14.6 Experimenting with the Activity.....	108
14.7 Summary .....	109
<b>15. Saving and Restoring the State of an Android Activity .....</b>	<b>111</b>
15.1 Saving Dynamic State .....	111
15.2 Default Saving of User Interface State .....	111
15.3 The Bundle Class .....	112
15.4 Saving the State.....	113
15.5 Restoring the State .....	114
15.6 Testing the Application.....	114
15.7 Summary .....	114
<b>16. Understanding Android Views, View Groups and Layouts .....</b>	<b>117</b>
16.1 Designing for Different Android Devices .....	117
16.2 Views and View Groups .....	117
16.3 Android Layout Managers .....	117
16.4 The View Hierarchy .....	119
16.5 Creating User Interfaces .....	120
16.6 Summary .....	120
<b>17. A Guide to the Android Studio Layout Editor Tool .....</b>	<b>121</b>

17.1 Basic vs. Empty Activity Templates .....	121
17.2 The Android Studio Layout Editor .....	125
17.3 Design Mode.....	125
17.4 The Palette .....	126
17.5 Design Mode and Layout Views.....	127
17.6 Night Mode .....	128
17.7 Code Mode.....	128
17.8 Split Mode .....	129
17.9 Setting Attributes.....	129
17.10 Transforms .....	131
17.11 Tools Visibility Toggles.....	132
17.12 Converting Views.....	134
17.13 Displaying Sample Data .....	134
17.14 Creating a Custom Device Definition .....	135
17.15 Changing the Current Device.....	136
17.16 Layout Validation (Multi Preview) .....	136
17.17 Summary .....	137
<b>18. A Guide to the Android ConstraintLayout.....</b>	<b>139</b>
18.1 How ConstraintLayout Works.....	139
18.1.1 Constraints.....	139
18.1.2 Margins.....	140
18.1.3 Opposing Constraints.....	140
18.1.4 Constraint Bias .....	141
18.1.5 Chains.....	142
18.1.6 Chain Styles.....	142
18.2 Baseline Alignment.....	143
18.3 Configuring Widget Dimensions.....	143
18.4 Guideline Helper .....	144
18.5 Group Helper .....	144
18.6 Barrier Helper .....	144
18.7 Flow Helper .....	146
18.8 Ratios .....	147
18.9 ConstraintLayout Advantages .....	147
18.10 ConstraintLayout Availability.....	148
18.11 Summary .....	148
<b>19. A Guide to Using ConstraintLayout in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>149</b>
19.1 Design and Layout Views.....	149
19.2 Autoconnect Mode .....	150
19.3 Inference Mode.....	151
19.4 Manipulating Constraints Manually.....	151
19.5 Adding Constraints in the Inspector .....	152
19.6 Viewing Constraints in the Attributes Window.....	153
19.7 Deleting Constraints.....	154
19.8 Adjusting Constraint Bias .....	154
19.9 Understanding ConstraintLayout Margins.....	155
19.10 The Importance of Opposing Constraints and Bias .....	156
19.11 Configuring Widget Dimensions.....	158
19.12 Design Time Tools Positioning .....	159

## Table of Contents

19.13 Adding Guidelines .....	160
19.14 Adding Barriers .....	162
19.15 Adding a Group .....	163
19.16 Working with the Flow Helper .....	164
19.17 Widget Group Alignment and Distribution .....	165
19.18 Converting other Layouts to ConstraintLayout .....	166
19.19 Summary .....	166
<b>20. Working with ConstraintLayout Chains and Ratios in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>167</b>
20.1 Creating a Chain .....	167
20.2 Changing the Chain Style .....	169
20.3 Spread Inside Chain Style .....	169
20.4 Packed Chain Style .....	170
20.5 Packed Chain Style with Bias .....	170
20.6 Weighted Chain .....	170
20.7 Working with Ratios .....	171
20.8 Summary .....	173
<b>21. An Android Studio Layout Editor ConstraintLayout Tutorial .....</b>	<b>175</b>
21.1 An Android Studio Layout Editor Tool Example .....	175
21.2 Creating a New Activity .....	175
21.3 Preparing the Layout Editor Environment .....	177
21.4 Adding the Widgets to the User Interface .....	178
21.5 Adding the Constraints .....	181
21.6 Testing the Layout .....	182
21.7 Using the Layout Inspector .....	183
21.8 Summary .....	184
<b>22. Manual XML Layout Design in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>185</b>
22.1 Manually Creating an XML Layout .....	185
22.2 Manual XML vs. Visual Layout Design .....	188
22.3 Summary .....	188
<b>23. Managing Constraints using Constraint Sets .....</b>	<b>189</b>
23.1 Java Code vs. XML Layout Files .....	189
23.2 Creating Views .....	189
23.3 View Attributes .....	190
23.4 Constraint Sets .....	190
23.4.1 Establishing Connections .....	190
23.4.2 Applying Constraints to a Layout .....	190
23.4.3 Parent Constraint Connections .....	190
23.4.4 Sizing Constraints .....	191
23.4.5 Constraint Bias .....	191
23.4.6 Alignment Constraints .....	191
23.4.7 Copying and Applying Constraint Sets .....	191
23.4.8 ConstraintLayout Chains .....	191
23.4.9 Guidelines .....	192
23.4.10 Removing Constraints .....	192
23.4.11 Scaling .....	192
23.4.12 Rotation .....	193
23.5 Summary .....	193

<b>24. An Android ConstraintSet Tutorial.....</b>	<b>195</b>
24.1 Creating the Example Project in Android Studio .....	195
24.2 Adding Views to an Activity.....	195
24.3 Setting View Attributes.....	196
24.4 Creating View IDs.....	197
24.5 Configuring the Constraint Set .....	198
24.6 Adding the EditText View .....	199
24.7 Converting Density Independent Pixels (dp) to Pixels (px).....	200
24.8 Summary .....	201
<b>25. A Guide to using Apply Changes in Android Studio.....</b>	<b>203</b>
25.1 Introducing Apply Changes.....	203
25.2 Understanding Apply Changes Options .....	203
25.3 Using Apply Changes.....	204
25.4 Configuring Apply Changes Fallback Settings .....	205
25.5 An Apply Changes Tutorial.....	205
25.6 Using Apply Code Changes .....	205
25.7 Using Apply Changes and Restart Activity.....	206
25.8 Using Run App .....	206
25.9 Summary .....	206
<b>26. An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling .....</b>	<b>207</b>
26.1 Understanding Android Events.....	207
26.2 Using the android:onClick Resource.....	207
26.3 Event Listeners and Callback Methods .....	208
26.4 An Event Handling Example .....	208
26.5 Designing the User Interface .....	209
26.6 The Event Listener and Callback Method.....	210
26.7 Consuming Events .....	211
26.8 Summary .....	212
<b>27. Android Touch and Multi-touch Event Handling .....</b>	<b>213</b>
27.1 Intercepting Touch Events .....	213
27.2 The MotionEvent Object .....	213
27.3 Understanding Touch Actions.....	214
27.4 Handling Multiple Touches .....	214
27.5 An Example Multi-Touch Application .....	214
27.6 Designing the Activity User Interface .....	215
27.7 Implementing the Touch Event Listener.....	215
27.8 Running the Example Application.....	218
27.9 Summary .....	219
<b>28. Detecting Common Gestures Using the Android Gesture Detector Class .....</b>	<b>221</b>
28.1 Implementing Common Gesture Detection.....	221
28.2 Creating an Example Gesture Detection Project .....	222
28.3 Implementing the Listener Class.....	222
28.4 Creating the GestureDetectorCompat Instance.....	224
28.5 Implementing the onTouchEvent() Method.....	225
28.6 Testing the Application.....	225
28.7 Summary .....	226

<b>29. Implementing Custom Gesture and Pinch Recognition on Android .....</b>	<b>227</b>
29.1 The Android Gesture Builder Application.....	227
29.2 The GestureOverlayView Class .....	227
29.3 Detecting Gestures.....	227
29.4 Identifying Specific Gestures .....	227
29.5 Installing and Running the Gesture Builder Application .....	228
29.6 Creating a Gestures File .....	228
29.7 Creating the Example Project.....	228
29.8 Extracting the Gestures File from the SD Card .....	228
29.9 Adding the Gestures File to the Project .....	229
29.10 Designing the User Interface .....	229
29.11 Loading the Gestures File .....	230
29.12 Registering the Event Listener.....	231
29.13 Implementing the onGesturePerformed Method.....	231
29.14 Testing the Application.....	232
29.15 Configuring the GestureOverlayView.....	233
29.16 Intercepting Gestures.....	233
29.17 Detecting Pinch Gestures.....	233
29.18 A Pinch Gesture Example Project.....	234
29.19 Summary.....	236
<b>30. An Introduction to Android Fragments.....</b>	<b>237</b>
30.1 What is a Fragment? .....	237
30.2 Creating a Fragment .....	237
30.3 Adding a Fragment to an Activity using the Layout XML File.....	238
30.4 Adding and Managing Fragments in Code .....	240
30.5 Handling Fragment Events .....	241
30.6 Implementing Fragment Communication.....	242
30.7 Summary .....	243
<b>31. Using Fragments in Android Studio - An Example.....</b>	<b>245</b>
31.1 About the Example Fragment Application .....	245
31.2 Creating the Example Project.....	245
31.3 Creating the First Fragment Layout.....	245
31.4 Migrating a Fragment to View Binding .....	247
31.5 Adding the Second Fragment.....	248
31.6 Adding the Fragments to the Activity .....	249
31.7 Making the Toolbar Fragment Talk to the Activity .....	250
31.8 Making the Activity Talk to the Text Fragment .....	253
31.9 Testing the Application.....	254
31.10 Summary.....	255
<b>32. Modern Android App Architecture with Jetpack.....</b>	<b>257</b>
32.1 What is Android Jetpack? .....	257
32.2 The “Old” Architecture.....	257
32.3 Modern Android Architecture.....	257
32.4 The ViewModel Component .....	258
32.5 The LiveData Component.....	258
32.6 ViewModel Saved State.....	259
32.7 LiveData and Data Binding.....	260

32.8 Android Lifecycles .....	260
32.9 Repository Modules .....	260
32.10 Summary .....	261
<b>33. An Android Jetpack ViewModel Tutorial .....</b>	<b>263</b>
33.1 About the Project .....	263
33.2 Creating the ViewModel Example Project .....	263
33.3 Reviewing the Project .....	264
33.3.1 The Main Activity .....	264
33.3.2 The Content Fragment .....	264
33.3.3 The ViewModel .....	266
33.4 Designing the Fragment Layout .....	266
33.5 Implementing the View Model .....	267
33.6 Associating the Fragment with the View Model .....	267
33.7 Modifying the Fragment .....	268
33.8 Accessing the ViewModel Data .....	269
33.9 Testing the Project .....	270
33.10 Summary .....	270
<b>34. An Android Jetpack LiveData Tutorial .....</b>	<b>271</b>
34.1 LiveData - A Recap .....	271
34.2 Adding LiveData to the ViewModel .....	271
34.3 Implementing the Observer .....	273
34.4 Summary .....	275
<b>35. An Overview of Android Jetpack Data Binding .....</b>	<b>277</b>
35.1 An Overview of Data Binding .....	277
35.2 The Key Components of Data Binding .....	277
35.2.1 The Project Build Configuration .....	277
35.2.2 The Data Binding Layout File .....	278
35.2.3 The Layout File Data Element .....	279
35.2.4 The Binding Classes .....	280
35.2.5 Data Binding Variable Configuration .....	280
35.2.6 Binding Expressions (One-Way) .....	281
35.2.7 Binding Expressions (Two-Way) .....	282
35.2.8 Event and Listener Bindings .....	282
35.3 Summary .....	283
<b>36. An Android Jetpack Data Binding Tutorial .....</b>	<b>285</b>
36.1 Removing the Redundant Code .....	285
36.2 Enabling Data Binding .....	286
36.3 Adding the Layout Element .....	287
36.4 Adding the Data Element to Layout File .....	288
36.5 Working with the Binding Class .....	288
36.6 Assigning the ViewModel Instance to the Data Binding Variable .....	289
36.7 Adding Binding Expressions .....	290
36.8 Adding the Conversion Method .....	291
36.9 Adding a Listener Binding .....	291
36.10 Testing the App .....	291
36.11 Summary .....	292
<b>37. An Android ViewModel Saved State Tutorial .....</b>	<b>293</b>

## Table of Contents

37.1 Understanding ViewModel State Saving.....	293
37.2 Implementing ViewModel State Saving .....	293
37.3 Saving and Restoring State.....	295
37.4 Adding Saved State Support to the ViewModelDemo Project.....	295
37.5 Summary .....	297
<b>38. Working with Android Lifecycle-Aware Components .....</b>	<b>299</b>
38.1 Lifecycle Awareness .....	299
38.2 Lifecycle Owners .....	299
38.3 Lifecycle Observers .....	300
38.4 Lifecycle States and Events.....	301
38.5 Summary .....	302
<b>39. An Android Jetpack Lifecycle Awareness Tutorial .....</b>	<b>303</b>
39.1 Creating the Example Lifecycle Project.....	303
39.2 Creating a Lifecycle Observer.....	303
39.3 Adding the Observer .....	305
39.4 Testing the Observer.....	305
39.5 Creating a Lifecycle Owner.....	305
39.6 Testing the Custom Lifecycle Owner.....	307
39.7 Summary .....	308
<b>40. An Overview of the Navigation Architecture Component.....</b>	<b>309</b>
40.1 Understanding Navigation .....	309
40.2 Declaring a Navigation Host.....	310
40.3 The Navigation Graph .....	312
40.4 Accessing the Navigation Controller .....	313
40.5 Triggering a Navigation Action .....	313
40.6 Passing Arguments.....	314
40.7 Summary .....	314
<b>41. An Android Jetpack Navigation Component Tutorial .....</b>	<b>315</b>
41.1 Creating the NavigationDemo Project.....	315
41.2 Adding Navigation to the Build Configuration.....	315
41.3 Creating the Navigation Graph Resource File.....	316
41.4 Declaring a Navigation Host.....	317
41.5 Adding Navigation Destinations.....	318
41.6 Designing the Destination Fragment Layouts.....	320
41.7 Adding an Action to the Navigation Graph.....	321
41.8 Implement the OnFragmentInteractionListener .....	322
41.9 Adding View Binding Support to the Destination Fragments .....	323
41.10 Triggering the Action .....	324
41.11 Passing Data Using Safeargs .....	325
41.12 Summary .....	328
<b>42. An Introduction to MotionLayout.....</b>	<b>329</b>
42.1 An Overview of MotionLayout .....	329
42.2 MotionLayout .....	329
42.3 MotionScene .....	329
42.4 Configuring ConstraintSets.....	330
42.5 Custom Attributes.....	331



42.6 Triggering an Animation.....	332
42.7 Arc Motion.....	334
42.8 Keyframes.....	334
42.8.1 Attribute Keyframes.....	334
42.8.2 Position Keyframes .....	335
42.9 Time Linearity .....	338
42.10 KeyTrigger.....	338
42.11 Cycle and Time Cycle Keyframes .....	339
42.12 Starting an Animation from Code.....	339
42.13 Summary .....	340
<b>43. An Android MotionLayout Editor.....</b>	<b>341</b>
43.1 Creating the MotionLayoutDemo Project .....	341
43.2 ConstraintLayout to MotionLayout Conversion .....	341
43.3 Configuring Start and End Constraints .....	343
43.4 Previewing the MotionLayout Animation.....	345
43.5 Adding an OnClick Gesture .....	346
43.6 Adding an Attribute Keyframe to the Transition.....	347
43.7 Adding a CustomAttribute to a Transition.....	350
43.8 Adding Position Keyframes .....	351
43.9 Summary .....	354
<b>44. A MotionLayout KeyCycle Tutorial .....</b>	<b>355</b>
44.1 An Overview of Cycle Keyframes .....	355
44.2 Using the Cycle Editor.....	359
44.3 Creating the KeyCycleDemo Project.....	360
44.4 Configuring the Start and End Constraints.....	360
44.5 Creating the Cycles .....	362
44.6 Previewing the Animation .....	364
44.7 Adding the KeyFrameSet to the MotionScene .....	364
44.8 Summary .....	366
<b>45. Working with the Floating Action Button and Snackbar .....</b>	<b>367</b>
45.1 The Material Design.....	367
45.2 The Design Library .....	367
45.3 The Floating Action Button (FAB) .....	367
45.4 The Snackbar.....	368
45.5 Creating the Example Project.....	369
45.6 Reviewing the Project.....	369
45.7 Removing Navigation Features.....	370
45.8 Changing the Floating Action Button .....	371
45.9 Adding an Action to the Snackbar.....	372
45.10 Summary .....	372
<b>46. Creating a Tabbed Interface using the TabLayout Component .....</b>	<b>375</b>
46.1 An Introduction to the ViewPager2 .....	375
46.2 An Overview of the TabLayout Component .....	375
46.3 Creating the TabLayoutDemo Project.....	376
46.4 Creating the First Fragment.....	377
46.5 Duplicating the Fragments.....	378
46.6 Adding the TabLayout and ViewPager2.....	379

## Table of Contents

46.7 Creating the Pager Adapter.....	380
46.8 Performing the Initialization Tasks.....	381
46.9 Testing the Application.....	383
46.10 Customizing the TabLayout.....	383
46.11 Summary.....	385
<b>47. Working with the RecyclerView and CardView Widgets.....</b>	<b>387</b>
47.1 An Overview of the RecyclerView.....	387
47.2 An Overview of the CardView.....	389
47.3 Summary.....	390
<b>48. An Android RecyclerView and CardView Tutorial.....</b>	<b>391</b>
48.1 Creating the CardDemo Project.....	391
48.2 Modifying the Basic Activity Project.....	391
48.3 Designing the CardView Layout.....	392
48.4 Adding the RecyclerView.....	393
48.5 Adding the Image Files.....	393
48.6 Creating the RecyclerView Adapter.....	394
48.7 Initializing the RecyclerView Component.....	396
48.8 Testing the Application.....	397
48.9 Responding to Card Selections.....	397
48.10 Summary.....	399
<b>49. A Layout Editor Sample Data Tutorial.....</b>	<b>401</b>
49.1 Adding Sample Data to a Project.....	401
49.2 Using Custom Sample Data.....	405
49.3 Summary.....	408
<b>50. Working with the AppBar and Collapsing Toolbar Layouts.....</b>	<b>409</b>
50.1 The Anatomy of an AppBar.....	409
50.2 The Example Project.....	410
50.3 Coordinating the RecyclerView and Toolbar.....	410
50.4 Introducing the Collapsing Toolbar Layout.....	412
50.5 Changing the Title and Scrim Color.....	415
50.6 Summary.....	416
<b>51. An Android Studio Primary/Detail Flow Tutorial.....</b>	<b>417</b>
51.1 The Primary/Detail Flow.....	417
51.2 Creating a Primary/Detail Flow Activity.....	418
51.3 Modifying the Primary/Detail Flow Template.....	418
51.4 Changing the Content Model.....	419
51.5 Changing the Detail Pane.....	420
51.6 Modifying the ItemDetailFragment Class.....	421
51.7 Modifying the ItemListFragment Class.....	423
51.8 Adding Manifest Permissions.....	423
51.9 Running the Application.....	423
51.10 Summary.....	424
<b>52. An Overview of Android Intents.....</b>	<b>425</b>
52.1 An Overview of Intents.....	425
52.2 Explicit Intents.....	425
52.3 Returning Data from an Activity.....	426

52.4 Implicit Intents .....	427
52.5 Using Intent Filters.....	428
52.6 Automatic Link Verification .....	429
52.7 Manually Enabling Links .....	431
52.8 Checking Intent Availability .....	433
52.9 Summary .....	433
<b>53. Android Explicit Intents – A Worked Example .....</b>	<b>435</b>
53.1 Creating the Explicit Intent Example Application.....	435
53.2 Designing the User Interface Layout for MainActivity.....	435
53.3 Creating the Second Activity Class.....	436
53.4 Designing the User Interface Layout for SecondActivity .....	437
53.5 Reviewing the Application Manifest File .....	437
53.6 Creating the Intent.....	438
53.7 Extracting Intent Data .....	439
53.8 Launching SecondActivity as a Sub-Activity.....	440
53.9 Returning Data from a Sub-Activity.....	441
53.10 Testing the Application.....	441
53.11 Summary .....	441
<b>54. Android Implicit Intents – A Worked Example .....</b>	<b>443</b>
54.1 Creating the Android Studio Implicit Intent Example Project .....	443
54.2 Designing the User Interface .....	443
54.3 Creating the Implicit Intent .....	444
54.4 Adding a Second Matching Activity.....	445
54.5 Adding the Web View to the UI.....	445
54.6 Obtaining the Intent URL .....	446
54.7 Modifying the MyWebView Project Manifest File .....	447
54.8 Installing the MyWebView Package on a Device.....	448
54.9 Testing the Application.....	449
54.10 Manually Enabling the Link .....	449
54.11 Automatic Link Verification .....	451
54.12 Summary .....	453
<b>55. Android Broadcast Intents and Broadcast Receivers .....</b>	<b>455</b>
55.1 An Overview of Broadcast Intents.....	455
55.2 An Overview of Broadcast Receivers .....	456
55.3 Obtaining Results from a Broadcast.....	457
55.4 Sticky Broadcast Intents .....	457
55.5 The Broadcast Intent Example.....	458
55.6 Creating the Example Application.....	458
55.7 Creating and Sending the Broadcast Intent.....	458
55.8 Creating the Broadcast Receiver .....	459
55.9 Registering the Broadcast Receiver.....	460
55.10 Testing the Broadcast Example .....	461
55.11 Listening for System Broadcasts.....	461
55.12 Summary .....	462
<b>56. Android Local Bound Services – A Worked Example.....</b>	<b>463</b>
56.1 Understanding Bound Services.....	463
56.2 Bound Service Interaction Options .....	463

## Table of Contents

56.3 A Local Bound Service Example.....	463
56.4 Adding a Bound Service to the Project .....	464
56.5 Implementing the Binder .....	464
56.6 Binding the Client to the Service .....	467
56.7 Completing the Example.....	468
56.8 Testing the Application.....	469
56.9 Summary .....	469
<b>57. Android Remote Bound Services – A Worked Example .....</b>	<b>473</b>
57.1 Client to Remote Service Communication.....	473
57.2 Creating the Example Application.....	473
57.3 Designing the User Interface .....	473
57.4 Implementing the Remote Bound Service.....	474
57.5 Configuring a Remote Service in the Manifest File.....	475
57.6 Launching and Binding to the Remote Service.....	476
57.7 Sending a Message to the Remote Service .....	477
57.8 Summary .....	478
<b>58. A Basic Overview of Java Threads, Handlers and Executors.....</b>	<b>479</b>
58.1 The Application Main Thread.....	479
58.2 Thread Handlers.....	479
58.3 A Threading Example .....	479
58.4 Building the App .....	480
58.5 Creating a New Thread.....	481
58.6 Implementing a Thread Handler.....	482
58.7 Passing a Message to the Handler .....	483
58.8 Java Executor Concurrency .....	484
58.9 Working with Runnable Tasks.....	485
58.10 Shutting down an Executor Service.....	486
58.11 Working with Callable Tasks and Futures .....	486
58.12 Handling a Future Result .....	488
58.13 Scheduling Tasks .....	489
58.14 Summary .....	490
<b>59. An Android Notifications Tutorial .....</b>	<b>491</b>
59.1 An Overview of Notifications.....	491
59.2 Creating the NotifyDemo Project.....	493
59.3 Designing the User Interface .....	493
59.4 Creating the Second Activity .....	493
59.5 Creating a Notification Channel .....	494
59.6 Creating and Issuing a Notification .....	496
59.7 Launching an Activity from a Notification.....	498
59.8 Adding Actions to a Notification .....	500
59.9 Bundled Notifications.....	500
59.10 Summary .....	502
<b>60. An Android Direct Reply Notification Tutorial .....</b>	<b>505</b>
60.1 Creating the DirectReply Project .....	505
60.2 Designing the User Interface .....	505
60.3 Creating the Notification Channel.....	506
60.4 Building the RemoteInput Object.....	507

60.5 Creating the PendingIntent.....	508
60.6 Creating the Reply Action.....	508
60.7 Receiving Direct Reply Input.....	511
60.8 Updating the Notification .....	512
60.9 Summary .....	513
<b>61. Foldable Devices and Multi-Window Support .....</b>	<b>515</b>
61.1 Foldables and Multi-Window Support.....	515
61.2 Using a Foldable Emulator.....	516
61.3 Entering Multi-Window Mode .....	517
61.4 Enabling and using Freeform Support .....	518
61.5 Checking for Freeform Support .....	518
61.6 Enabling Multi-Window Support in an App.....	518
61.7 Specifying Multi-Window Attributes .....	519
61.8 Detecting Multi-Window Mode in an Activity.....	520
61.9 Receiving Multi-Window Notifications .....	520
61.10 Launching an Activity in Multi-Window Mode .....	521
61.11 Configuring Freeform Activity Size and Position.....	521
61.12 Summary .....	522
<b>62. An Overview of Android SQLite Databases .....</b>	<b>523</b>
62.1 Understanding Database Tables .....	523
62.2 Introducing Database Schema .....	523
62.3 Columns and Data Types .....	523
62.4 Database Rows .....	524
62.5 Introducing Primary Keys .....	524
62.6 What is SQLite? .....	524
62.7 Structured Query Language (SQL).....	524
62.8 Trying SQLite on an Android Virtual Device (AVD) .....	525
62.9 The Android Room Persistence Library.....	527
62.10 Summary .....	527
<b>63. The Android Room Persistence Library .....</b>	<b>529</b>
63.1 Revisiting Modern App Architecture .....	529
63.2 Key Elements of Room Database Persistence.....	529
63.2.1 Repository .....	530
63.2.2 Room Database .....	530
63.2.3 Data Access Object (DAO) .....	530
63.2.4 Entities.....	530
63.2.5 SQLite Database .....	530
63.3 Understanding Entities.....	531
63.4 Data Access Objects.....	534
63.5 The Room Database .....	535
63.6 The Repository.....	536
63.7 In-Memory Databases.....	537
63.8 Database Inspector.....	537
63.9 Summary .....	537
<b>64. An Android TableLayout and TableRow Tutorial .....</b>	<b>539</b>
64.1 The TableLayout and TableRow Layout Views.....	539
64.2 Creating the Room Database Project .....	540

64.3 Converting to a LinearLayout.....	540
64.4 Adding the TableLayout to the User Interface.....	541
64.5 Configuring the TableRows .....	542
64.6 Adding the Button Bar to the Layout .....	543
64.7 Adding the RecyclerView.....	544
64.8 Adjusting the Layout Margins .....	545
64.9 Summary .....	545
<b>65. An Android Room Database and Repository Tutorial.....</b>	<b>547</b>
65.1 About the RoomDemo Project.....	547
65.2 Modifying the Build Configuration.....	547
65.3 Building the Entity .....	548
65.4 Creating the Data Access Object.....	549
65.5 Adding the Room Database.....	550
65.6 Adding the Repository .....	551
65.7 Modifying the ViewModel.....	554
65.8 Creating the Product Item Layout .....	555
65.9 Adding the RecyclerView Adapter.....	555
65.10 Preparing the Main Fragment .....	557
65.11 Adding the Button Listeners.....	558
65.12 Adding LiveData Observers .....	559
65.13 Initializing the RecyclerView.....	560
65.14 Testing the RoomDemo App.....	560
65.15 Using the Database Inspector.....	561
65.16 Summary .....	561
<b>66. Accessing Cloud Storage using the Android Storage Access Framework.....</b>	<b>563</b>
66.1 The Storage Access Framework.....	563
66.2 Working with the Storage Access Framework.....	564
66.3 Filtering Picker File Listings .....	564
66.4 Handling Intent Results.....	565
66.5 Reading the Content of a File .....	565
66.6 Writing Content to a File .....	566
66.7 Deleting a File.....	567
66.8 Gaining Persistent Access to a File.....	567
66.9 Summary .....	567
<b>67. An Android Storage Access Framework Example .....</b>	<b>569</b>
67.1 About the Storage Access Framework Example.....	569
67.2 Creating the Storage Access Framework Example.....	569
67.3 Designing the User Interface .....	569
67.4 Adding the Activity Launchers.....	570
67.5 Creating a New Storage File.....	571
67.6 Saving to a Storage File.....	574
67.7 Opening and Reading a Storage File .....	575
67.8 Testing the Storage Access Application .....	576
67.9 Summary .....	577
<b>68. Video Playback on Android using the VideoView and MediaController Classes.....</b>	<b>579</b>
68.1 Introducing the Android VideoView Class .....	579
68.2 Introducing the Android MediaController Class .....	580

68.3 Creating the Video Playback Example .....	580
68.4 Designing the VideoPlayer Layout .....	580
68.5 Downloading the Video File.....	581
68.6 Configuring the VideoView.....	581
68.7 Adding the MediaController to the Video View.....	583
68.8 Setting up the onPreparedListener .....	583
68.9 Summary .....	584
<b>69. Android Picture-in-Picture Mode.....</b>	<b>585</b>
69.1 Picture-in-Picture Features.....	585
69.2 Enabling Picture-in-Picture Mode.....	586
69.3 Configuring Picture-in-Picture Parameters .....	586
69.4 Entering Picture-in-Picture Mode .....	587
69.5 Detecting Picture-in-Picture Mode Changes .....	587
69.6 Adding Picture-in-Picture Actions.....	588
69.7 Summary .....	588
<b>70. An Android Picture-in-Picture Tutorial.....</b>	<b>591</b>
70.1 Adding Picture-in-Picture Support to the Manifest.....	591
70.2 Adding a Picture-in-Picture Button .....	591
70.3 Entering Picture-in-Picture Mode .....	591
70.4 Detecting Picture-in-Picture Mode Changes .....	593
70.5 Adding a Broadcast Receiver .....	594
70.6 Adding the PiP Action.....	595
70.7 Testing the Picture-in-Picture Action .....	597
70.8 Summary .....	598
<b>71. Making Runtime Permission Requests in Android.....</b>	<b>599</b>
71.1 Understanding Normal and Dangerous Permissions.....	599
71.2 Creating the Permissions Example Project.....	601
71.3 Checking for a Permission .....	601
71.4 Requesting Permission at Runtime.....	603
71.5 Providing a Rationale for the Permission Request .....	604
71.6 Testing the Permissions App.....	606
71.7 Summary .....	606
<b>72. Android Audio Recording and Playback using MediaPlayer and MediaRecorder .....</b>	<b>607</b>
72.1 Playing Audio .....	607
72.2 Recording Audio and Video using the MediaRecorder Class.....	608
72.3 About the Example Project .....	609
72.4 Creating the AudioApp Project.....	609
72.5 Designing the User Interface .....	609
72.6 Checking for Microphone Availability.....	610
72.7 Initializing the Activity.....	611
72.8 Implementing the recordAudio() Method.....	612
72.9 Implementing the stopAudio() Method.....	612
72.10 Implementing the playAudio() method.....	613
72.11 Configuring and Requesting Permissions .....	613
72.12 Testing the Application.....	615
72.13 Summary .....	616
<b>73. Working with the Google Maps Android API in Android Studio .....</b>	<b>617</b>

## Table of Contents

73.1 The Elements of the Google Maps Android API .....	617
73.2 Creating the Google Maps Project.....	618
73.3 Obtaining Your Developer Signature .....	618
73.4 Adding the Apache HTTP Legacy Library Requirement .....	619
73.5 Testing the Application.....	619
73.6 Understanding Geocoding and Reverse Geocoding .....	620
73.7 Adding a Map to an Application.....	622
73.8 Requesting Current Location Permission.....	622
73.9 Displaying the User's Current Location .....	623
73.10 Changing the Map Type.....	625
73.11 Displaying Map Controls to the User.....	625
73.12 Handling Map Gesture Interaction.....	626
73.12.1 Map Zooming Gestures.....	626
73.12.2 Map Scrolling/Panning Gestures .....	626
73.12.3 Map Tilt Gestures.....	627
73.12.4 Map Rotation Gestures.....	627
73.13 Creating Map Markers.....	627
73.14 Controlling the Map Camera .....	628
73.15 Summary.....	629
<b>74. Printing with the Android Printing Framework .....</b>	<b>631</b>
74.1 The Android Printing Architecture .....	631
74.2 The Print Service Plugins .....	631
74.3 Google Cloud Print.....	632
74.4 Printing to Google Drive.....	632
74.5 Save as PDF .....	633
74.6 Printing from Android Devices .....	633
74.7 Options for Building Print Support into Android Apps.....	634
74.7.1 Image Printing.....	634
74.7.2 Creating and Printing HTML Content .....	635
74.7.3 Printing a Web Page.....	636
74.7.4 Printing a Custom Document .....	637
74.8 Summary .....	637
<b>75. An Android HTML and Web Content Printing Example .....</b>	<b>639</b>
75.1 Creating the HTML Printing Example Application .....	639
75.2 Printing Dynamic HTML Content .....	639
75.3 Creating the Web Page Printing Example.....	642
75.4 Removing the Floating Action Button .....	642
75.5 Removing Navigation Features.....	642
75.6 Designing the User Interface Layout .....	644
75.7 Accessing the WebView from the Main Activity .....	644
75.8 Loading the Web Page into the WebView.....	645
75.9 Adding the Print Menu Option.....	646
75.10 Summary.....	647
<b>76. A Guide to Android Custom Document Printing.....</b>	<b>649</b>
76.1 An Overview of Android Custom Document Printing .....	649
76.1.1 Custom Print Adapters.....	649
76.2 Preparing the Custom Document Printing Project.....	650
76.3 Creating the Custom Print Adapter.....	651



76.4 Implementing the onLayout() Callback Method .....	652
76.5 Implementing the onWrite() Callback Method .....	655
76.6 Checking a Page is in Range .....	657
76.7 Drawing the Content on the Page Canvas .....	658
76.8 Starting the Print Job .....	660
76.9 Testing the Application.....	661
76.10 Summary .....	661
<b>77. An Introduction to Android App Links.....</b>	<b>663</b>
77.1 An Overview of Android App Links .....	663
77.2 App Link Intent Filters .....	663
77.3 Handling App Link Intents.....	664
77.4 Associating the App with a Website.....	664
77.5 Summary .....	665
<b>78. An Android Studio App Links Tutorial .....</b>	<b>667</b>
78.1 About the Example App .....	667
78.2 The Database Schema .....	667
78.3 Loading and Running the Project.....	668
78.4 Adding the URL Mapping.....	669
78.5 Adding the Intent Filter.....	672
78.6 Adding Intent Handling Code.....	672
78.7 Testing the App.....	675
78.8 Creating the Digital Asset Links File .....	675
78.9 Testing the App Link.....	676
78.10 Summary .....	676
<b>79. An Android Biometric Authentication Tutorial.....</b>	<b>677</b>
79.1 An Overview of Biometric Authentication.....	677
79.2 Creating the Biometric Authentication Project .....	677
79.3 Configuring Device Fingerprint Authentication .....	678
79.4 Adding the Biometric Permission to the Manifest File.....	678
79.5 Designing the User Interface .....	679
79.6 Adding a Toast Convenience Method .....	679
79.7 Checking the Security Settings.....	680
79.8 Configuring the Authentication Callbacks.....	681
79.9 Adding the CancellationSignal.....	682
79.10 Starting the Biometric Prompt .....	682
79.11 Testing the Project.....	683
79.12 Summary .....	684
<b>80. Creating, Testing and Uploading an Android App Bundle.....</b>	<b>685</b>
80.1 The Release Preparation Process .....	685
80.2 Android App Bundles.....	685
80.3 Register for a Google Play Developer Console Account.....	686
80.4 Configuring the App in the Console .....	687
80.5 Enabling Google Play App Signing.....	688
80.6 Creating a Keystore File .....	688
80.7 Creating the Android App Bundle.....	690
80.8 Generating Test APK Files .....	691
80.9 Uploading the App Bundle to the Google Play Developer Console.....	692

80.10 Exploring the App Bundle .....	693
80.11 Managing Testers .....	694
80.12 Rolling the App Out for Testing.....	694
80.13 Uploading New App Bundle Revisions.....	695
80.14 Analyzing the App Bundle File .....	696
80.15 Summary .....	696
<b>81. An Overview of Android In-App Billing .....</b>	<b>699</b>
81.1 Preparing a Project for In-App Purchasing.....	699
81.2 Creating In-App Products and Subscriptions .....	699
81.3 Billing Client Initialization.....	700
81.4 Connecting to the Google Play Billing Library.....	701
81.5 Querying Available Products.....	702
81.6 Starting the Purchase Process.....	702
81.7 Completing the Purchase .....	703
81.8 Querying Previous Purchases.....	704
81.9 Summary .....	705
<b>82. An Android In-App Purchasing Tutorial .....</b>	<b>707</b>
82.1 About the In-App Purchasing Example Project.....	707
82.2 Creating the InAppPurchase Project .....	707
82.3 Adding Libraries to the Project .....	707
82.4 Designing the User Interface .....	708
82.5 Adding the App to the Google Play Store .....	708
82.6 Creating an In-App Product .....	709
82.7 Enabling License Testers .....	709
82.8 Initializing the Billing Client .....	710
82.9 Querying the Product.....	712
82.10 Launching the Purchase Flow .....	713
82.11 Handling Purchase Updates .....	713
82.12 Consuming the Product .....	714
82.13 Restoring a Previous Purchase .....	715
82.14 Testing the App.....	716
82.15 Troubleshooting .....	717
82.16 Summary .....	717
<b>83. An Overview of Android Dynamic Feature Modules.....</b>	<b>719</b>
83.1 An Overview of Dynamic Feature Modules.....	719
83.2 Dynamic Feature Module Architecture .....	719
83.3 Creating a Dynamic Feature Module .....	720
83.4 Converting an Existing Module for Dynamic Delivery.....	722
83.5 Working with Dynamic Feature Modules.....	725
83.6 Handling Large Dynamic Feature Modules .....	727
83.7 Summary .....	728
<b>84. An Android Studio Dynamic Feature Tutorial.....</b>	<b>729</b>
84.1 Creating the DynamicFeature Project.....	729
84.2 Adding Dynamic Feature Support to the Project .....	729
84.3 Designing the Base Activity User Interface .....	730
84.4 Adding the Dynamic Feature Module.....	731
84.5 Reviewing the Dynamic Feature Module.....	732

84.6 Adding the Dynamic Feature Activity.....	733
84.7 Implementing the <code>launchIntent()</code> Method.....	736
84.8 Uploading the App Bundle for Testing.....	737
84.9 Implementing the <code>installFeature()</code> Method .....	738
84.10 Adding the Update Listener.....	740
84.11 Using Deferred Installation .....	743
84.12 Removing a Dynamic Module .....	743
84.13 Summary .....	744
<b>85. Working with Material Design 3 Theming .....</b>	<b>745</b>
85.1 Material Design 2 vs Material Design 3 .....	745
85.2 Understanding Material Design Theming .....	745
85.3 Material Design 2 Theming .....	745
85.4 Material Design 3 Theming .....	747
85.5 Building a Custom Theme.....	748
85.6 Summary .....	749
<b>86. Migrating from Material Design 2 to Material Design 3.....</b>	<b>751</b>
86.1 Creating the ThemeMigration Project .....	751
86.2 Designing the User Interface .....	751
86.3 Migrating to Material Design 3 .....	753
86.4 Building a New Theme .....	754
86.5 Adding the Theme to the Project.....	755
86.6 Enabling Dynamic Color Support .....	756
86.7 Summary .....	757
<b>87. An Overview of Gradle in Android Studio.....</b>	<b>759</b>
87.1 An Overview of Gradle .....	759
87.2 Gradle and Android Studio .....	759
87.2.1 Sensible Defaults .....	759
87.2.2 Dependencies.....	759
87.2.3 Build Variants .....	760
87.2.4 Manifest Entries .....	760
87.2.5 APK Signing.....	760
87.2.6 ProGuard Support.....	760
87.3 The Property and Settings Gradle Build File.....	760
87.4 The Top-level Gradle Build File.....	761
87.5 Module Level Gradle Build Files.....	762
87.6 Configuring Signing Settings in the Build File.....	764
87.7 Running Gradle Tasks from the Command-line .....	765
87.8 Summary .....	766
<b>Index.....</b>	<b>767</b>



## 1. Introduction

Fully updated for Android Studio Dolphin, this book aims to teach you how to develop Android-based applications using the Java programming language.

This book begins with the basics and outlines the steps necessary to set up an Android development and testing environment. An overview of Android Studio is included covering areas such as tool windows, the code editor, and the Layout Editor tool. An introduction to the architecture of Android is followed by an in-depth look at the design of Android applications and user interfaces using the Android Studio environment.

Chapters are also included covering the Android Architecture Components including view models, lifecycle management, Room database access, the Database Inspector, app navigation, live data, and data binding.

More advanced topics such as intents are also covered, as are touch screen handling, gesture recognition, and the recording and playback of audio. This edition of the book also covers printing, transitions, and foldable device support.

The concepts of material design are also covered in detail, including the use of floating action buttons, Snackbars, tabbed interfaces, card views, navigation drawers, and collapsing toolbars.

Other key features of Android Studio Dolphin and Android are also covered in detail including the Layout Editor, the ConstraintLayout and ConstraintSet classes, MotionLayout Editor, view binding, constraint chains, barriers, and direct reply notifications.

Chapters also cover advanced features of Android Studio such as App Links, Dynamic Delivery, Gradle build configuration, in-app billing, and submitting apps to the Google Play Developer Console.

Assuming you already have some Java programming experience, are ready to download Android Studio and the Android SDK, have access to a Windows, Mac, or Linux system, and have ideas for some apps to develop, you are ready to get started.

### 1.1 Downloading the Code Samples

The source code and Android Studio project files for the examples contained in this book are available for download at:

<https://www.ebookfrenzy.com/retail/dolphinjava/index.php>

The steps to load a project from the code samples into Android Studio are as follows:

1. From the Welcome to Android Studio dialog, click on the Open button option.
2. In the project selection dialog, navigate to and select the folder containing the project to be imported and click on OK.

### 1.2 Feedback

We want you to be satisfied with your purchase of this book. If you find any errors in the book, or have any comments, questions or concerns please contact us at [feedback@ebookfrenzy.com](mailto:feedback@ebookfrenzy.com).

## 1.3 Errata

While we make every effort to ensure the accuracy of the content of this book, it is inevitable that a book covering a subject area of this size and complexity may include some errors and oversights. Any known issues with the book will be outlined, together with solutions, at the following URL:

*<https://www.ebookfrenzy.com/errata/dolphinjava.html>*

If you find an error not listed in the errata, please let us know by emailing our technical support team at *feedback@ebookfrenzy.com*. They are there to help you and will work to resolve any problems you may encounter.

## 2. Setting up an Android Studio Development Environment

Before any work can begin on the development of an Android application, the first step is to configure a computer system to act as the development platform. This involves several steps consisting of installing the Android Studio Integrated Development Environment (IDE) which also includes the Android Software Development Kit (SDK) and OpenJDK Java development environment.

This chapter will cover the steps necessary to install the requisite components for Android application development on Windows, macOS, and Linux-based systems.

### 2.1 System requirements

Android application development may be performed on any of the following system types:

- Windows 8/10/11 64-bit
- macOS 10.14 or later running on Intel or Apple silicon
- Chrome OS device with Intel i5 or higher
- Linux systems with version 2.31 or later of the GNU C Library (glibc)
- Minimum of 8GB of RAM (see below)
- Approximately 8GB of available disk space
- 1280 x 800 minimum screen resolution

Although Android Studio will run on computers with 8GB of RAM, performance will be greatly improved on systems containing more memory. This is particularly an issue if you plan to test your apps using the Android Virtual Device emulator (AVD).

### 2.2 Downloading the Android Studio package

Most of the work involved in developing applications for Android will be performed using the Android Studio environment. The content and examples in this book were created based on Android Studio Dolphin 2021.3.1 using the Android API 33 SDK (Tiramisu) which, at the time of writing, are the latest versions.

Android Studio is, however, subject to frequent updates so a newer version may have been released since this book was published.

The latest release of Android Studio may be downloaded from the primary download page which can be found at the following URL:

<https://developer.android.com/studio/index.html>

If this page provides instructions for downloading a newer version of Android Studio it is important to note that there may be some minor differences between this book and the software. A web search for “Android Studio Dolphin” should provide the option to download the older version if these differences become a problem.

Alternatively, visit the following web page to find Android Studio Dolphin 2021.3.1 in the archives:

<https://developer.android.com/studio/archive>

## 2.3 Installing Android Studio

Once downloaded, the exact steps to install Android Studio differ depending on the operating system on which the installation is being performed.

### 2.3.1 Installation on Windows

Locate the downloaded Android Studio installation executable file (named *android-studio-<version>-windows.exe*) in a Windows Explorer window and double-click on it to start the installation process, clicking the *Yes* button in the User Account Control dialog if it appears.

Once the Android Studio setup wizard appears, work through the various screens to configure the installation to meet your requirements in terms of the file system location into which Android Studio should be installed and whether or not it should be made available to other users of the system. When prompted to select the components to install, make sure that the *Android Studio* and *Android Virtual Device* options are all selected.

Although there are no strict rules on where Android Studio should be installed on the system, the remainder of this book will assume that the installation was performed into *C:\Program Files\Android\Android Studio* and that the Android SDK packages have been installed into the user's *AppData\Local\Android\sdk* sub-folder. Once the options have been configured, click on the *Install* button to begin the installation process.

On versions of Windows with a Start menu, the newly installed Android Studio can be launched from the entry added to that menu during the installation. The executable may be pinned to the taskbar for easy access by navigating to the *Android Studio\bin* directory, right-clicking on the *studio64* executable, and selecting the *Pin to Taskbar* menu option (on Windows 11 this option can be found by selecting *Show more options* from the menu).

### 2.3.2 Installation on macOS

Android Studio for macOS is downloaded in the form of a disk image (.dmg) file. Once the *android-studio-<version>-mac.dmg* file has been downloaded, locate it in a Finder window and double-click on it to open it as shown in Figure 2-1:

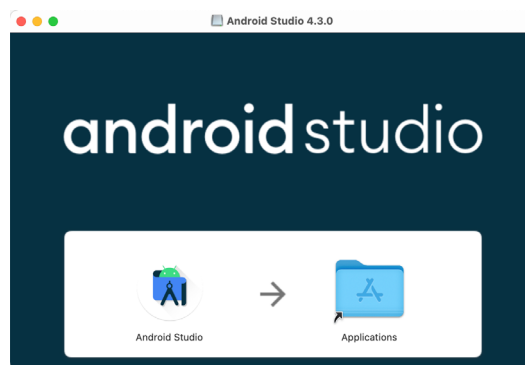


Figure 2-1

To install the package, simply drag the Android Studio icon and drop it onto the Applications folder. The Android Studio package will then be installed into the Applications folder of the system, a process that will typically take a few seconds to complete.

To launch Android Studio, locate the executable in the Applications folder using a Finder window and double-click on it.



For future, easier access to the tool, drag the Android Studio icon from the Finder window and drop it onto the dock.

### 2.3.3 Installation on Linux

Having downloaded the Linux Android Studio package, open a terminal window, change directory to the location where Android Studio is to be installed and execute the following command:

```
unzip /<path to package>/android-studio-ide-<version>-linux.zip
```

Note that the Android Studio bundle will be installed into a subdirectory named *android-studio*. Assuming, therefore, that the above command was executed in */home/demo*, the software packages will be unpacked into */home/demo/android-studio*.

To launch Android Studio, open a terminal window, change directory to the *android-studio/bin* sub-directory and execute the following command:

```
./studio.sh
```

When running on a 64-bit Linux system, it may be necessary to install some 32-bit support libraries before Android Studio will run. On Ubuntu these libraries can be installed using the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install libc6:i386 libncurses5:i386 libstdc++6:i386 lib32z1 libbz2-1.0:i386
```

On Red Hat and Fedora-based 64-bit systems, use the following command:

```
sudo yum install zlib.i686 ncurses-libs.i686 bzip2-libs.i686
```

## 2.4 The Android Studio setup wizard

If you are installing Android Studio for the first time the initial dialog that appears once the setup process starts may resemble that shown in Figure 2-2 below:

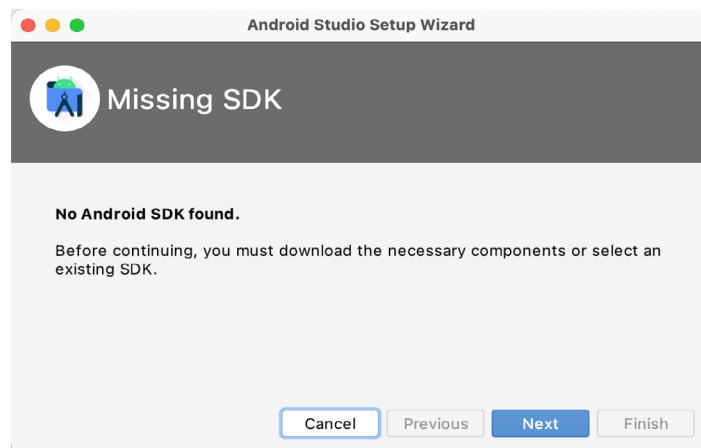


Figure 2-2

If this dialog appears, click the Next button to display the SDK Components Setup dialog (Figure 2-3). Within this dialog, make sure that the Android SDK option is selected along with the latest API package before clicking on the Next button:

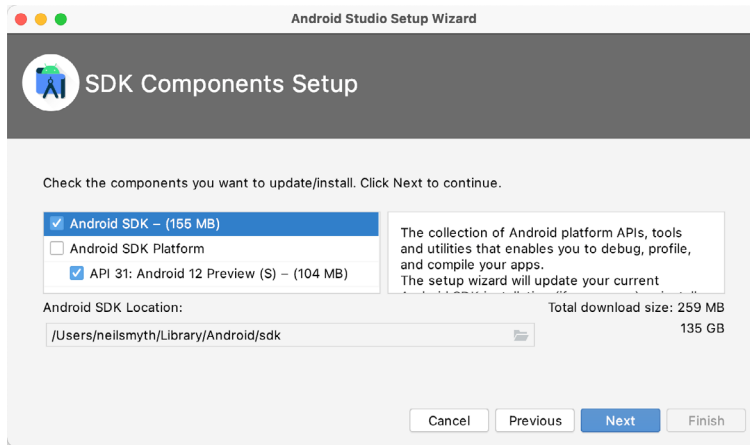


Figure 2-3

After clicking Next, Android Studio will download and install the Android SDK and tools.

If you have previously installed an earlier version of Android Studio, the first time that this new version is launched, a dialog may appear providing the option to import settings from a previous Android Studio version. If you have settings from a previous version and would like to import them into the latest installation, select the appropriate option and location. Alternatively, indicate that you do not need to import any previous settings and click on the OK button to proceed.

After these initial setup steps have been taken, click the Finish button to display the Welcome to Android Studio screen:

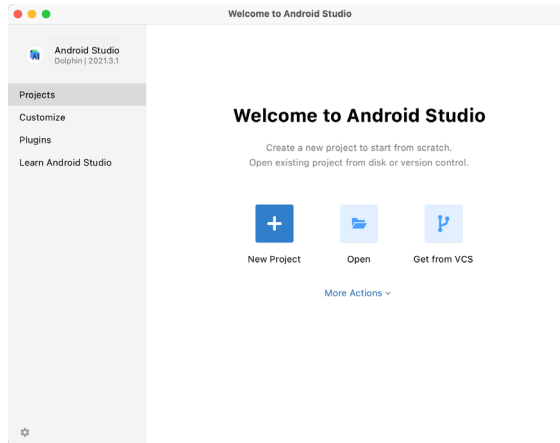


Figure 2-4

## 2.5 Installing additional Android SDK packages

The steps performed so far have installed the Android Studio IDE and the current set of default Android SDK packages. Before proceeding, it is worth taking some time to verify which packages are installed and to install any missing or updated packages.

This task can be performed by clicking on the *More Actions* link within the welcome dialog and selecting the *SDK Manager* option from the drop-down menu. Once invoked, the *Android SDK* screen of the Preferences dialog will appear as shown in Figure 2-5:

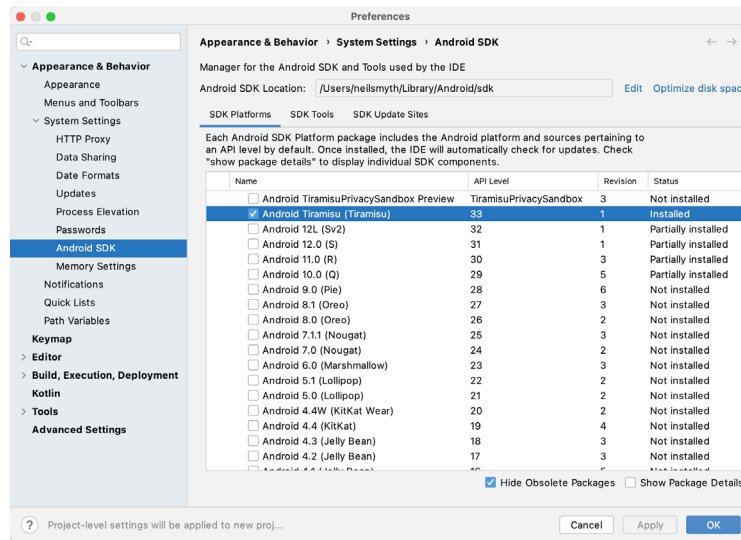


Figure 2-5

Immediately after installing Android Studio for the first time it is likely that only the latest released version of the Android SDK has been installed. To install older versions of the Android SDK simply select the checkboxes corresponding to the versions and click on the *Apply* button. The rest of this book assumes that the Android Tiramisu (API Level 33) SDK is installed.

Most of the examples in this book will support older versions of Android as far back as Android 8.0 (Oreo). This is to ensure that the apps run on a wide range of Android devices. Within the list of SDK versions, enable the checkbox next to Android 8.0 (Oreo) and click on the *Apply* button. In the resulting confirmation dialog click on the *OK* button to install the SDK. Subsequent dialogs will seek the acceptance of licenses and terms before performing the installation. Click *Finish* once the installation is complete.

It is also possible that updates will be listed as being available for the latest SDK. To access detailed information about the packages that are ready to be updated, enable the *Show Package Details* option located in the lower right-hand corner of the screen. This will display information similar to that shown in Figure 2-6:

	Name	API Level	Revision	Status
<input type="checkbox"/>	Android TV Intel x86 Atom System Image	25	6	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Android Wear for China ARM EABI v7a System Image	25	3	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Android Wear for China Intel x86 Atom System Image	25	3	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Android Wear ARM EABI v7a System Image	25	3	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Android Wear Intel x86 Atom System Image	25	3	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Google APIs ARM 64 v8a System Image	25	8	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Google APIs ARM EABI v7a System Image	25	8	Not installed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Google APIs Intel x86 Atom System Image	25	8	Not installed
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Google APIs Intel x86 Atom_64 System Image	25	6	Update Available: 8
▼ <input type="checkbox"/>	<b>Android 7.0 (Nougat)</b>			
<input type="checkbox"/>	Google APIs	24	1	Not installed

Figure 2-6

The above figure highlights the availability of an update. To install the updates, enable the checkbox to the left of the item name and click on the *Apply* button.

In addition to the Android SDK packages, several tools are also installed for building Android applications. To view the currently installed packages and check for updates, remain within the SDK settings screen and select the SDK Tools tab as shown in Figure 2-7:

## Setting up an Android Studio Development Environment

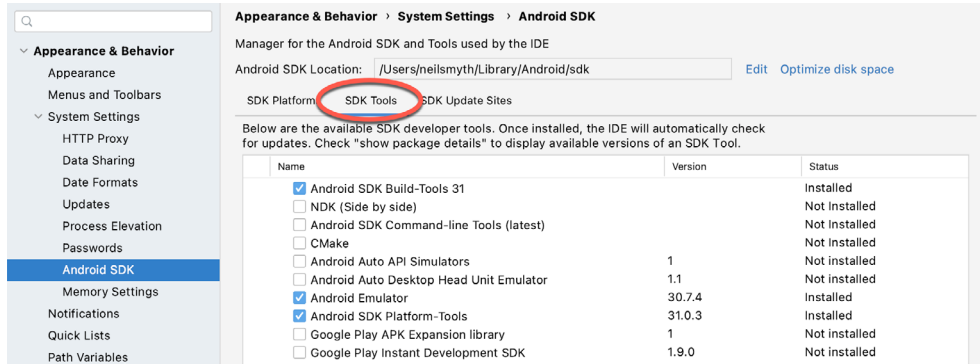


Figure 2-7

Within the Android SDK Tools screen, make sure that the following packages are listed as *Installed* in the Status column:

- Android SDK Build-tools
- Android Emulator
- Android SDK Platform-tools
- Google Play Services
- Intel x86 Emulator Accelerator (HAXM installer)
- Google USB Driver (Windows only)
- Layout Inspector image server for API 31 and T

Note the Intel x86 Emulator Accelerator (HAXM installer) cannot be installed on Apple silicon-based Macs.

If any of the above packages are listed as *Not Installed* or requiring an update, simply select the checkboxes next to those packages and click on the *Apply* button to initiate the installation process. If the HAXM emulator settings dialog appears, select the recommended memory allocation:

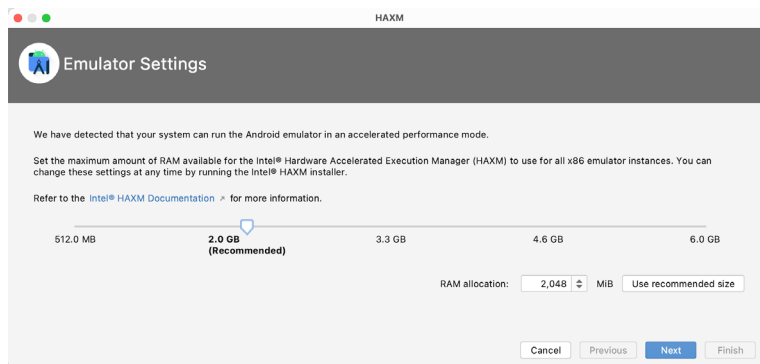


Figure 2-8

Once the installation is complete, review the package list and make sure that the selected packages are now listed as *Installed* in the *Status* column. If any are listed as *Not installed*, make sure they are selected and click on the *Apply* button again.

## 2.6 Making the Android SDK tools command-line accessible

Most of the time, the underlying tools of the Android SDK will be accessed from within the Android Studio environment. That being said, however, there will also be instances where it will be useful to be able to invoke those tools from a command prompt or terminal window. For the operating system on which you are developing to be able to find these tools, it will be necessary to add them to the system's *PATH* environment variable.

Regardless of operating system, the *PATH* variable needs to be configured to include the following paths (where *<path\_to\_android\_sdk\_installation>* represents the file system location into which the Android SDK was installed):

```
<path_to_android_sdk_installation>/sdk/tools
<path_to_android_sdk_installation>/sdk/tools/bin
<path_to_android_sdk_installation>/sdk/platform-tools
```

The location of the SDK on your system can be identified by launching the SDK Manager and referring to the *Android SDK Location*: field located at the top of the settings panel as highlighted in Figure 2-9:

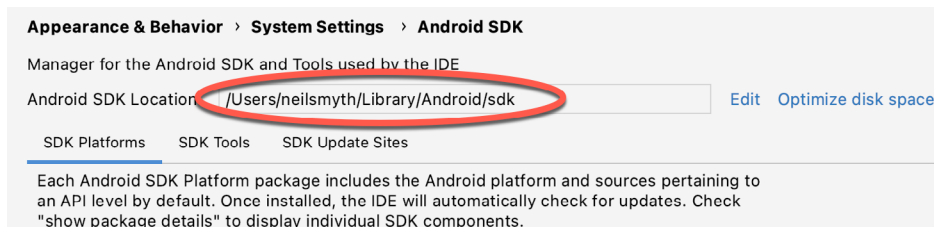


Figure 2-9

Once the location of the SDK has been identified, the steps to add this to the *PATH* variable are operating system dependent:

### 2.6.1 Windows 8.1

1. On the start screen, move the mouse to the bottom right-hand corner of the screen and select Search from the resulting menu. In the search box, enter Control Panel. When the Control Panel icon appears in the results area, click on it to launch the tool on the desktop.
2. Within the Control Panel, use the Category menu to change the display to Large Icons. From the list of icons select the one labeled System.
3. In the Environment Variables dialog, locate the Path variable in the System variables list, select it and click on the *Edit...* button. Using the *New* button in the edit dialog, add three new entries to the path. For example, assuming the Android SDK was installed into C:\Users\demo\AppData\Local\Android\Sdk, the following entries would need to be added:

```
C:\Users\demo\AppData\Local\Android\Sdk\platform-tools
C:\Users\demo\AppData\Local\Android\Sdk\tools
C:\Users\demo\AppData\Local\Android\Sdk\tools\bin
```

4. Click on OK in each dialog box and close the system properties control panel.

Open a command prompt window by pressing Windows + R on the keyboard and entering *cmd* into the Run dialog. Within the Command Prompt window, enter:

```
echo %Path%
```

The returned path variable value should include the paths to the Android SDK platform tools folders. Verify that

## Setting up an Android Studio Development Environment

the *platform-tools* value is correct by attempting to run the *adb* tool as follows:

```
adb
```

The tool should output a list of command-line options when executed.

Similarly, check the *tools* path setting by attempting to run the AVD Manager command-line tool (don't worry if the avdmanager tool reports a problem with Java - this will be addressed later):

```
avdmanager
```

If a message similar to the following message appears for one or both of the commands, it is most likely that an incorrect path was appended to the Path environment variable:

```
'adb' is not recognized as an internal or external command,  
operable program or batch file.
```

### 2.6.2 Windows 10

Right-click on the Start menu, select Settings from the resulting menu and enter “Edit the system environment variables” into the *Find a setting* text field. In the System Properties dialog, click the *Environment Variables...* button. Follow the steps outlined for Windows 8.1 starting from step 3.

### 2.6.3 Windows 11

Right-click on the Start icon located in the taskbar and select Settings from the resulting menu. When the Settings dialog appears, scroll down the list of categories and select the “About” option. In the About screen, select *Advanced system settings* from the Related links section. When the System Properties window appears, click on the *Environment Variables...* button. Follow the steps outlined for Windows 8.1 starting from step 3.

### 2.6.4 Linux

On Linux, this configuration can typically be achieved by adding a command to the *.bashrc* file in your home directory (specifics may differ depending on the particular Linux distribution in use). Assuming that the Android SDK bundle package was installed into */home/demo/Android/sdk*, the export line in the *.bashrc* file would read as follows:

```
export PATH=/home/demo/Android/sdk/platform-tools:/home/demo/Android/sdk/tools:/  
home/demo/Android/sdk/tools/bin:/home/demo/android-studio/bin:$PATH
```

Note also that the above command adds the *android-studio/bin* directory to the PATH variable. This will enable the *studio.sh* script to be executed regardless of the current directory within a terminal window.

### 2.6.5 macOS

Several techniques may be employed to modify the \$PATH environment variable on macOS. Arguably the cleanest method is to add a new file in the */etc/paths.d* directory containing the paths to be added to \$PATH. Assuming an Android SDK installation location of */Users/demo/Library/Android/sdk*, the path may be configured by creating a new file named *android-sdk* in the */etc/paths.d* directory containing the following lines:

```
/Users/demo/Library/Android/sdk/tools  
/Users/demo/Library/Android/sdk/tools/bin  
/Users/demo/Library/Android/sdk/platform-tools
```

Note that since this is a system directory it will be necessary to use the *sudo* command when creating the file. For example:

```
sudo vi /etc/paths.d/android-sdk
```

## 2.7 Android Studio memory management

Android Studio is a large and complex software application that consists of many background processes. Although Android Studio has been criticized in the past for providing less than optimal performance, Google has made significant performance improvements in recent releases and continues to do so with each new version. These improvements include allowing the user to configure the amount of memory used by both the Android Studio IDE and the background processes used to build and run apps. This allows the software to take advantage of systems with larger amounts of RAM.

If you are running Android Studio on a system with sufficient unused RAM to increase these values (this feature is only available on 64-bit systems with 5GB or more of RAM) and find that Android Studio performance appears to be degraded it may be worth experimenting with these memory settings. Android Studio may also notify you that performance can be increased via a dialog similar to the one shown below:

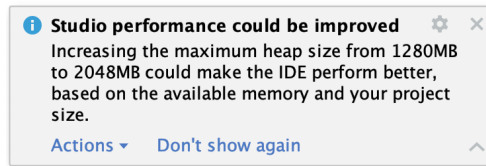


Figure 2-10

To view and modify the current memory configuration, select the *File -> Settings...* (*Android Studio -> Preferences...* on macOS) menu option and, in the resulting dialog, select the *Memory Settings* option listed under *System Settings* in the left-hand navigation panel as illustrated in Figure 2-11 below.

When changing the memory allocation, be sure not to allocate more memory than necessary or than your system can spare without slowing down other processes.

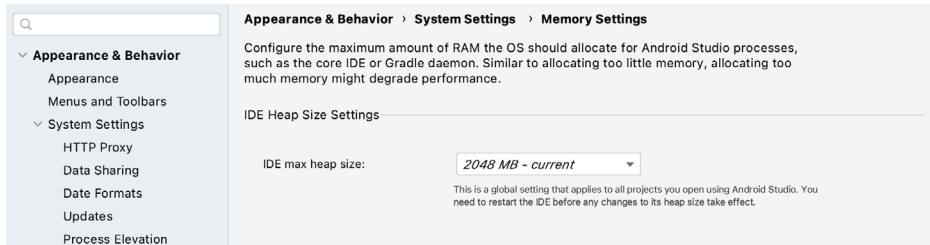


Figure 2-11

## 2.8 Updating Android Studio and the SDK

From time to time new versions of Android Studio and the Android SDK are released. New versions of the SDK are installed using the Android SDK Manager. Android Studio will typically notify you when an update is ready to be installed.

To manually check for Android Studio updates, use the *Help -> Check for Updates...* menu option from the Android Studio main window (*Android Studio -> Check for Updates...* on macOS).

## 2.9 Summary

Before beginning the development of Android-based applications, the first step is to set up a suitable development environment. This consists of the Android SDKs and Android Studio IDE (which also includes the OpenJDK development environment). In this chapter, we have covered the steps necessary to install these packages on Windows, macOS, and Linux.





## 3. Creating an Example Android App in Android Studio

The preceding chapters of this book have covered the steps necessary to configure an environment suitable for the development of Android applications using the Android Studio IDE. Before moving on to slightly more advanced topics, now is a good time to validate that all of the required development packages are installed and functioning correctly. The best way to achieve this goal is to create an Android application and compile and run it. This chapter will cover the creation of an Android application project using Android Studio. Once the project has been created, a later chapter will explore the use of the Android emulator environment to perform a test run of the application.

### 3.1 About the Project

The project created in this chapter takes the form of a rudimentary currency conversion calculator (so simple, in fact, that it only converts from dollars to euros and does so using an estimated conversion rate). The project will also make use of one of the most basic of Android Studio project templates. This simplicity allows us to introduce some of the key aspects of Android app development without overwhelming the beginner by trying to introduce too many concepts, such as the recommended app architecture and Android architecture components, at once. When following the tutorial in this chapter, rest assured that all of the techniques and code used in this initial example project will be covered in much greater detail in later chapters.

### 3.2 Creating a New Android Project

The first step in the application development process is to create a new project within the Android Studio environment. Begin, therefore, by launching Android Studio so that the “Welcome to Android Studio” screen appears as illustrated in Figure 3-1:

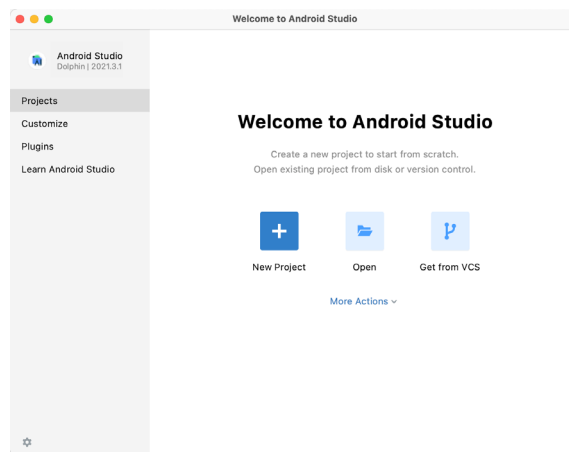


Figure 3-1

Once this window appears, Android Studio is ready for a new project to be created. To create the new project, simply click on the *New Project* option to display the first screen of the *New Project* wizard.

### 3.3 Creating an Activity

The first step is to define the type of initial activity that is to be created for the application. Options are available to create projects for Phone and Tablet, Wear OS, TV, Android Audio or Android Things. A range of different activity types is available when developing Android applications, many of which will be covered extensively in later chapters. For the purposes of this example, however, simply select the *Phone and Tablet* option from the Templates panel followed by the option to create an *Empty Activity*. The Empty Activity option creates a template user interface consisting of a single TextView object.

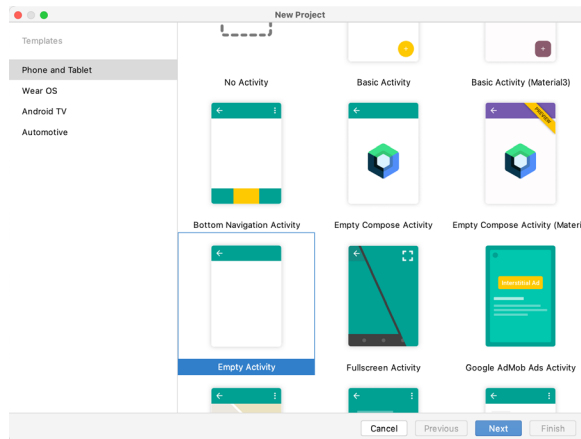


Figure 3-2

With the Empty Activity option selected, click *Next* to continue with the project configuration.

### 3.4 Defining the Project and SDK Settings

In the project configuration window (Figure 3-3), set the *Name* field to *AndroidSample*. The application name is the name by which the application will be referenced and identified within Android Studio and is also the name that would be used if the completed application were to go on sale in the Google Play store.

The *Package name* is used to uniquely identify the application within the Android application ecosystem. Although this can be set to any string that uniquely identifies your app, it is traditionally based on the reversed URL of your domain name followed by the name of the application. For example, if your domain is *www.mycompany.com*, and the application has been named *AndroidSample*, then the package name might be specified as follows:

```
com.mycompany.androidsample
```

If you do not have a domain name you can enter any other string into the Company Domain field, or you may use *example.com* for the purposes of testing, though this will need to be changed before an application can be published:

```
com.example.androidsample
```

The *Save location* setting will default to a location in the folder named *AndroidStudioProjects* located in your home directory and may be changed by clicking on the folder icon to the right of the text field containing the current path setting.

Set the minimum SDK setting to API 26: Android 8.0 (Oreo). This is the minimum SDK that will be used in most of the projects created in this book unless a necessary feature is only available in a more recent version. The objective here is to build an app using the latest Android SDK, while also retaining compatibility with devices running older versions of Android (in this case as far back as Android 8.0). The text beneath the Minimum SDK

setting will outline the percentage of Android devices currently in use on which the app will run. Click on the *Help me choose* button (highlighted in Figure 3-3) to see a full breakdown of the various Android versions still in use:

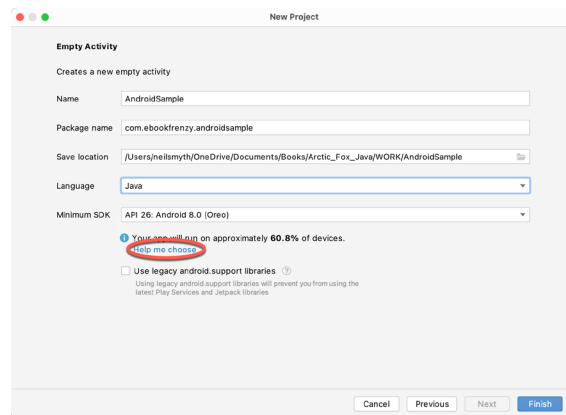


Figure 3-3

Finally, change the *Language* menu to *Java* and click on *Finish* to initiate the project creation process.

### 3.5 Modifying the Example Application

At this point, Android Studio has created a minimal example application project and opened the main window.

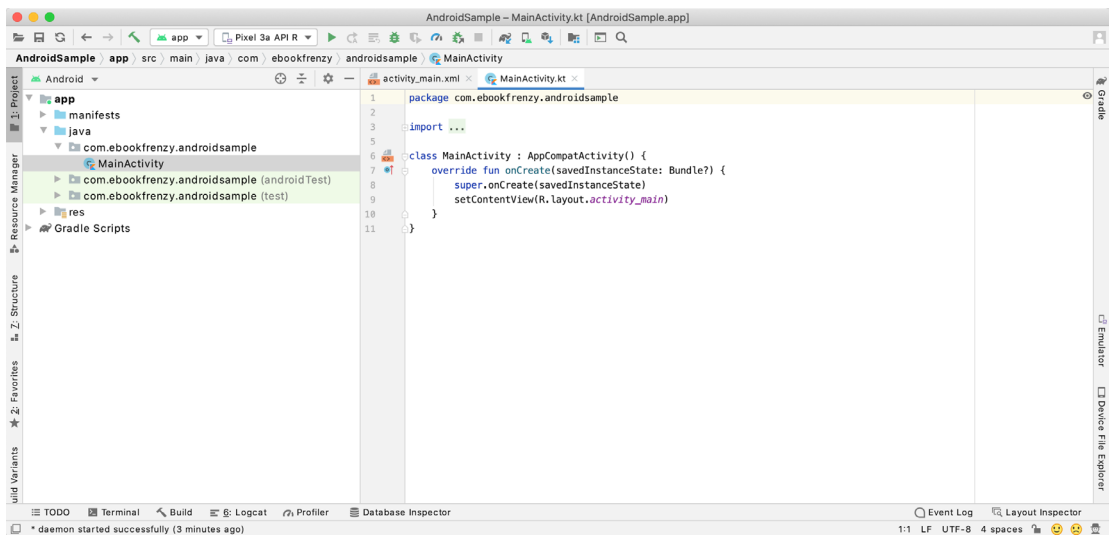


Figure 3-4

The newly created project and references to associated files are listed in the *Project* tool window located on the left-hand side of the main project window. The Project tool window has a number of modes in which information can be displayed. By default, this panel should be in *Android* mode. This setting is controlled by the menu at the top of the panel as highlighted in Figure 3-5. If the panel is not currently in Android mode, use the menu to switch mode:

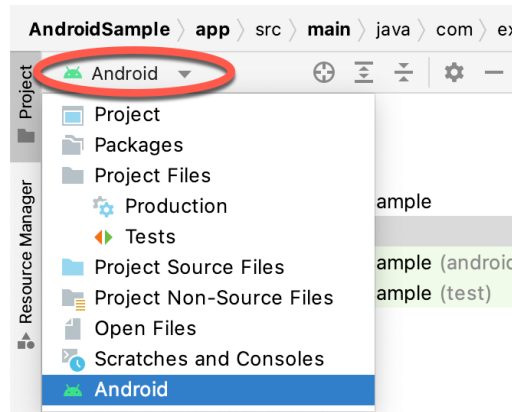


Figure 3-5

### 3.6 Modifying the User Interface

The user interface design for our activity is stored in a file named *activity\_main.xml* which, in turn, is located under *app -> res -> layout* in the project file hierarchy. Once located in the Project tool window, double-click on the file to load it into the user interface Layout Editor tool which will appear in the center panel of the Android Studio main window:

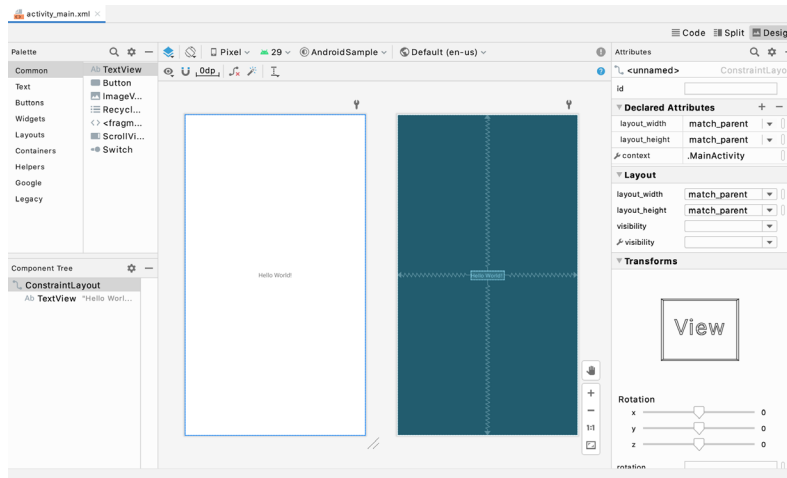




Figure 3-6

In the toolbar across the top of the Layout Editor window is a menu (currently set to *Pixel* in the above figure) which is reflected in the visual representation of the device within the Layout Editor panel. A wide range of other device options are available for selection by clicking on this menu.

To change the orientation of the device representation between landscape and portrait simply use the drop down menu immediately to the left of the device selection menu showing the  icon. Use the night button (  ) to turn Night mode on and off.

As we can see in the device screen, the content layout already includes a label that displays a “Hello World!” message. Running down the left-hand side of the panel is a palette containing different categories of user interface components that may be used to construct a user interface, such as buttons, labels and text fields. It should be noted, however, that not all user interface components are obviously visible to the user. One such category

consists of *layouts*. Android supports a variety of layouts that provide different levels of control over how visual user interface components are positioned and managed on the screen. Though it is difficult to tell from looking at the visual representation of the user interface, the current design has been created using a `ConstraintLayout`. This can be confirmed by reviewing the information in the *Component Tree* panel which, by default, is located in the lower left-hand corner of the Layout Editor panel and is shown in Figure 3-7:

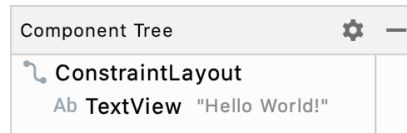


Figure 3-7

As we can see from the component tree hierarchy, the user interface layout consists of a `ConstraintLayout` parent and a `TextView` child object.

Before proceeding, also check that the Layout Editor's Autoconnect mode is enabled. This means that as components are added to the layout, the Layout Editor will automatically add constraints to make sure the components are correctly positioned for different screen sizes and device orientations (a topic that will be covered in much greater detail in future chapters). The Autoconnect button appears in the Layout Editor toolbar and is represented by a magnet icon. When disabled the magnet appears with a diagonal line through it (Figure 3-8). If necessary, re-enable Autoconnect mode by clicking on this button.



Figure 3-8

The next step in modifying the application is to add some additional components to the layout, the first of which will be a `Button` for the user to press to initiate the currency conversion.

The Palette panel consists of two columns with the left-hand column containing a list of view component categories. The right-hand column lists the components contained within the currently selected category. In Figure 3-9, for example, the `Button` view is currently selected within the `Buttons` category:

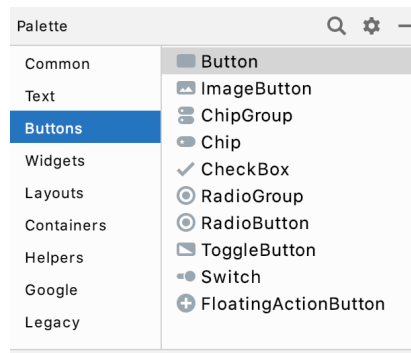


Figure 3-9

Click and drag the *Button* object from the Buttons list and drop it in the horizontal center of the user interface design so that it is positioned beneath the existing `TextView` widget:

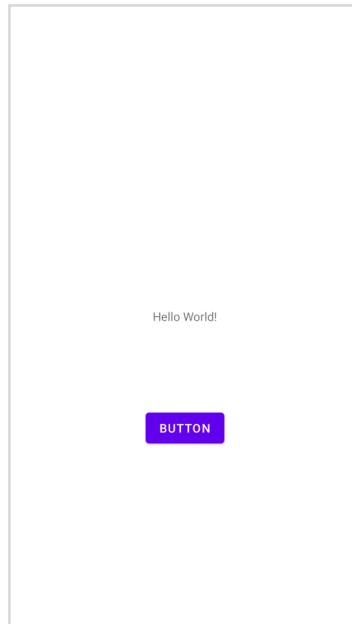


Figure 3-10

The next step is to change the text that is currently displayed by the Button component. The panel located to the right of the design area is the Attributes panel. This panel displays the attributes assigned to the currently selected component in the layout. Within this panel, locate the *text* property in the Common Attributes section and change the current value from “Button” to “Convert” as shown in Figure 3-11:

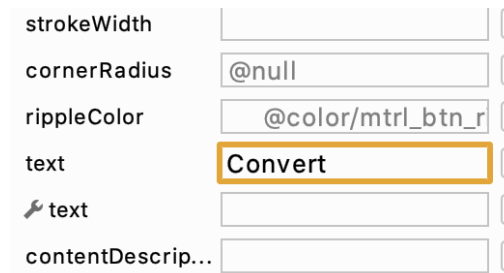


Figure 3-11

The second text property with a wrench next to it allows a text property to be set which only appears within the Layout Editor tool but is not shown at runtime. This is useful for testing the way in which a visual component and the layout will behave with different settings without having to run the app repeatedly.

Just in case the Autoconnect system failed to set all of the layout connections, click on the Infer constraints button (Figure 3-12) to add any missing constraints to the layout:

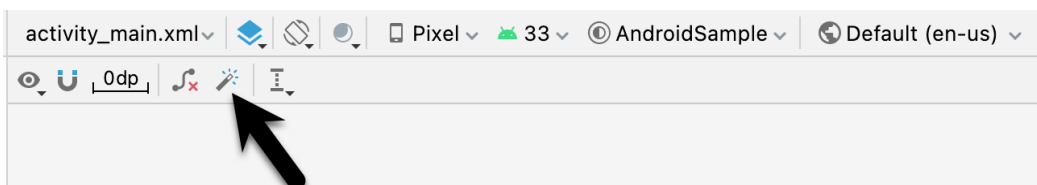


Figure 3-12

At this point it is important to explain the warning button located in the top right-hand corner of the Layout Editor tool as indicated in Figure 3-13. Obviously, this is indicating potential problems with the layout. For details on any problems, click on the button:

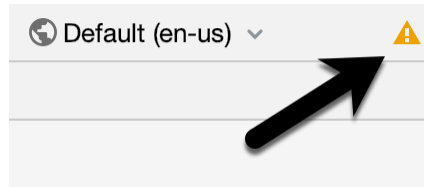


Figure 3-13

When clicked, a panel (Figure 3-14) will appear describing the nature of the problems and offering some possible corrective measures:

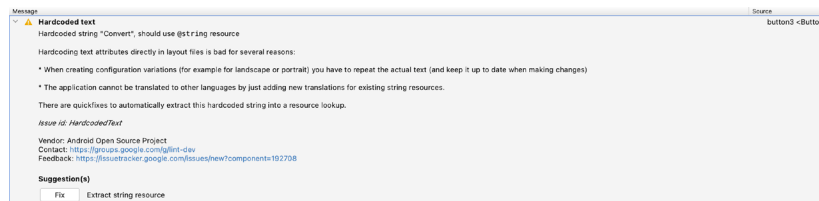


Figure 3-14

Currently, the only warning listed reads as follows:

Hardcoded string "Convert", should use @string resource

This I18N message is informing us that a potential issue exists with regard to the future internationalization of the project ("I18N" comes from the fact that the word "internationalization" begins with an "I", ends with an "N" and has 18 letters in between). The warning is reminding us that when developing Android applications, attributes and values such as text strings should be stored in the form of *resources* wherever possible. Doing so enables changes to the appearance of the application to be made by modifying resource files instead of changing the application source code. This can be especially valuable when translating a user interface to a different spoken language. If all of the text in a user interface is contained in a single resource file, for example, that file can be given to a translator who will then perform the translation work and return the translated file for inclusion in the application. This enables multiple languages to be targeted without the necessity for any source code changes to be made. In this instance, we are going to create a new resource named *convert\_string* and assign to it the string "Convert".

Click on the *Fix* button in the Issue Explanation panel to display the *Extract Resource* panel (Figure 3-15). Within this panel, change the resource name field to *convert\_string* and leave the resource value set to *Convert* before clicking on the OK button.

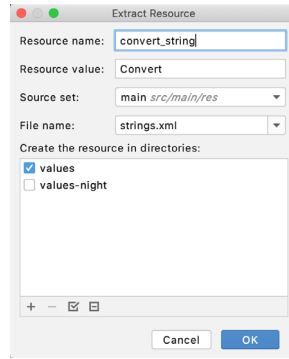


Figure 3-15

The next widget to be added is an EditText widget into which the user will enter the dollar amount to be converted. From the Palette panel, select the Text category and click and drag a Number (Decimal) component onto the layout so that it is centered horizontally and positioned above the existing TextView widget. With the widget selected, use the Attributes tools window to set the *hint* property to “dollars”. Click on the warning icon and extract the string to a resource named *dollars\_hint*.

The code written later in this chapter will need to access the dollar value entered by the user into the EditText field. It will do this by referencing the id assigned to the widget in the user interface layout. The default id assigned to the widget by Android Studio can be viewed and changed from within the Attributes tool window when the widget is selected in the layout as shown in Figure 3-16:

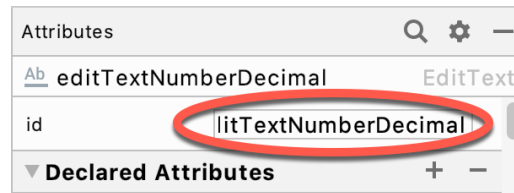


Figure 3-16

Change the id to *dollarText* and, in the Rename dialog, click on the *Refactor* button. This ensures that any references elsewhere within the project to the old id are automatically updated to use the new id:

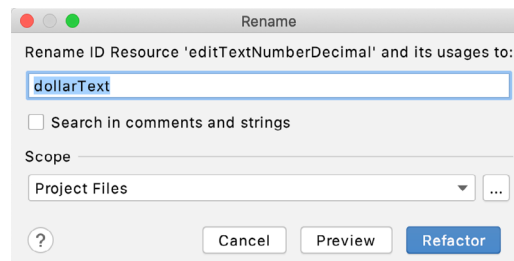


Figure 3-17

Add any missing layout constraints by clicking on the *Infer constraints* button. At this point the layout should resemble that shown in Figure 3-18:



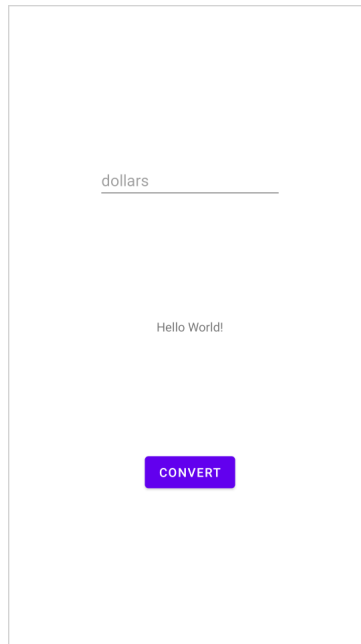


Figure 3-18

### 3.7 Reviewing the Layout and Resource Files

Before moving on to the next step, we are going to look at some of the internal aspects of user interface design and resource handling. In the previous section, we made some changes to the user interface by modifying the *activity\_main.xml* file using the Layout Editor tool. In fact, all that the Layout Editor was doing was providing a user-friendly way to edit the underlying XML content of the file. In practice, there is no reason why you cannot modify the XML directly to make user interface changes and, in some instances, this may actually be quicker than using the Layout Editor tool. In the top right-hand corner of the Layout Editor panel are three buttons as highlighted in Figure 3-19 below:

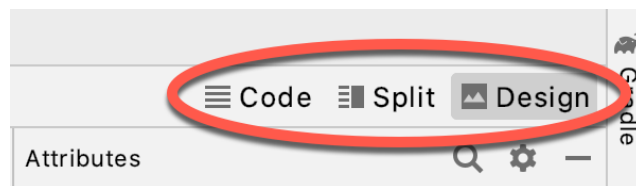


Figure 3-19

By default, the editor will be in *Design* mode whereby just the visual representation of the layout is displayed. The left-most button will switch to *Code* mode to display the XML for the layout, while the middle button enters *Split* mode where both the layout and XML are displayed, as shown in Figure 3-20:

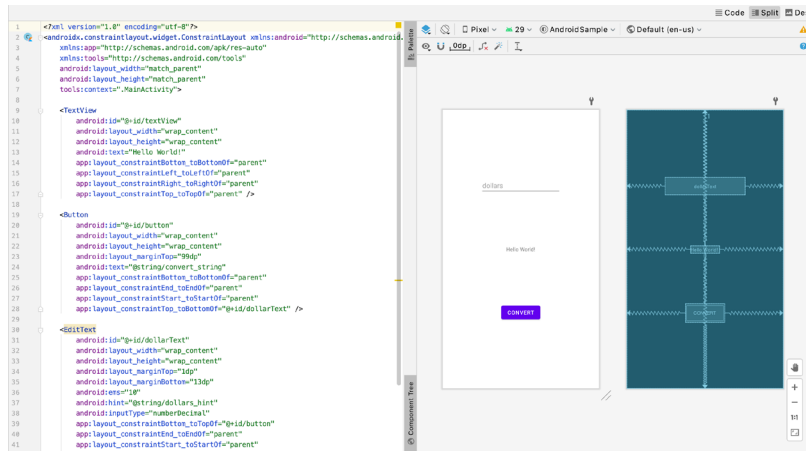


Figure 3-20

As can be seen from the structure of the XML file, the user interface consists of the `ConstraintLayout` component, which in turn, is the parent of the `TextView`, `Button` and `EditText` objects. We can also see, for example, that the `text` property of the `Button` is set to our `convert_string` resource. Although varying in complexity and content, all user interface layouts are structured in this hierarchical, XML based way.

As changes are made to the XML layout, these will be reflected in the layout canvas. The layout may also be modified visually from within the layout canvas panel with the changes appearing in the XML listing. To see this in action, switch to Split mode and modify the XML layout to change the background color of the `ConstraintLayout` to a shade of red as follows:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout xmlns:android="http://schemas.
android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:app="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
    xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="match_parent"
    tools:context=".MainActivity"
    android:background="#ff2438" >
.
.
</androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout>
```

Note that the color of the layout changes in real-time to match the new setting in the XML file. Note also that a small red square appears in the left-hand margin (also referred to as the *gutter*) of the XML editor next to the line containing the color setting. This is a visual cue to the fact that the color red has been set on a property. Clicking on the red square will display a color chooser allowing a different color to be selected:

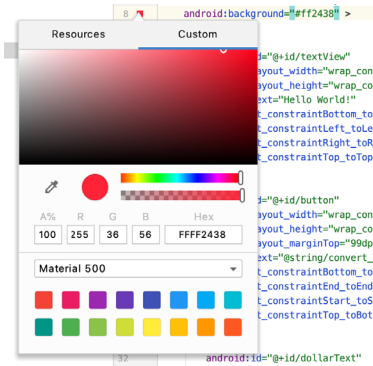


Figure 3-21

Before proceeding, delete the background property from the layout file so that the background returns to the default setting.

Finally, use the Project panel to locate the *app -> res -> values -> strings.xml* file and double-click on it to load it into the editor. Currently the XML should read as follows:

```
<resources>
    <string name="app_name">AndroidSample</string>
    <string name="convert_string">Convert</string>
    <string name="dollars_hint">dollars</string>
</resources>
```

As a demonstration of resources in action, change the string value currently assigned to the *convert\_string* resource to “Convert to Euros” and then return to the Layout Editor tool by selecting the tab for the layout file in the editor panel. Note that the layout has picked up the new resource value for the string.

There is also a quick way to access the value of a resource referenced in an XML file. With the Layout Editor tool in Split or Code mode, click on the “@string/convert\_string” property setting so that it highlights and then press Ctrl-B on the keyboard (Cmd-B on macOS). Android Studio will subsequently open the *strings.xml* file and take you to the line in that file where this resource is declared. Use this opportunity to revert the string resource back to the original “Convert” text and to add the following additional entry for a string resource that will be referenced later in the app code:

```
<resources>
.
.
    <string name="convert_string">Convert</string>
    <string name="dollars_hint">dollars</string>
    <string name="no_value_string">No Value</string>
</resources>
```

Resource strings may also be edited using the Android Studio Translations Editor. To open this editor, right-click on the *app -> res -> values -> strings.xml* file and select the *Open editor* menu option. This will display the Translation Editor in the main panel of the Android Studio window:

## Creating an Example Android App in Android Studio

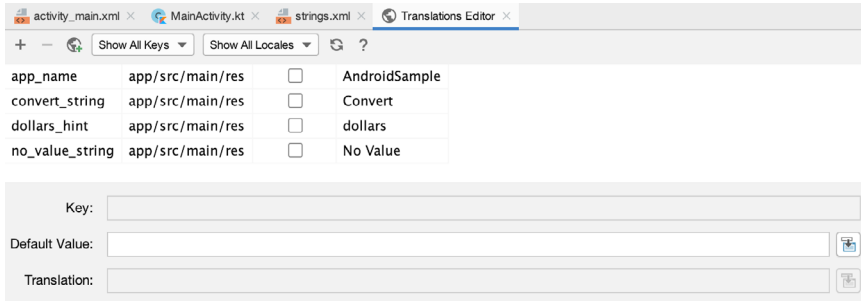


Figure 3-22

This editor allows the strings assigned to resource keys to be edited and for translations for multiple languages to be managed.

### 3.8 Adding Interaction

The final step in this example project is to make the app interactive so that when the user enters a dollar value into the EditText field and clicks the convert button the converted euro value appears on the TextView. This involves the implementation of some event handling on the Button widget. Specifically, the Button needs to be configured so that a method in the app code is called when an *onClick* event is triggered. Event handling can be implemented in a number of different ways and is covered in detail in a later chapter entitled “*An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling*”. Return the layout editor to Design mode, select the Button widget in the layout editor, refer to the Attributes tool window and specify a method named *convertCurrency* as shown below:

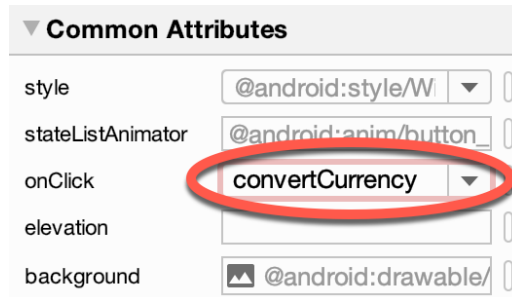


Figure 3-23

Note that the text field for the *onClick* property is now highlighted with a red border to warn us that the button has been configured to call a method which does not yet exist. To address this, double-click on the *MainActivity.java* file in the Project tool window (*app* -> *java* -> *<package name>* -> *MainActivity*) to load it into the code editor and add the code for the *convertCurrency* method to the class file so that it reads as follows, noting that it is also necessary to import some additional Android packages:

```
package com.ebookfrenzy.androidsample;

import androidx.appcompat.app.AppCompatActivity;

import android.os.Bundle;
import android.view.View;
import android.widget.EditText;
import android.widget.TextView;
```

```

import java.util.Locale;

public class MainActivity extends AppCompatActivity {

    @Override
    protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
        setContentView(R.layout.activity_main);
    }

    public void convertCurrency(View view) {

        EditText dollarText = findViewById(R.id.dollarText);
        TextView textView = findViewById(R.id.textView);

        if (!dollarText.getText().toString().equals("")) {

            float dollarValue = Float.parseFloat(dollarText.getText().toString());
            float euroValue = dollarValue * 0.85F;
            textView.setText(String.format(Locale.ENGLISH, "%.2f", euroValue));
        } else {
            textView.setText(R.string.no_value_string);
        }
    }
}

```

The method begins by obtaining references to the `EditText` and `TextView` objects by making a call to a method named *findViewById*, passing through the id assigned within the layout file. A check is then made to ensure that the user has entered a dollar value and if so, that value is extracted, converted from a `String` to a floating point value and converted to euros. Finally, the result is displayed on the `TextView` widget. If any of this is unclear, rest assured that these concepts will be covered in greater detail in later chapters.

### 3.9 Summary

While not excessively complex, a number of steps are involved in setting up an Android development environment. Having performed those steps, it is worth working through an example to make sure the environment is correctly installed and configured. In this chapter, we have created an example application and then used the Android Studio Layout Editor tool to modify the user interface layout. In doing so, we explored the importance of using resources wherever possible, particularly in the case of string values, and briefly touched on the topic of layouts. Next we looked at the underlying XML that is used to store the user interface designs of Android applications.

Finally, an `onClick` event was added to a `Button` connected to a method that was implemented to extract the user input from the `EditText` component, convert from dollars to euros and then display the result on the `TextView`.

With the app ready for testing, the steps necessary to set up an emulator for testing purposes will be covered in detail in the next chapter.



## 6. A Tour of the Android Studio User Interface

While it is tempting to plunge into running the example application created in the previous chapter, doing so involves using aspects of the Android Studio user interface which are best described in advance.

Android Studio is a powerful and feature-rich development environment that is, to a large extent, intuitive to use. That being said, taking the time now to gain familiarity with the layout and organization of the Android Studio user interface will considerably shorten the learning curve in later chapters of the book. With this in mind, this chapter will provide an initial overview of the various areas and components that make up the Android Studio environment.

### 6.1 The Welcome Screen

The welcome screen (Figure 6-1) is displayed any time that Android Studio is running with no projects currently open (open projects can be closed at any time by selecting the *File -> Close Project* menu option). If Android Studio was previously exited while a project was still open, the tool will bypass the welcome screen next time it is launched, automatically opening the previously active project.

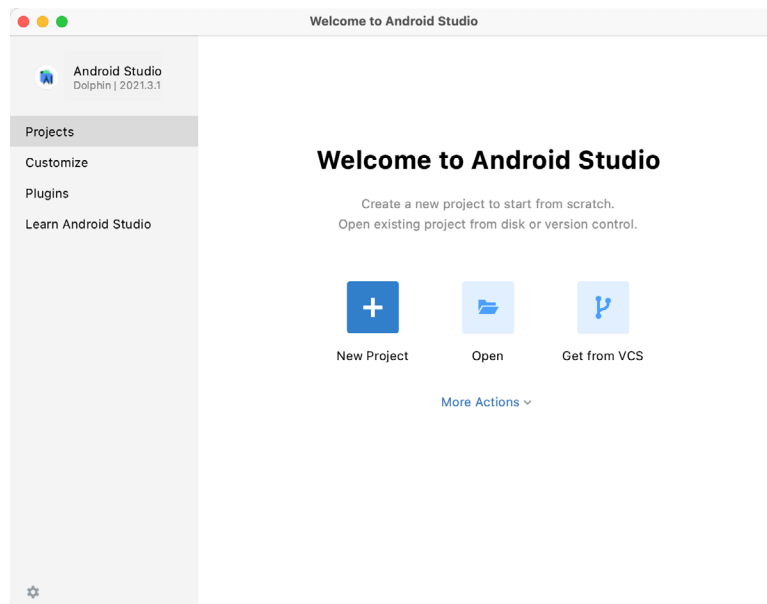


Figure 6-1

In addition to a list of recent projects, the welcome screen provides options for performing tasks such as opening and creating projects along with access to projects currently under version control. In addition, the *Customize* screen provides options to change the theme and font settings used by both the IDE and the editor. Android Studio plugins may be viewed, installed, and managed using the *Plugins* option.

Additional options are available by clicking on the menu button as shown in Figure 6-2:

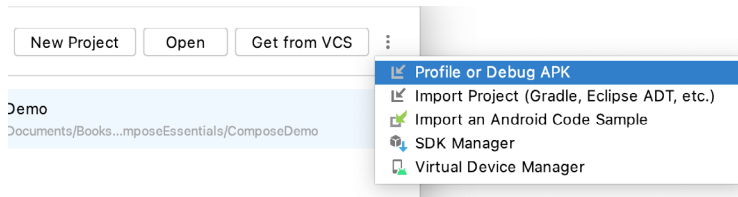


Figure 6-2

## 6.2 The Main Window

When a new project is created, or an existing one opened, the Android Studio *main window* will appear. When multiple projects are open simultaneously, each will be assigned its own main window. The precise configuration of the window will vary depending on which tools and panels were displayed the last time the project was open, but will typically resemble that of Figure 6-3.

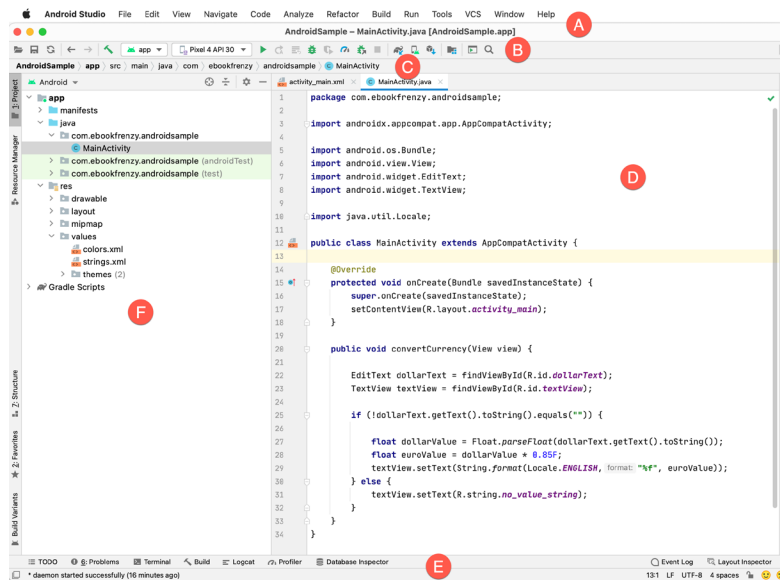


Figure 6-3

The various elements of the main window can be summarized as follows:

**A – Menu Bar** – Contains a range of menus for performing tasks within the Android Studio environment.

**B – Toolbar** – A selection of shortcuts to frequently performed actions. The toolbar buttons provide quick access to a select group of menu bar actions. The toolbar can be customized by right-clicking on the bar and selecting the *Customize Menus and Toolbars...* menu option. If the toolbar is not visible, it can be displayed using the *View -> Appearance -> Toolbar* menu option.

**C – Navigation Bar** – The navigation bar provides a convenient way to move around the files and folders that make up the project. Clicking on an element in the navigation bar will drop down a menu listing the sub-folders and files at that location ready for selection. Similarly, clicking on a class name displays a menu listing methods contained within that class. Select a method from the list to be taken to the corresponding location within the code editor. Hide and display this bar using the *View -> Appearance -> Navigation Bar* menu option.

**D – Editor Window** – The editor window displays the content of the file on which the developer is currently



working. When multiple files are open, each file is represented by a tab located along the top edge of the editor as shown in Figure 6-4:

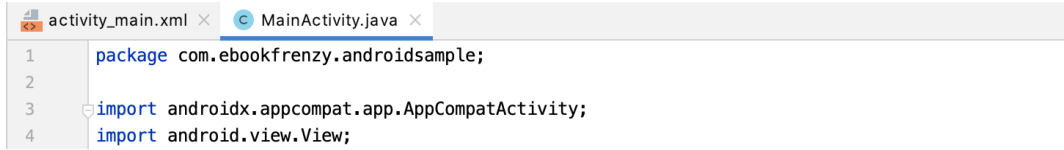


Figure 6-4

**E – Status Bar** – The status bar displays informational messages about the project and the activities of Android Studio together with the tools menu button located in the far left corner. Hovering over items in the status bar will display a description of that field. Many fields are interactive, allowing the user to click to perform tasks or obtain more detailed status information.

**F – Project Tool Window** – The project tool window provides a hierarchical overview of the project file structure allowing navigation to specific files and folders to be performed. The toolbar can be used to display the project in several different ways. The default setting is the *Android* view which is the mode primarily used in the remainder of this book.

The project tool window is just one of many tool windows available within the Android Studio environment.

## 6.3 The Tool Windows

In addition to the project view tool window, Android Studio also includes many other windows which, when enabled, are displayed along the bottom and sides of the main window. The tool window quick access menu can be displayed by hovering the mouse pointer over the button located in the far left-hand corner of the status bar (Figure 6-5) without clicking the mouse button.

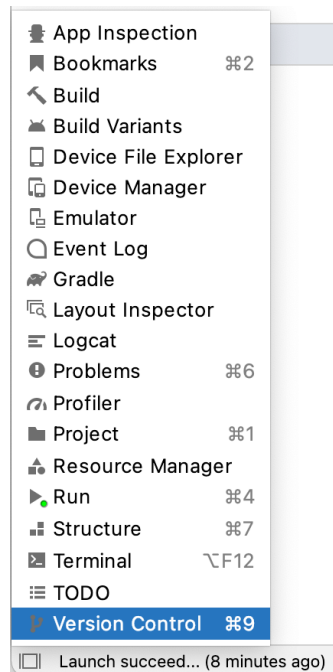


Figure 6-5

Selecting an item from the quick access menu will cause the corresponding tool window to appear within the

## A Tour of the Android Studio User Interface

main window.

Alternatively, a set of *tool window bars* can be displayed by clicking on the quick access menu icon in the status bar. These bars appear along the left, right, and bottom edges of the main window (as indicated by the arrows in Figure 6-6) and contain buttons for showing and hiding each of the tool windows. When the tool window bars are displayed, a second click on the button in the status bar will hide them.

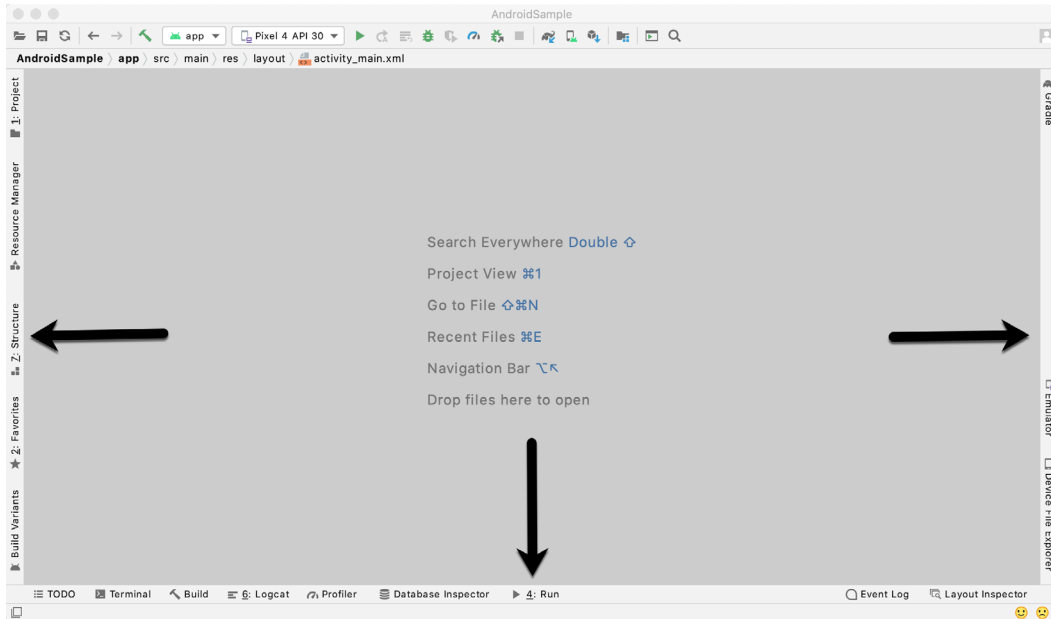


Figure 6-6

Clicking on a button will display the corresponding tool window while a second click will hide the window. Buttons prefixed with a number (for example 1: Project) indicate that the tool window may also be displayed by pressing the Alt key on the keyboard (or the Command key for macOS) together with the corresponding number.

The location of a button in a tool window bar indicates the side of the window against which the window will appear when displayed. These positions can be changed by clicking and dragging the buttons to different locations in other window toolbars.

Each tool window has its own toolbar along the top edge. The buttons within these toolbars vary from one tool to the next, though all tool windows contain a settings option, represented by the cog icon, which allows various aspects of the window to be changed. Figure 6-7 shows the settings menu for the Project tool window. Options are available, for example, to undock a window and to allow it to float outside of the boundaries of the Android Studio main window, and to move and resize the tool panel.

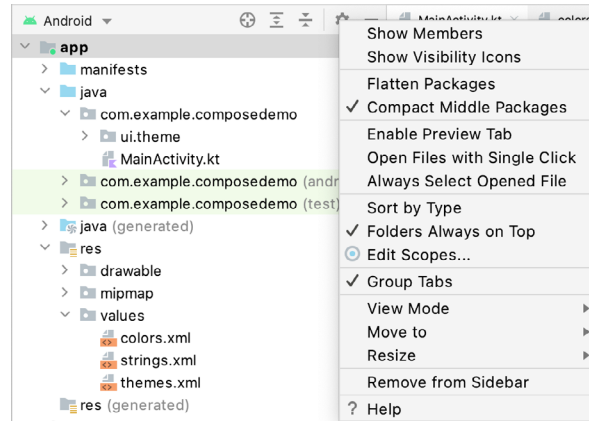


Figure 6-7

All of the windows also include a far-right button on the toolbar providing an additional way to hide the tool window from view. A search of the items within a tool window can be performed simply by giving that window focus by clicking in it and then typing the search term (for example the name of a file in the Project tool window). A search box will appear in the window's toolbar and items matching the search highlighted.

Android Studio offers a wide range of tool windows, the most commonly used of which are as follows:

- **App Inspector** - Provides access to the Database and Background Task inspectors. The Database Inspector allows you to inspect, query, and modify your app's databases while the app is running. The Background Task Inspector allows background worker tasks created using WorkManager to be monitored and managed.
- **Build** - The build tool window displays information about the build process while a project is being compiled and packaged and displays details of any errors encountered.
- **Build Variants** - The build variants tool window provides a quick way to configure different build targets for the current application project (for example different builds for debugging and release versions of the application, or multiple builds to target different device categories).
- **Device File Explorer** - Available via the *View -> Tool Windows -> Device File Explorer* menu, this tool window provides direct access to the filesystem of the currently connected Android device or emulator allowing the filesystem to be browsed and files copied to the local filesystem.
- **Device Manager** - Provides access to the Device Manager tool window where physical Android device connections and emulators may be added, removed, and managed.
- **Emulator** - Contains the AVD emulator if the option has been enabled to run the emulator in a tool window as outlined in the chapter entitled *"Creating an Android Virtual Device (AVD) in Android Studio"*.
- **Event Log** - The event log window displays messages relating to events and activities performed within Android Studio. The successful build of a project, for example, or the fact that an application is now running will be reported within this tool window.
- **Favorites** - A variety of project items can be added to the favorites list. Right-clicking on a file in the project view, for example, provides access to an *Add to Favorites* menu option. Similarly, a method in a source file can be added as a favorite by right-clicking on it in the Structure tool window. Anything added to a Favorites list can be accessed through this Favorites tool window.
- **Gradle** - The Gradle tool window provides a view of the Gradle tasks that make up the project build

configuration. The window lists the tasks that are involved in compiling the various elements of the project into an executable application. Right-click on a top-level Gradle task and select the *Open Gradle Config* menu option to load the Gradle build file for the current project into the editor. Gradle will be covered in greater detail later in this book.

- **Layout Inspector** - Provides a visual 3D rendering of the hierarchy of components that make up a user interface layout.
- **Logcat** – The Logcat tool window provides access to the monitoring log output from a running application in addition to options for taking screenshots and videos of the application and stopping and restarting a process.
- **Problems** - A central location in which to view all of the current errors or warnings within the project. Double-clicking on an item in the problem list will take you to the problem file and location.
- **Profiler** – The Android Profiler tool window provides real-time monitoring and analysis tools for identifying performance issues within running apps, including CPU, memory and network usage. This option becomes available when an app is currently running.
- **Project** – The project view provides an overview of the file structure that makes up the project allowing for quick navigation between files. Generally, double-clicking on a file in the project view will cause that file to be loaded into the appropriate editing tool.
- **Resource Manager** - A tool for adding and managing resources and assets such as images, colors, and layout files contained with the project.
- **Run** – The run tool window becomes available when an application is currently running and provides a view of the results of the run together with options to stop or restart a running process. If an application is failing to install and run on a device or emulator, this window will typically provide diagnostic information relating to the problem.
- **Structure** – The structure tool provides a high-level view of the structure of the source file currently displayed in the editor. This information includes a list of items such as classes, methods, and variables in the file. Selecting an item from the structure list will take you to that location in the source file in the editor window.
- **Terminal** – Provides access to a terminal window on the system on which Android Studio is running. On Windows systems, this is the Command Prompt interface, while on Linux and macOS systems this takes the form of a Terminal prompt.
- **TODO** – As the name suggests, this tool provides a place to review items that have yet to be completed on the project. Android Studio compiles this list by scanning the source files that make up the project to look for comments that match specified TODO patterns. These patterns can be reviewed and changed by selecting the *File -> Settings...* menu option (*Android Studio -> Preferences...* on macOS) and navigating to the *TODO* page listed under *Editor*.
- **Version Control** - This tool window is used when the project files are under source code version control, allowing access to Git repositories and code change history.

## 6.4 Android Studio Keyboard Shortcuts

Android Studio includes an abundance of keyboard shortcuts designed to save time when performing common tasks. A full keyboard shortcut keymap listing can be viewed and printed from within the Android Studio project window by selecting the *Help -> Keymap Reference* menu option. You may also list and modify the keyboard shortcuts by selecting the *File -> Settings...* menu option (*Android Studio -> Preferences...* on macOS) and clicking on the Keymap entry as shown in Figure 6-8 below:

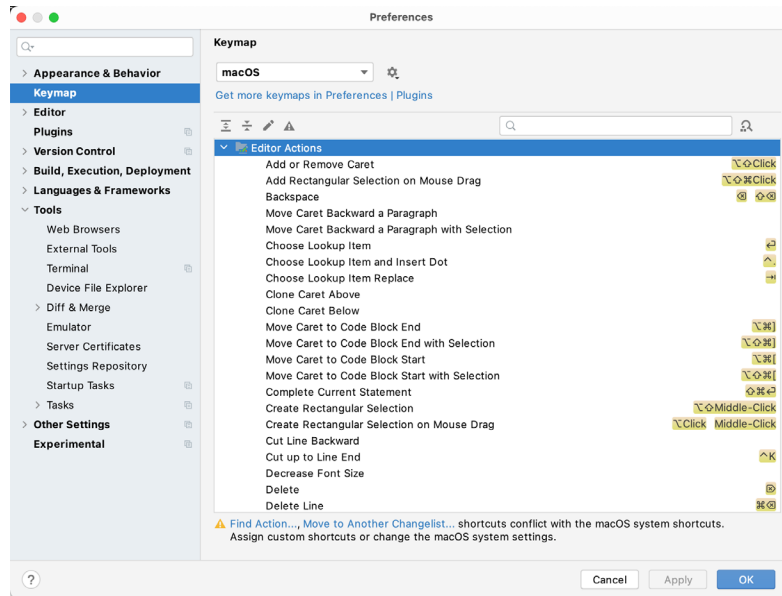


Figure 6-8

## 6.5 Switcher and Recent Files Navigation

Another useful mechanism for navigating within the Android Studio main window involves the use of the *Switcher*. Accessed via the Ctrl-Tab keyboard shortcut, the switcher appears as a panel listing both the tool windows and currently open files (Figure 6-9).

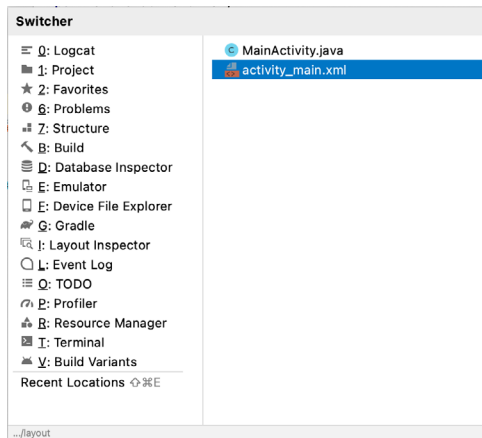


Figure 6-9

Once displayed, the switcher will remain visible for as long as the Ctrl key remains depressed. Repeatedly tapping the Tab key while holding down the Ctrl key will cycle through the various selection options while releasing the Ctrl key causes the currently highlighted item to be selected and displayed within the main window.

In addition to the switcher, navigation to recently opened files is provided by the Recent Files panel (Figure 6-10). This can be accessed using the Ctrl-E keyboard shortcut (Cmd-E on macOS). Once displayed, either the mouse pointer can be used to select an option or the keyboard arrow keys used to scroll through the file name and tool window options. Pressing the Enter key will select the currently highlighted item.

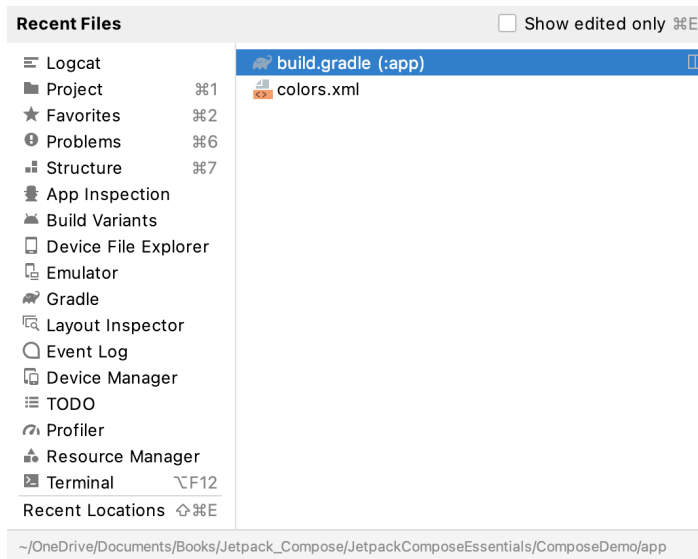


Figure 6-10

## 6.6 Changing the Android Studio Theme

The overall theme of the Android Studio environment may be changed either from the welcome screen using the *Configure -> Settings* option or via the *File -> Settings...* menu option (*Android Studio -> Preferences...* on macOS) of the main window.

Once the settings dialog is displayed, select the *Appearance & Behavior* option followed by *Appearance* in the left-hand panel and then change the setting of the *Theme* menu before clicking on the *Apply* button. The themes available will depend on the platform but usually include options such as Light, IntelliJ, Windows, High Contrast, and Darcula. Figure 6-11 shows an example of the main window with the Darcula theme selected:

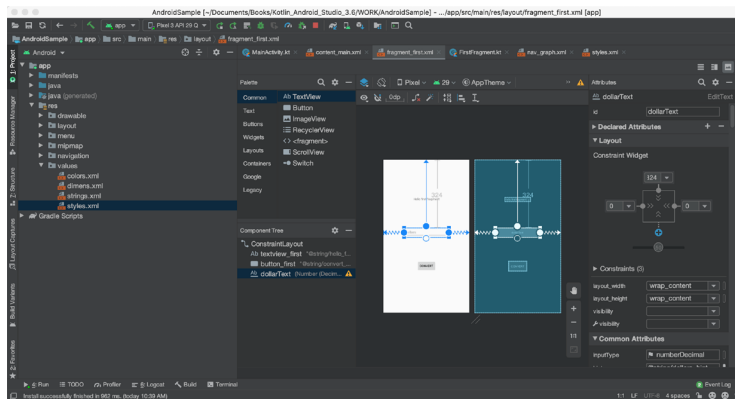


Figure 6-11

To synchronize the Android Studio theme with the operating system light and dark mode setting, enable the *Sync with OS* option and use the drop-down menu to control which theme to use for each mode:

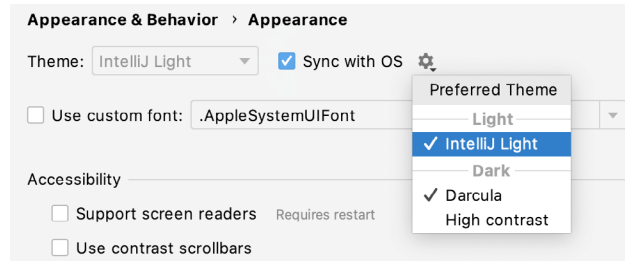


Figure 6-12

## 6.7 Summary

The primary elements of the Android Studio environment consist of the welcome screen and main window. Each open project is assigned its own main window which, in turn, consists of a menu bar, toolbar, editing and design area, status bar, and a collection of tool windows. Tool windows appear on the sides and bottom edges of the main window and can be accessed either using the quick access menu located in the status bar or via the optional tool window bars.

There are very few actions within Android Studio that cannot be triggered via a keyboard shortcut. A keymap of default keyboard shortcuts can be accessed at any time from within the Android Studio main window.





## 8. The Basics of the Android Studio Code Editor

Developing applications for Android involves a considerable amount of programming work which, by definition, involves typing, reviewing and modifying lines of code. It should come as no surprise that the majority of a developer's time spent using Android Studio will typically involve editing code within the editor window.

The modern code editor needs to go far beyond the original basics of typing, deleting, cutting and pasting. Today the usefulness of a code editor is generally gauged by factors such as the amount by which it reduces the typing required by the programmer, ease of navigation through large source code files and the editor's ability to detect and highlight programming errors in real-time as the code is being written. As will become evident in this chapter, these are just a few of the areas in which the Android Studio editor excels.

While not an exhaustive overview of the features of the Android Studio editor, this chapter aims to provide a guide to the key features of the tool. Experienced programmers will find that some of these features are common to most code editors available today, while a number are unique to this particular editing environment.

### 8.1 The Android Studio Editor

The Android Studio editor appears in the center of the main window when a Java, Kotlin, XML or other text based file is selected for editing. Figure 8-1, for example, shows a typical editor session with a Java source code file loaded:

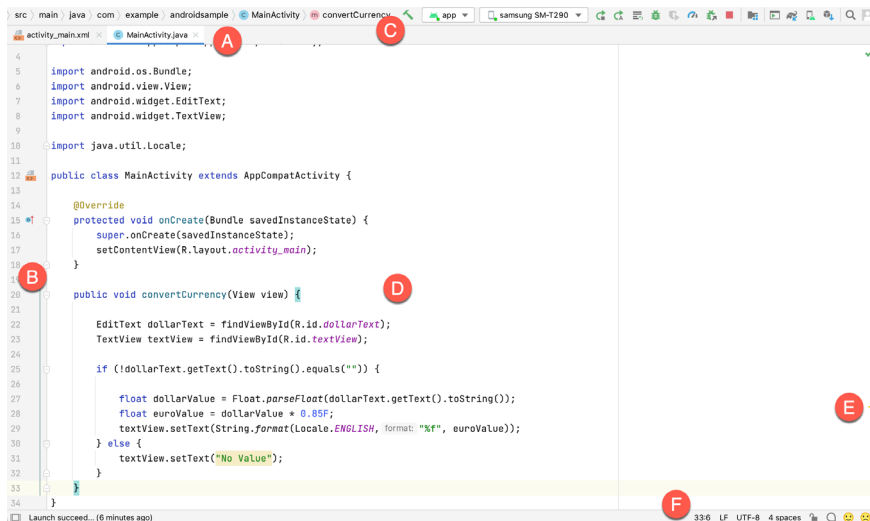


Figure 8-1

The elements that comprise the editor window can be summarized as follows:

**A – Document Tabs** – Android Studio is capable of holding multiple files open for editing at any one time. As each file is opened, it is assigned a document tab displaying the file name in the tab bar located along the top

edge of the editor window. A small drop-down menu will appear in the far right-hand corner of the tab bar when there is insufficient room to display all of the tabs. Clicking on this menu will drop down a list of additional open files. A wavy red line underneath a file name in a tab indicates that the code in the file contains one or more errors that need to be addressed before the project can be compiled and run.

Switching between files is simply a matter of clicking on the corresponding tab or using the Alt-Left and Alt-Right keyboard shortcuts. Navigation between files may also be performed using the Switcher mechanism (accessible via the Ctrl-Tab keyboard shortcut).

To detach an editor panel from the Android Studio main window so that it appears in a separate window, click on the tab and drag it to an area on the desktop outside of the main window. To return the editor to the main window, click on the file tab in the separated editor window and drag and drop it onto the original editor tab bar in the main window.

**B – The Editor Gutter Area** - The gutter area is used by the editor to display informational icons and controls. Some typical items, among others, which appear in this gutter area are debugging breakpoint markers, controls to fold and unfold blocks of code, bookmarks, change markers and line numbers. Line numbers are switched on by default but may be disabled by right-clicking in the gutter and selecting the Show Line Numbers menu option.

**C – Code Structure Location** - This bar at the top of the editor displays the current position of the cursor as it relates to the overall structure of the code. In the following figure, for example, the bar indicates that the `convertCurrency` method is currently being edited, and that this method is contained within the `MainActivity` class.

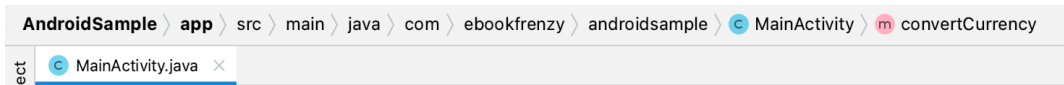


Figure 8-2

Double-clicking an element within the bar will move the cursor to the corresponding location within the code file. For example, double-clicking on the `convertCurrency` entry will move the cursor to the top of the `convertCurrency` method within the source code. Similarly clicking on the `MainActivity` entry will drop down a list of available code navigation points for selection:

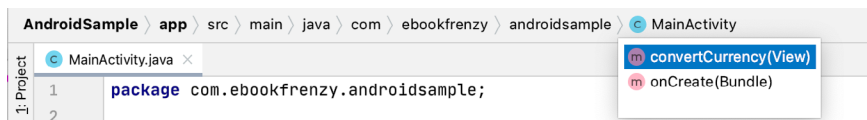


Figure 8-3

**D – The Editor Area** – This is the main area where the code is displayed, entered and edited by the user. Later sections of this chapter will cover the key features of the editing area in detail.

**E – The Validation and Marker Sidebar** – Android Studio incorporates a feature referred to as “on-the-fly code analysis”. What this essentially means is that as you are typing code, the editor is analyzing the code to check for warnings and syntax errors. The indicators at the top of the validation sidebar will update in real-time to indicate the number of errors and warnings found as code is added. Clicking on this indicator will display a popup containing a summary of the issues found with the code in the editor as illustrated in Figure 8-4:

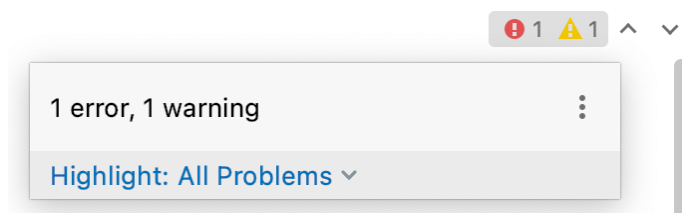


Figure 8-4

The up and down arrows may be used to move between the error locations within the code. A green check mark indicates that no warnings or errors have been detected.

The sidebar also displays markers at the locations where issues have been detected using the same color coding. Hovering the mouse pointer over a marker when the line of code is visible in the editor area will display a popup containing a description of the issue:

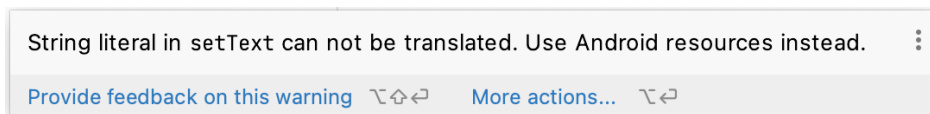


Figure 8-5

Hovering the mouse pointer over a marker for a line of code which is currently scrolled out of the viewing area of the editor will display a “lens” overlay containing the block of code where the problem is located (Figure 8-6) allowing it to be viewed without the necessity to scroll to that location in the editor:

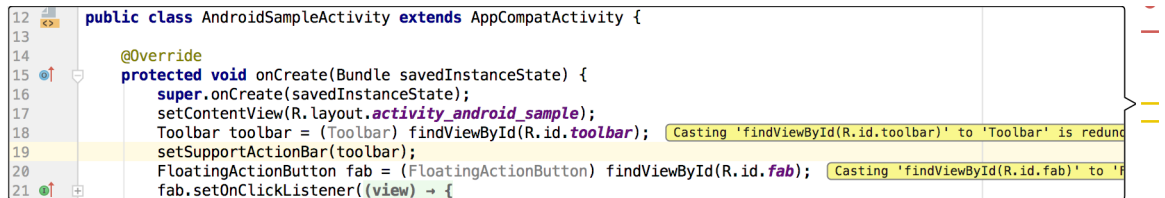


Figure 8-6

It is also worth noting that the lens overlay is not limited to warnings and errors in the sidebar. Hovering over any part of the sidebar will result in a lens appearing containing the code present at that location within the source file.

**F – The Status Bar** – Though the status bar is actually part of the main window, as opposed to the editor, it does contain some information about the currently active editing session. This information includes the current position of the cursor in terms of lines and characters and the encoding format of the file (UTF-8, ASCII etc.). Clicking on these values in the status bar allows the corresponding setting to be changed. Clicking on the line number, for example, displays the Go to Line dialog.

Having provided an overview of the elements that comprise the Android Studio editor, the remainder of this chapter will explore the key features of the editing environment in more detail.

## 8.2 Splitting the Editor Window

By default, the editor will display a single panel showing the content of the currently selected file. A particularly useful feature when working simultaneously with multiple source code files is the ability to split the editor into multiple panes. To split the editor, right-click on a file tab within the editor window and select either the Split Vertically or Split Horizontally menu option. Figure 8-7, for example, shows the splitter in action with the editor

split into three panels:

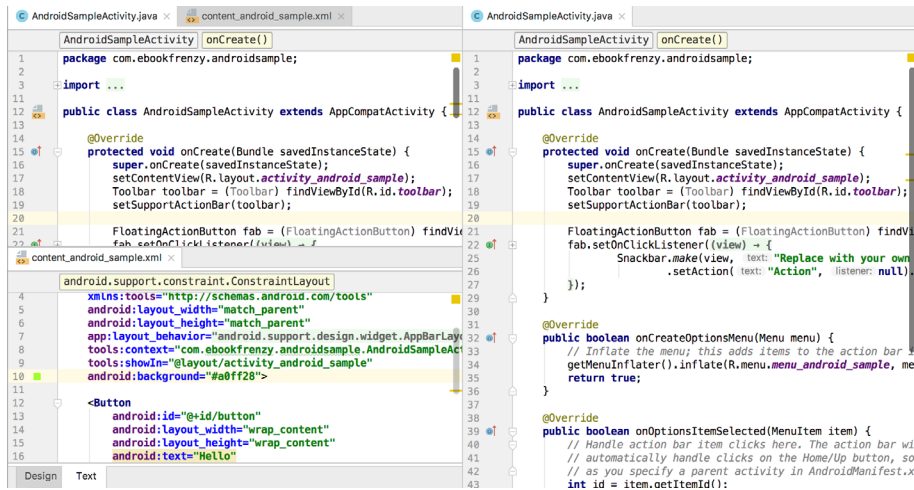


Figure 8-7

The orientation of a split panel may be changed at any time by right-clicking on the corresponding tab and selecting the Change Splitter Orientation menu option. Repeat these steps to unsplit a single panel, this time selecting the Unsplit option from the menu. All of the split panels may be removed by right-clicking on any tab and selecting the Unsplit All menu option.

Window splitting may be used to display different files, or to provide multiple windows onto the same file, allowing different areas of the same file to be viewed and edited concurrently.

## 8.3 Code Completion

The Android Studio editor has a considerable amount of built-in knowledge of Java programming syntax and the classes and methods that make up the Android SDK, as well as knowledge of your own code base. As code is typed, the editor scans what is being typed and, where appropriate, makes suggestions with regard to what might be needed to complete a statement or reference. When a completion suggestion is detected by the editor, a panel will appear containing a list of suggestions. In Figure 8-8, for example, the editor is suggesting possibilities for the beginning of a String declaration:

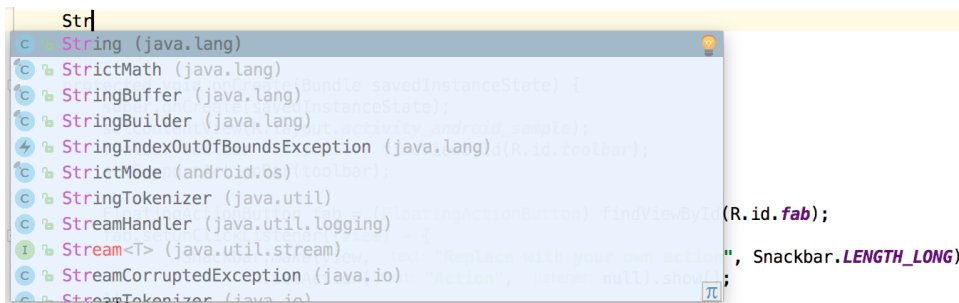


Figure 8-8

If none of the auto completion suggestions are correct, simply keep typing and the editor will continue to refine the suggestions where appropriate. To accept the top most suggestion, simply press the Enter or Tab key on the keyboard. To select a different suggestion, use the arrow keys to move up and down the list, once again using the Enter or Tab key to select the highlighted item.

Completion suggestions can be manually invoked using the Ctrl-Space keyboard sequence. This can be useful when changing a word or declaration in the editor. When the cursor is positioned over a word in the editor, that word will automatically highlight. Pressing Ctrl-Space will display a list of alternate suggestions. To replace the current word with the currently highlighted item in the suggestion list, simply press the Tab key.

In addition to the real-time auto completion feature, the Android Studio editor also offers a system referred to as Smart Completion. Smart completion is invoked using the Shift-Ctrl-Space keyboard sequence and, when selected, will provide more detailed suggestions based on the current context of the code. Pressing the Shift-Ctrl-Space shortcut sequence a second time will provide more suggestions from a wider range of possibilities.

Code completion can be a matter of personal preference for many programmers. In recognition of this fact, Android Studio provides a high level of control over the auto completion settings. These can be viewed and modified by selecting the *File -> Settings...* menu option (or *Android Studio -> Preferences...* on macOS) and choosing *Editor -> General -> Code Completion* from the settings panel as shown in Figure 8-9:

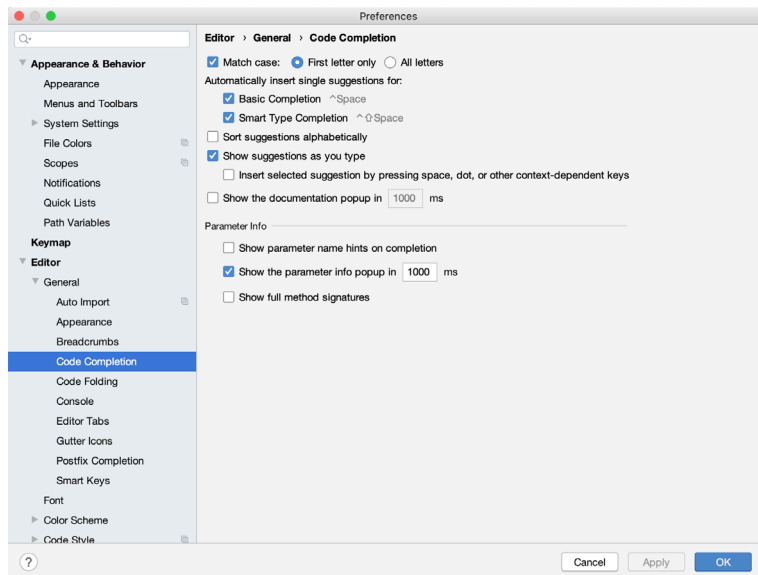


Figure 8-9

## 8.4 Statement Completion

Another form of auto completion provided by the Android Studio editor is statement completion. This can be used to automatically fill out the parentheses and braces for items such as methods and loop statements. Statement completion is invoked using the *Shift-Ctrl-Enter* (*Shift-Cmd-Enter* on macOS) keyboard sequence. Consider for example the following code:

```
myMethod()
```

Having typed this code into the editor, triggering statement completion will cause the editor to automatically add the braces to the method:

```
myMethod() {  
  
}
```

## 8.5 Parameter Information

It is also possible to ask the editor to provide information about the argument parameters accepted by a method. With the cursor positioned between the brackets of a method call, the Ctrl-P (Cmd-P on macOS) keyboard sequence will display the parameters known to be accepted by that method, with the most likely suggestion highlighted in bold:

```
String myButtonText = mystring.replaceAll();
```

**@NonNull String regex, @NonNull String replacement**

Figure 8-10

## 8.6 Parameter Name Hints

The code editor may be configured to display parameter name hints within method calls. Figure 8-11, for example, highlights the parameter name hints within the calls to the *make()* and *setAction()* methods of the *Snackbar* class:

```
FloatingActionButton fab = (FloatingActionButton) findViewById(R.id.fab);
fab.setOnClickListener((view) -> {
    Snackbar.make(view, text: "Replace with your own action", Snackbar.LENGTH_LONG)
               .setAction(text: "Action", listener: null).show();
});
```

Figure 8-11

The settings for this mode may be configured by selecting the *File -> Settings* menu (*Android Studio -> Preferences* on macOS) option followed by *Editor -> Inlay Hints -> Java* in the left-hand panel. On the resulting screen, select the *Parameter Hints* item from the list and enable or disable the *Show parameter hints* option. To adjust the hint settings, click on the *Exclude list...* link and make any necessary adjustments.

## 8.7 Code Generation

In addition to completing code as it is typed the editor can, under certain conditions, also generate code for you. The list of available code generation options shown in Figure 8-12 can be accessed using the Alt-Insert (Cmd-N on macOS) keyboard shortcut when the cursor is at the location in the file where the code is to be generated.

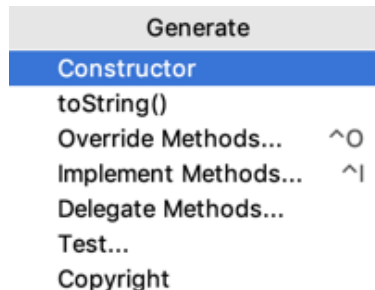


Figure 8-12

For the purposes of an example, consider a situation where we want to be notified when an Activity in our project is about to be destroyed by the operating system. As will be outlined in a later chapter of this book, this can be achieved by overriding the *onStop()* lifecycle method of the Activity superclass. To have Android Studio generate a stub method for this, simply select the *Override Methods...* option from the code generation list and

select the `onStop()` method from the resulting list of available methods:

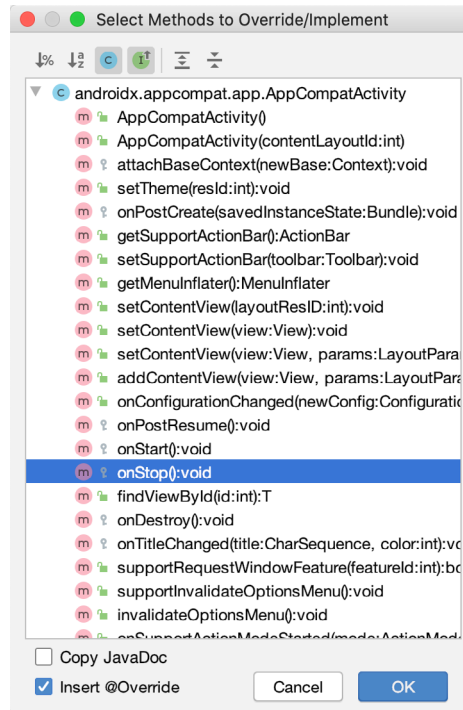


Figure 8-13

Having selected the method to override, clicking on OK will generate the stub method at the current cursor location in the Java source file as follows:

```
@Override
protected void onStop() {
    super.onStop();
}
```

## 8.8 Code Folding

Once a source code file reaches a certain size, even the most carefully formatted and well organized code can become overwhelming and difficult to navigate. Android Studio takes the view that it is not always necessary to have the content of every code block visible at all times. Code navigation can be made easier through the use of the code folding feature of the Android Studio editor. Code folding is controlled using markers appearing in the editor gutter at the beginning and end of each block of code in a source file. Figure 8-14, for example, highlights the start and end markers for a method declaration which is not currently folded:

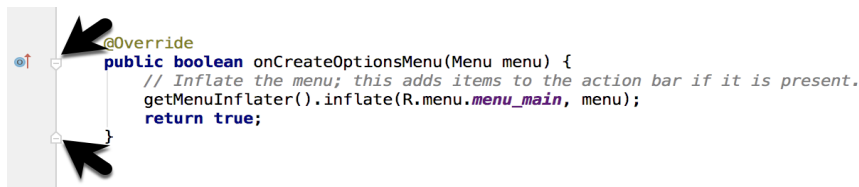


Figure 8-14

Clicking on either of these markers will fold the statement such that only the signature line is visible as shown

in Figure 8-15:

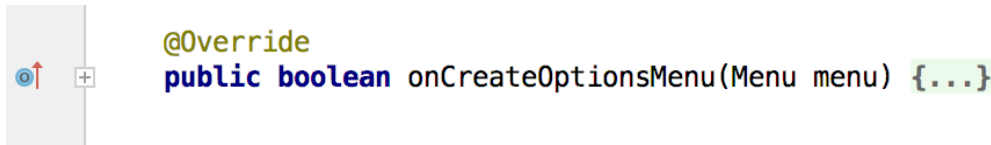


Figure 8-15

To unfold a collapsed section of code, simply click on the '+' marker in the editor gutter. To see the hidden code without unfolding it, hover the mouse pointer over the "{...}" indicator as shown in Figure 8-16. The editor will then display the lens overlay containing the folded code block:

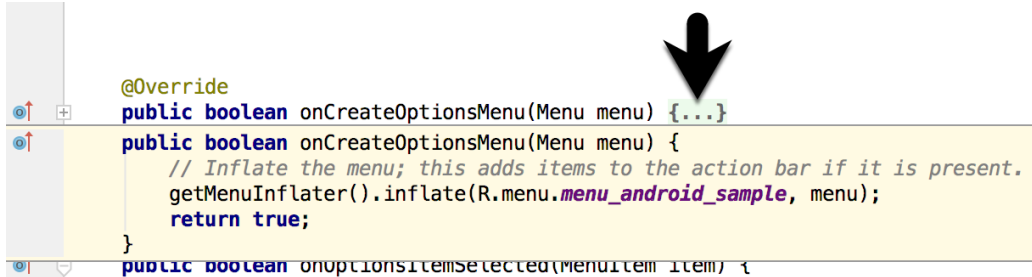


Figure 8-16

All of the code blocks in a file may be folded or unfolded using the Ctrl-Shift-Plus and Ctrl-Shift-Minus keyboard sequences.

By default, the Android Studio editor will automatically fold some code when a source file is opened. To configure the conditions under which this happens, select File -> Settings... (Android Studio -> Preferences... on macOS) and choose the Editor -> General -> Code Folding entry in the resulting settings panel (Figure 8-17):

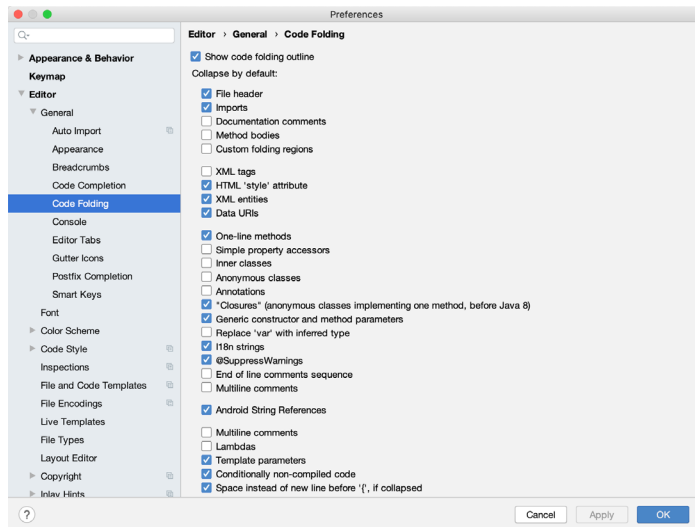


Figure 8-17

## 8.9 Quick Documentation Lookup

Context sensitive Java and Android documentation can be accessed by placing the cursor over the declaration for which documentation is required and pressing the Ctrl-Q keyboard shortcut (Ctrl-J on macOS). This will



display a popup containing the relevant reference documentation for the item. Figure 8-18, for example, shows the documentation for the Android `FloatingActionButton` class.



Figure 8-18

Once displayed, the documentation popup can be moved around the screen as needed.

## 8.10 Code Reformatting

In general, the Android Studio editor will automatically format code in terms of indenting, spacing and nesting of statements and code blocks as they are added. In situations where lines of code need to be reformatted (a common occurrence, for example, when cutting and pasting sample code from a website), the editor provides a source code reformatting feature which, when selected, will automatically reformat code to match the prevailing code style.

To reformat source code, press the `Ctrl-Alt-L` (`Cmd-Opt-L` on macOS) keyboard shortcut sequence. To display the Reformat Code dialog (Figure 8-19) use the `Ctrl-Alt-Shift-L` (`Cmd-Opt-Shift-L` on macOS). This dialog provides the option to reformat only the currently selected code, the entire source file currently active in the editor or only code that has changed as the result of a source code control update.

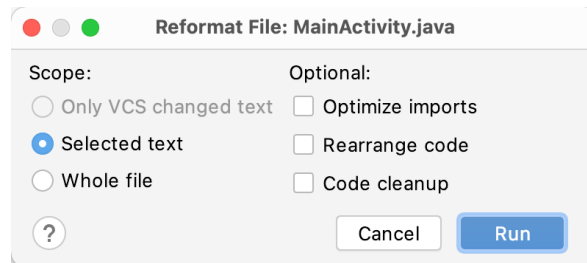


Figure 8-19

The full range of code style preferences can be changed from within the project settings dialog. Select the *File* -> *Settings* menu option (*Android Studio* -> *Preferences...* on macOS) and choose Code Style in the left-hand panel to access a list of supported programming and markup languages. Selecting a language will provide access to a vast array of formatting style options, all of which may be modified from the Android Studio default to match your preferred code style. To configure the settings for the Rearrange code option in the above dialog, for example, unfold the Code Style section, select Java and, from the Java settings, select the Arrangement tab.

## 8.11 Finding Sample Code

The Android Studio editor provides a way to access sample code relating to the currently highlighted entry within the code listing. This feature can be useful for learning how a particular Android class or method is used. To find sample code, highlight a method or class name in the editor, right-click on it and select the *Find Sample Code* menu option. The Find Sample Code panel (Figure 8-20) will appear beneath the editor with a list of matching samples. Selecting a sample from the list will load the corresponding code into the right-hand panel:

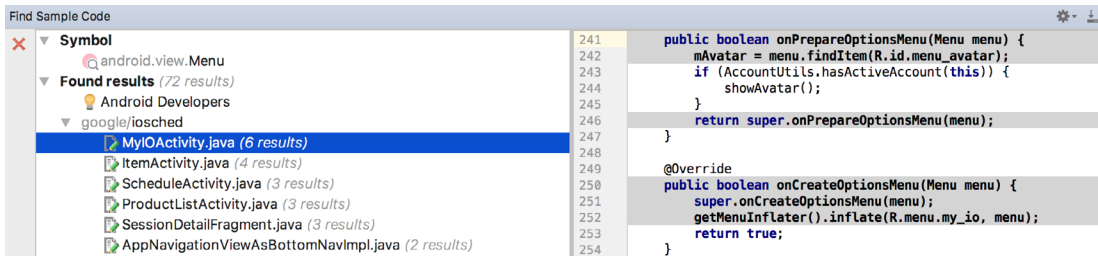


Figure 8-20

## 8.12 Live Templates

As you write Android code you will find that there are common constructs that are used frequently. For example, a common requirement is to display a popup message to the user using the Android Toast class. Live templates are a collection of common code constructs that can be entered into the editor by typing the initial characters followed by a special key (set to the Tab key by default) to insert template code. To experience this in action, type toast in the code editor followed by the Tab key and Android Studio will insert the following code at the cursor position ready for editing:

```
Toast.makeText(, "", Toast.LENGTH_SHORT).show();
```

To list and edit existing templates, change the special key, or add your own templates, open the Preferences dialog and select Live Templates from the Editor section of the left-hand navigation panel:

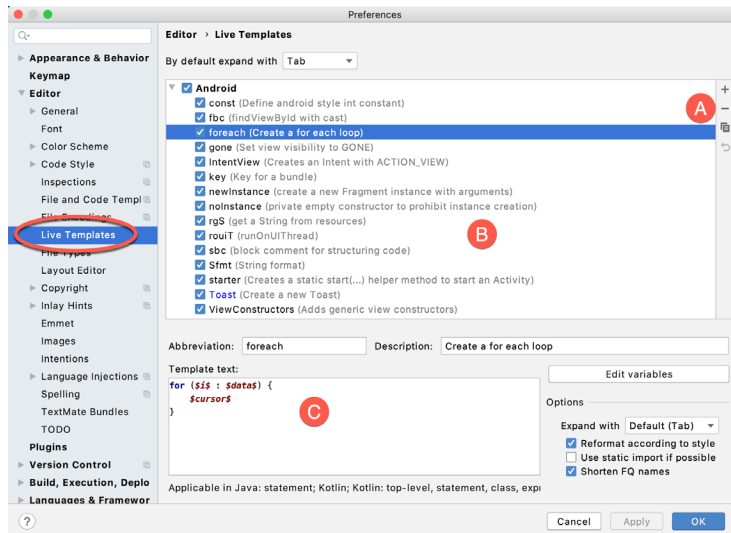


Figure 8-21

Add, remove, duplicate or reset templates using the buttons marked A in Figure 8-21 above. To modify a template, select it from the list (B) and change the settings in the panel marked C.

## 8.13 Summary

The Android Studio editor goes to great length to reduce the amount of typing needed to write code and to make that code easier to read and navigate. In this chapter we have covered a number of the key editor features including code completion, code generation, editor window splitting, code folding, reformatting, documentation lookup and live templates.

## 12. Understanding Android Application and Activity Lifecycles

In earlier chapters we have learned that Android applications run within processes and that they are comprised of multiple components in the form of activities, services and broadcast receivers. The goal of this chapter is to expand on this knowledge by looking at the lifecycle of applications and activities within the Android runtime system.

Regardless of the fanfare about how much memory and computing power resides in the mobile devices of today compared to the desktop systems of yesterday, it is important to keep in mind that these devices are still considered to be “resource constrained” by the standards of modern desktop and laptop based systems, particularly in terms of memory. As such, a key responsibility of the Android system is to ensure that these limited resources are managed effectively and that both the operating system and the applications running on it remain responsive to the user at all times. To achieve this, Android is given full control over the lifecycle and state of both the processes in which the applications run, and the individual components that comprise those applications.

An important factor in developing Android applications, therefore, is to gain an understanding of both the application and activity lifecycle management models of Android, and the ways in which an application can react to the state changes that are likely to be imposed upon it during its execution lifetime.

### 12.1 Android Applications and Resource Management

Each running Android application is viewed by the operating system as a separate process. If the system identifies that resources on the device are reaching capacity it will take steps to terminate processes to free up memory.

When making a determination as to which process to terminate to free up memory, the system takes into consideration both the *priority* and *state* of all currently running processes, combining these factors to create what is referred to by Google as an *importance hierarchy*. Processes are then terminated starting with the lowest priority and working up the hierarchy until sufficient resources have been liberated for the system to function.

### 12.2 Android Process States

Processes host applications and applications are made up of components. Within an Android system, the current state of a process is defined by the highest-ranking active component within the application that it hosts. As outlined in Figure 12-1, a process can be in one of the following five states at any given time:

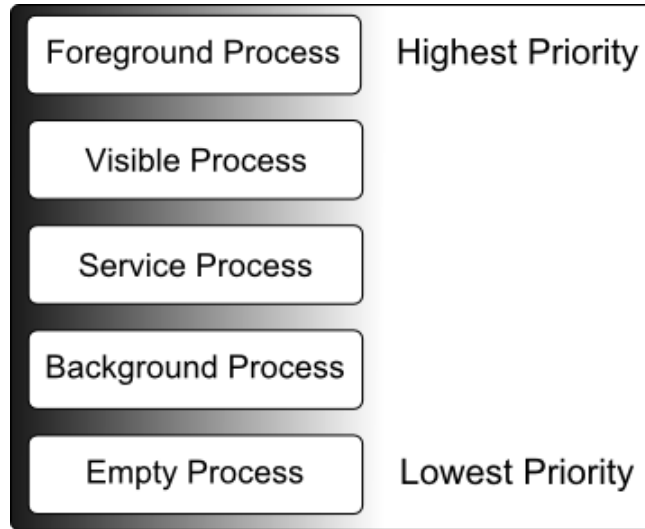


Figure 12-1

### 12.2.1 Foreground Process

These processes are assigned the highest level of priority. At any one time, there are unlikely to be more than one or two foreground processes active and these are usually the last to be terminated by the system. A process must meet one or more of the following criteria to qualify for foreground status:

- Hosts an activity with which the user is currently interacting.
- Hosts a Service connected to the activity with which the user is interacting.
- Hosts a Service that has indicated, via a call to *startForeground()*, that termination would be disruptive to the user experience.
- Hosts a Service executing either its *onCreate()*, *onResume()* or *onStart()* callbacks.
- Hosts a Broadcast Receiver that is currently executing its *onReceive()* method.

### 12.2.2 Visible Process

A process containing an activity that is visible to the user but is not the activity with which the user is interacting is classified as a “visible process”. This is typically the case when an activity in the process is visible to the user, but another activity, such as a partial screen or dialog, is in the foreground. A process is also eligible for visible status if it hosts a Service that is, itself, bound to a visible or foreground activity.

### 12.2.3 Service Process

Processes that contain a Service that has already been started and is currently executing.

### 12.2.4 Background Process

A process that contains one or more activities that are not currently visible to the user, and does not host a Service that qualifies for *Service Process* status. Processes that fall into this category are at high risk of termination if additional memory needs to be freed for higher priority processes. Android maintains a dynamic list of background processes, terminating processes in chronological order such that processes that were the least recently in the foreground are killed first.

### 12.2.5 Empty Process

Empty processes no longer contain any active applications and are held in memory ready to serve as hosts for newly launched applications. This is somewhat analogous to keeping the doors open and the engine running on a bus in anticipation of passengers arriving. Such processes are, obviously, considered the lowest priority and are the first to be killed to free up resources.

### 12.3 Inter-Process Dependencies

The situation with regard to determining the highest priority process is slightly more complex than outlined in the preceding section for the simple reason that processes can often be inter-dependent. As such, when making a determination as to the priority of a process, the Android system will also take into consideration whether the process is in some way serving another process of higher priority (for example, a service process acting as the content provider for a foreground process). As a basic rule, the Android documentation states that a process can never be ranked lower than another process that it is currently serving.

### 12.4 The Activity Lifecycle

As we have previously determined, the state of an Android process is determined largely by the status of the activities and components that make up the application that it hosts. It is important to understand, therefore, that these activities also transition through different states during the execution lifetime of an application. The current state of an activity is determined, in part, by its position in something called the *Activity Stack*.

### 12.5 The Activity Stack

For each application that is running on an Android device, the runtime system maintains an *Activity Stack*. When an application is launched, the first of the application's activities to be started is placed onto the stack. When a second activity is started, it is placed on the top of the stack and the previous activity is *pushed* down. The activity at the top of the stack is referred to as the *active* (or *running*) activity. When the active activity exits, it is *popped* off the stack by the runtime and the activity located immediately beneath it in the stack becomes the current active activity. The activity at the top of the stack might, for example, simply exit because the task for which it is responsible has been completed. Alternatively, the user may have selected a "Back" button on the screen to return to the previous activity, causing the current activity to be popped off the stack by the runtime system and therefore destroyed. A visual representation of the Android Activity Stack is illustrated in Figure 12-2.

As shown in the diagram, new activities are pushed on to the top of the stack when they are started. The current active activity is located at the top of the stack until it is either pushed down the stack by a new activity, or popped off the stack when it exits or the user navigates to the previous activity. If resources become constrained, the runtime will kill activities, starting with those at the bottom of the stack.

The Activity Stack is what is referred to in programming terminology as a Last-In-First-Out (LIFO) stack in that the last item to be pushed onto the stack is the first to be popped off.

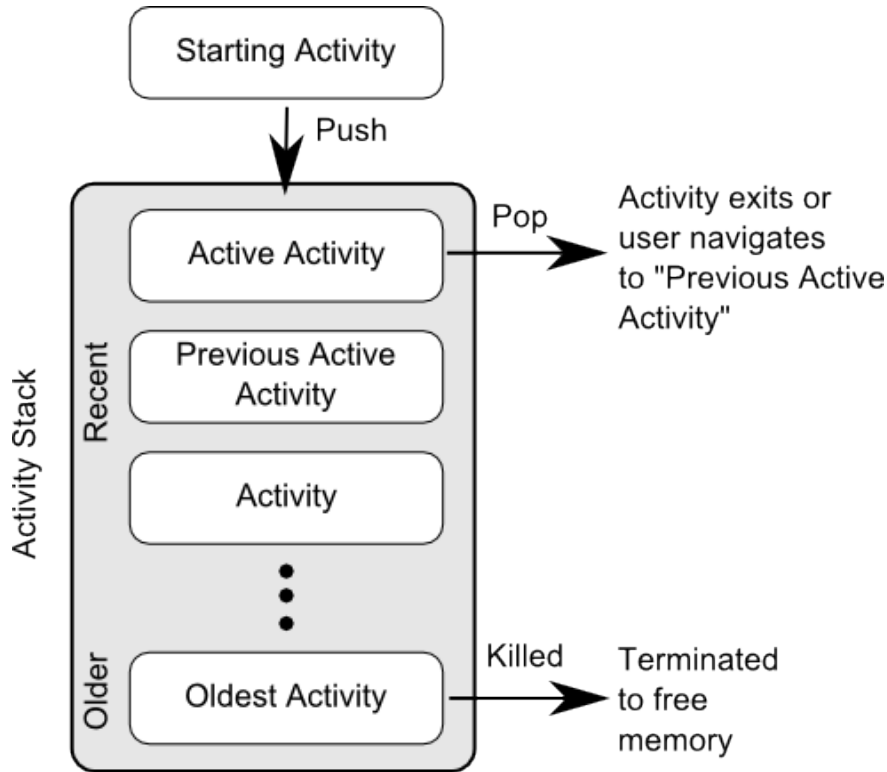


Figure 12-2

## 12.6 Activity States

An activity can be in one of a number of different states during the course of its execution within an application:

- **Active / Running** – The activity is at the top of the Activity Stack, is the foreground task visible on the device screen, has focus and is currently interacting with the user. This is the least likely activity to be terminated in the event of a resource shortage.
- **Paused** – The activity is visible to the user but does not currently have focus (typically because this activity is partially obscured by the current *active* activity). Paused activities are held in memory, remain attached to the window manager, retain all state information and can quickly be restored to active status when moved to the top of the Activity Stack.
- **Stopped** – The activity is currently not visible to the user (in other words it is totally obscured on the device display by other activities). As with paused activities, it retains all state and member information, but is at higher risk of termination in low memory situations.
- **Killed** – The activity has been terminated by the runtime system in order to free up memory and is no longer present on the Activity Stack. Such activities must be restarted if required by the application.

## 12.7 Configuration Changes

So far in this chapter, we have looked at two of the causes for the change in state of an Android activity, namely the movement of an activity between the foreground and background, and termination of an activity by the runtime system to free up memory. In fact, there is a third scenario in which the state of an activity can dramatically change and this involves a change to the device configuration.

By default, any configuration change that impacts the appearance of an activity (such as rotating the orientation of the device between portrait and landscape, or changing a system font setting) will cause the activity to be destroyed and recreated. The reasoning behind this is that such changes affect resources such as the layout of the user interface and simply destroying and recreating impacted activities is the quickest way for an activity to respond to the configuration change. It is, however, possible to configure an activity so that it is not restarted by the system in response to specific configuration changes.

## 12.8 Handling State Change

If nothing else, it should be clear from this chapter that an application and, by definition, the components contained therein will transition through many states during the course of its lifespan. Of particular importance is the fact that these state changes (up to and including complete termination) are imposed upon the application by the Android runtime subject to the actions of the user and the availability of resources on the device.

In practice, however, these state changes are not imposed entirely without notice and an application will, in most circumstances, be notified by the runtime system of the changes and given the opportunity to react accordingly. This will typically involve saving or restoring both internal data structures and user interface state, thereby allowing the user to switch seamlessly between applications and providing at least the appearance of multiple, concurrently running applications.

Android provides two ways to handle the changes to the lifecycle states of the objects within in app. One approach involves responding to state change method calls from the operating system and is covered in detail in the next chapter entitled “*Handling Android Activity State Changes*”.

A new approach, and one that is recommended by Google, involves the lifecycle classes included with the Jetpack Android Architecture components, introduced in “*Modern Android App Architecture with Jetpack*” and explained in more detail in the chapter entitled “*Working with Android Lifecycle-Aware Components*”.

## 12.9 Summary

Mobile devices are typically considered to be resource constrained, particularly in terms of on-board memory capacity. Consequently, a prime responsibility of the Android operating system is to ensure that applications, and the operating system in general, remain responsive to the user.

Applications are hosted on Android within processes. Each application, in turn, is made up of components in the form of activities and Services.

The Android runtime system has the power to terminate both processes and individual activities to free up memory. Process state is taken into consideration by the runtime system when deciding whether a process is a suitable candidate for termination. The state of a process is largely dependent upon the status of the activities hosted by that process.

The key message of this chapter is that an application moves through a variety of states during its execution lifespan and has very little control over its destiny within the Android runtime environment. Those processes and activities that are not directly interacting with the user run a higher risk of termination by the runtime system. An essential element of Android application development, therefore, involves the ability of an application to respond to state change notifications from the operating system.





## 13. Handling Android Activity State Changes

Based on the information outlined in the chapter entitled “*Understanding Android Application and Activity Lifecycles*” it is now evident that the activities and fragments that make up an application pass through a variety of different states during the course of the application’s lifespan. The change from one state to the other is imposed by the Android runtime system and is, therefore, largely beyond the control of the activity itself. That does not, however, mean that the app cannot react to those changes and take appropriate actions.

The primary objective of this chapter is to provide a high-level overview of the ways in which an activity may be notified of a state change and to outline the areas where it is advisable to save or restore state information. Having covered this information, the chapter will then touch briefly on the subject of *activity lifetimes*.

### 13.1 New vs. Old Lifecycle Techniques

Up until recently, there was a standard way to build lifecycle awareness into an app. This is the approach covered in this chapter and involves implementing a set of methods (one for each lifecycle state) within an activity or fragment instance that get called by the operating system when the lifecycle status of that object changes. This approach has remained unchanged since the early years of the Android operating system and, while still a viable option today, it does have some limitations which will be explained later in this chapter.

With the introduction of the lifecycle classes with the Jetpack Android Architecture Components, a better approach to lifecycle handling is now available. This modern approach to lifecycle management (together with the Jetpack components and architecture guidelines) will be covered in detail in later chapters. It is still important, however, to understand the traditional lifecycle methods for a couple of reasons. First, as an Android developer you will not be completely insulated from the traditional lifecycle methods and will still make use of some of them. More importantly, understanding the older way of handling lifecycles will provide a good knowledge foundation on which to begin learning the new approach later in the book.

### 13.2 The Activity and Fragment Classes

With few exceptions, activities and fragments in an application are created as subclasses of the Android `AppCompatActivity` class and `Fragment` classes respectively.

Consider, for example, the *AndroidSample* project created in “*Creating an Example Android App in Android Studio*” and subsequently converted to use view binding. Load this project into the Android Studio environment and locate the *MainActivity.java* file (located in `app -> java -> com -> <your domain> -> androidsample`). Having located the file, double-click on it to load it into the editor where it should read as follows:

```
package com.example.androidsample;

import androidx.appcompat.app.AppCompatActivity;
import android.view.View;
import android.os.Bundle;

import java.util.Locale;
```

## Handling Android Activity State Changes

```
import com.example.androidsample.databinding.ActivityMainBinding;

public class MainActivity extends AppCompatActivity {

    private ActivityMainBinding binding;

    @Override
    protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
        binding = ActivityMainBinding.inflate(getLayoutInflater());
        View view = binding.getRoot();
        setContentView(view);

        public void convertCurrency(View view) {

            if (!binding.dollarText.getText().toString().equals("")) {

                float dollarValue = Float.parseFloat(
                    binding.dollarText.getText().toString());
                float euroValue = dollarValue * 0.85F;
                binding.textView.setText(
                    String.format(Locale.ENGLISH, "%f", euroValue));
            } else {
                binding.textView.setText(R.string.no_value_string);
            }
        }
    }
}
```

When the project was created, we instructed Android Studio also to create an initial activity named *MainActivity.java*. As is evident from the above code, the *MainActivity* class is a subclass of the *AppCompatActivity* class.

A review of the reference documentation for the *AppCompatActivity* class would reveal that it is itself a subclass of the *Activity* class. This can be verified within the Android Studio editor using the *Hierarchy* tool window. With the *MainActivity.java* file loaded into the editor, click on *AppCompatActivity* in the *class* declaration line and press the *Ctrl-H* keyboard shortcut. The hierarchy tool window will subsequently appear displaying the class hierarchy for the selected class. As illustrated in Figure 13-1, *AppCompatActivity* is clearly subclassed from the *FragmentActivity* class which is itself ultimately a subclass of the *Activity* class:

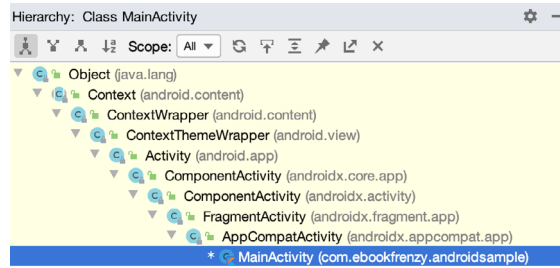


Figure 13-1

The Activity and Fragment classes contain a range of methods that are intended to be called by the Android runtime to notify the object when its state is changing. For the purposes of this chapter, we will refer to these as the *lifecycle methods*. An activity or fragment class simply needs to *override* these methods and implement the necessary functionality within them to react accordingly to state changes.

One such method is named *onCreate()* and, turning once again to the above code fragment, we can see that this method has already been overridden and implemented for us in the *MainActivity* class. In a later section we will explore in detail both *onCreate()* and the other relevant lifecycle methods of the Activity and Fragment classes.

### 13.3 Dynamic State vs. Persistent State

A key objective of lifecycle management is ensuring that the state of the activity is saved and restored at appropriate times. When talking about *state* in this context we mean the data that is currently being held within the activity and the appearance of the user interface. The activity might, for example, maintain a data model in memory that needs to be saved to a database, content provider or file. Such state information, because it persists from one invocation of the application to another, is referred to as the *persistent state*.

The appearance of the user interface (such as text entered into a text field but not yet committed to the application's internal data model) is referred to as the *dynamic state*, since it is typically only retained during a single invocation of the application (and also referred to as *user interface state* or *instance state*).

Understanding the differences between these two states is important because both the ways they are saved, and the reasons for doing so, differ.

The purpose of saving the persistent state is to avoid the loss of data that may result from an activity being killed by the runtime system while in the background. The dynamic state, on the other hand, is saved and restored for reasons that are slightly more complex.

Consider, for example, that an application contains an activity (which we will refer to as *Activity A*) containing a text field and some radio buttons. During the course of using the application, the user enters some text into the text field and makes a selection from the radio buttons. Before performing an action to save these changes, however, the user then switches to another activity causing *Activity A* to be pushed down the Activity Stack and placed into the background. After some time, the runtime system ascertains that memory is low and consequently kills *Activity A* to free up resources. As far as the user is concerned, however, *Activity A* was simply placed into the background and is ready to be moved to the foreground at any time. On returning *Activity A* to the foreground the user would, quite reasonably, expect the entered text and radio button selections to have been retained. In this scenario, however, a new instance of *Activity A* will have been created and, if the dynamic state was not saved and restored, the previous user input lost.

The main purpose of saving dynamic state, therefore, is to give the perception of seamless switching between foreground and background activities, regardless of the fact that activities may actually have been killed and restarted without the user's knowledge.

The mechanisms for saving persistent and dynamic state will become clearer in the following sections of this chapter.

### 13.4 The Android Lifecycle Methods

As previously explained, the Activity and Fragment classes contain a number of lifecycle methods which act as event handlers when the state of an instance changes. The primary methods supported by the Android Activity and Fragment class are as follows:

- **onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState)** – The method that is called when the activity is first created and the ideal location for most initialization tasks to be performed. The method is passed an argument in the form of a *Bundle* object that may contain dynamic state information (typically relating to the state of the user interface) from a prior invocation of the activity.
- **onRestart()** – Called when the activity is about to restart after having previously been stopped by the runtime system.
- **onStart()** – Always called immediately after the call to the *onCreate()* or *onRestart()* methods, this method indicates to the activity that it is about to become visible to the user. This call will be followed by a call to *onResume()* if the activity moves to the top of the activity stack, or *onStop()* in the event that it is pushed down the stack by another activity.
- **onResume()** – Indicates that the activity is now at the top of the activity stack and is the activity with which the user is currently interacting.
- **onPause()** – Indicates that a previous activity is about to become the foreground activity. This call will be followed by a call to either the *onResume()* or *onStop()* method depending on whether the activity moves back to the foreground or becomes invisible to the user. Steps may be taken within this method to store *persistent state* information not yet saved by the app. To avoid delays in switching between activities, time consuming operations such as storing data to a database or performing network operations should be avoided within this method. This method should also ensure that any CPU intensive tasks such as animation are stopped.
- **onStop()** – The activity is now no longer visible to the user. The two possible scenarios that may follow this call are a call to *onRestart()* in the event that the activity moves to the foreground again, or *onDestroy()* if the activity is being terminated.
- **onDestroy()** – The activity is about to be destroyed, either voluntarily because the activity has completed its tasks and has called the *finish()* method or because the runtime is terminating it either to release memory or due to a configuration change (such as the orientation of the device changing). It is important to note that a call will not always be made to *onDestroy()* when an activity is terminated.
- **onConfigurationChanged()** – Called when a configuration change occurs for which the activity has indicated it is not to be restarted. The method is passed a Configuration object outlining the new device configuration and it is then the responsibility of the activity to react to the change.

The following lifecycle methods only apply to the Fragment class:

- **onAttach()** - Called when the fragment is assigned to an activity.
- **onCreateView()** - Called to create and return the fragment's user interface layout view hierarchy.
- **onViewCreated()** - Called after *onCreateView()* returns.
- **onViewStatusRestored()** - The fragment's saved view hierarchy has been restored.

In addition to the lifecycle methods outlined above, there are two methods intended specifically for saving and

restoring the *dynamic state* of an activity:

- **onRestoreInstanceState(Bundle savedInstanceState)** – This method is called immediately after a call to the *onStart()* method in the event that the activity is restarting from a previous invocation in which state was saved. As with *onCreate()*, this method is passed a Bundle object containing the previous state data. This method is typically used in situations where it makes more sense to restore a previous state after the initialization of the activity has been performed in *onCreate()* and *onStart()*.
- **onSaveInstanceState(Bundle outState)** – Called before an activity is destroyed so that the current *dynamic state* (usually relating to the user interface) can be saved. The method is passed the Bundle object into which the state should be saved and which is subsequently passed through to the *onCreate()* and *onRestoreInstanceState()* methods when the activity is restarted. Note that this method is only called in situations where the runtime ascertains that dynamic state needs to be saved.

When overriding the above methods, it is important to remember that, with the exception of *onRestoreInstanceState()* and *onSaveInstanceState()*, the method implementation must include a call to the corresponding method in the super class. For example, the following method overrides the *onRestart()* method but also includes a call to the super class instance of the method:

```
protected void onRestart() {
    super.onRestart();
    Log.i(TAG, "onRestart");
}
```

Failure to make this super class call in method overrides will result in the runtime throwing an exception during execution. While calls to the super class in the *onRestoreInstanceState()* and *onSaveInstanceState()* methods are optional (they can, for example, be omitted when implementing custom save and restoration behavior) there are considerable benefits to using them, a subject that will be covered in the chapter entitled “*Saving and Restoring the State of an Android Activity*”.

## 13.5 Lifetimes

The final topic to be covered involves an outline of the *entire*, *visible* and *foreground* lifetimes through which an activity or fragment will transition during execution:

- **Entire Lifetime** – The term “entire lifetime” is used to describe everything that takes place between the initial call to the *onCreate()* method and the call to *onDestroy()* prior to the object terminating.
- **Visible Lifetime** – Covers the periods of execution between the call to *onStart()* and *onStop()*. During this period the activity or fragment is visible to the user though may not be the object with which the user is currently interacting.
- **Foreground Lifetime** – Refers to the periods of execution between calls to the *onResume()* and *onPause()* methods.

It is important to note that an activity or fragment may pass through the *foreground* and *visible* lifetimes multiple times during the course of the *entire* lifetime.

The concepts of lifetimes and lifecycle methods are illustrated in Figure 13-2:

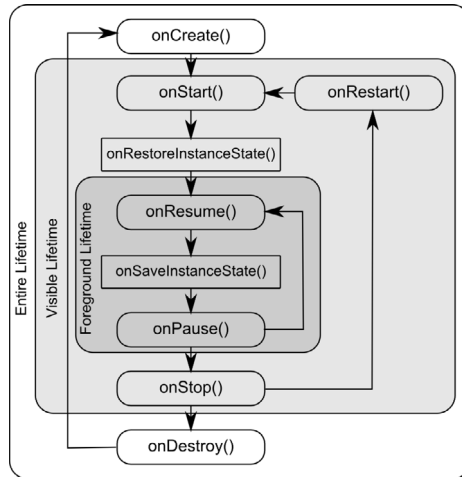


Figure 13-2

## 13.6 Foldable Devices and Multi-Resume

As discussed previously, an activity is considered to be in the resumed state when it has moved to the foreground and is the activity with which the user is currently interacting. On standard devices an app can have one activity in the resumed state at any one time and all other activities are likely to be in the paused or stopped state.

For some time now, Android has included multi-window support, allowing multiple activities to appear simultaneously in either split-screen or freeform configurations. Although originally used primarily on large screen tablet devices, this feature is likely to become more popular with the introduction of foldable devices.

On devices running Android 10 and on which multi-window support is enabled (as will be the case for most foldables), it will be possible for multiple app activities to be in the resumed state at the same time (a concept referred to as *multi-resume*) allowing those visible activities to continue functioning (for example streaming content or updating visual data) even when another activity currently has focus. Although multiple activities can be in the resumed state, only one of these activities will be considered to be the *topmost resumed activity* (in other words, the activity with which the user most recently interacted).

An activity can receive notification that it has gained or lost the topmost resumed status by implementing the `onTopResumedActivityChanged()` callback method.

## 13.7 Disabling Configuration Change Restarts

As previously outlined, an activity may indicate that it is not to be restarted in the event of certain configuration changes. This is achieved by adding an `android:configChanges` directive to the activity element within the project manifest file. The following manifest file excerpt, for example, indicates that the activity should not be restarted in the event of configuration changes relating to orientation or device-wide font size:

```
<activity android:name=".MainActivity"
    android:configChanges="orientation|fontScale"
    android:label="@string/app_name">
```

## 13.8 Lifecycle Method Limitations

As discussed at the start of this chapter, lifecycle methods have been in use for many years and, until recently, were the only mechanism available for handling lifecycle state changes for activities and fragments. There are, however, shortcomings to this approach.

One issue with the lifecycle methods is that they do not provide an easy way for an activity or fragment to find out its current lifecycle state at any given point during app execution. Instead the object would need to track the state internally, or wait for the next lifecycle method call.

Also, the methods do not provide a simple way for one object to observe the lifecycle state changes of other objects within an app. This is a serious consideration since many other objects within an app can potentially be impacted by a lifecycle state change in a given activity or fragment.

The lifecycle methods are also only available on subclasses of the `Fragment` and `Activity` classes. It is not possible, therefore, to build custom classes that are truly lifecycle aware.

Finally, the lifecycle methods result in most of the lifecycle handling code being written within the activity or fragment which can lead to complex and error prone code. Ideally, much of this code should reside in the other classes that are impacted by the state change. An app that streams video, for example, might include a class designed specifically to manage the incoming stream. If the app needs to pause the stream when the main activity is stopped, the code to do so should reside in the streaming class, not the main activity.

All of these problems and more are resolved by using *lifecycle-aware* components, a topic which will be covered starting with the chapter entitled “*Modern Android App Architecture with Jetpack*”.

## 13.9 Summary

All activities are derived from the Android *Activity* class which, in turn, contains a number of lifecycle methods that are designed to be called by the runtime system when the state of an activity changes. Similarly, the `Fragment` class contains a number of comparable methods. By overriding these methods, activities and fragments can respond to state changes and, where necessary, take steps to save and restore the current state of both the activity and the application. Lifecycle state can be thought of as taking two forms. The persistent state refers to data that needs to be stored between application invocations (for example to a file or database). Dynamic state, on the other hand, relates instead to the current appearance of the user interface.

Although lifecycle methods have a number of limitations that can be avoided by making use of lifecycle-aware components, an understanding of these methods is important to fully understand the new approaches to lifecycle management covered later in this book.

In this chapter, we have highlighted the lifecycle methods available to activities and covered the concept of activity lifetimes. In the next chapter, entitled “*Android Activity State Changes by Example*”, we will implement an example application that puts much of this theory into practice.





## 16. Understanding Android Views, View Groups and Layouts

With the possible exception of listening to streaming audio, a user's interaction with an Android device is primarily visual and tactile in nature. All of this interaction takes place through the user interfaces of the applications installed on the device, including both the built-in applications and any third party applications installed by the user. It should come as no surprise, therefore, that a key element of developing Android applications involves the design and creation of user interfaces.

Within this chapter, the topic of Android user interface structure will be covered, together with an overview of the different elements that can be brought together to make up a user interface; namely Views, View Groups and Layouts.

### 16.1 Designing for Different Android Devices

The term “Android device” covers a vast array of tablet and smartphone products with different screen sizes and resolutions. As a result, application user interfaces must now be carefully designed to ensure correct presentation on as wide a range of display sizes as possible. A key part of this is ensuring that the user interface layouts resize correctly when run on different devices. This can largely be achieved through careful planning and the use of the layout managers outlined in this chapter.

It is also important to keep in mind that the majority of Android based smartphones and tablets can be held by the user in both portrait and landscape orientations. A well-designed user interface should be able to adapt to such changes and make sensible layout adjustments to utilize the available screen space in each orientation.

### 16.2 Views and View Groups

Every item in a user interface is a subclass of the Android *View* class (to be precise *android.view.View*). The Android SDK provides a set of pre-built views that can be used to construct a user interface. Typical examples include standard items such as the *Button*, *CheckBox*, *ProgressBar* and *TextView* classes. Such views are also referred to as *widgets* or *components*. For requirements that are not met by the widgets supplied with the SDK, new views may be created either by subclassing and extending an existing class, or creating an entirely new component by building directly on top of the *View* class.

A view can also be comprised of multiple other views (otherwise known as a *composite view*). Such views are subclassed from the Android *ViewGroup* class (*android.view.ViewGroup*) which is itself a subclass of *View*. An example of such a view is the *RadioGroup*, which is intended to contain multiple *RadioButton* objects such that only one can be in the “on” position at any one time. In terms of structure, composite views consist of a single parent view (derived from the *ViewGroup* class and otherwise known as a *container view* or *root element*) that is capable of containing other views (known as *child views*).

Another category of *ViewGroup* based container view is that of the layout manager.

### 16.3 Android Layout Managers

In addition to the widget style views discussed in the previous section, the SDK also includes a set of views referred to as *layouts*. Layouts are container views (and, therefore, subclassed from *ViewGroup*) designed for the

sole purpose of controlling how child views are positioned on the screen.

The Android SDK includes the following layout views that may be used within an Android user interface design:

- **ConstraintLayout** – Introduced in Android 7, use of this layout manager is recommended for most layout requirements. ConstraintLayout allows the positioning and behavior of the views in a layout to be defined by simple constraint settings assigned to each child view. The flexibility of this layout allows complex layouts to be quickly and easily created without the necessity to nest other layout types inside each other, resulting in improved layout performance. ConstraintLayout is also tightly integrated into the Android Studio Layout Editor tool. Unless otherwise stated, this is the layout of choice for the majority of examples in this book.
- **LinearLayout** – Positions child views in a single row or column depending on the orientation selected. A *weight* value can be set on each child to specify how much of the layout space that child should occupy relative to other children.
- **TableLayout** – Arranges child views into a grid format of rows and columns. Each row within a table is represented by a *TableRow* object child, which, in turn, contains a view object for each cell.
- **FrameLayout** – The purpose of the FrameLayout is to allocate an area of screen, typically for the purposes of displaying a single view. If multiple child views are added they will, by default, appear on top of each other positioned in the top left-hand corner of the layout area. Alternate positioning of individual child views can be achieved by setting gravity values on each child. For example, setting a *center\_vertical* gravity value on a child will cause it to be positioned in the vertical center of the containing FrameLayout view.
- **RelativeLayout** – The RelativeLayout allows child views to be positioned relative both to each other and the containing layout view through the specification of alignments and margins on child views. For example, child *View A* may be configured to be positioned in the vertical and horizontal center of the containing RelativeLayout view. *View B*, on the other hand, might also be configured to be centered horizontally within the layout view, but positioned 30 pixels above the top edge of *View A*, thereby making the vertical position *relative* to that of *View A*. The RelativeLayout manager can be of particular use when designing a user interface that must work on a variety of screen sizes and orientations.
- **AbsoluteLayout** – Allows child views to be positioned at specific X and Y coordinates within the containing layout view. Use of this layout is discouraged since it lacks the flexibility to respond to changes in screen size and orientation.
- **GridLayout** – A GridLayout instance is divided by invisible lines that form a grid containing rows and columns of cells. Child views are then placed in cells and may be configured to cover multiple cells both horizontally and vertically allowing a wide range of layout options to be quickly and easily implemented. Gaps between components in a GridLayout may be implemented by placing a special type of view called a *Space* view into adjacent cells, or by setting margin parameters.
- **CoordinatorLayout** – Introduced as part of the Android Design Support Library with Android 5.0, the CoordinatorLayout is designed specifically for coordinating the appearance and behavior of the app bar across the top of an application screen with other view elements. When creating a new activity using the Basic Activity template, the parent view in the main layout will be implemented using a CoordinatorLayout instance. This layout manager will be covered in greater detail starting with the chapter entitled “*Working with the Floating Action Button and Snackbar*”.

When considering the use of layouts in the user interface for an Android application it is worth keeping in mind that, as will be outlined in the next section, these can be nested within each other to create a user interface design of just about any necessary level of complexity.

## 16.4 The View Hierarchy

Each view in a user interface represents a rectangular area of the display. A view is responsible for what is drawn in that rectangle and for responding to events that occur within that part of the screen (such as a touch event).

A user interface screen is comprised of a view hierarchy with a *root view* positioned at the top of the tree and child views positioned on branches below. The child of a container view appears on top of its parent view and is constrained to appear within the bounds of the parent view's display area. Consider, for example, the user interface illustrated in Figure 16-1:

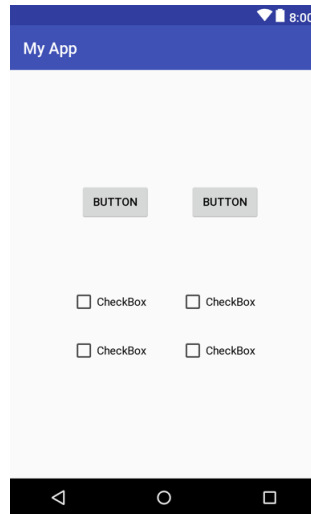


Figure 16-1

In addition to the visible button and checkbox views, the user interface actually includes a number of layout views that control how the visible views are positioned. Figure 16-2 shows an alternative view of the user interface, this time highlighting the presence of the layout views in relation to the child views:

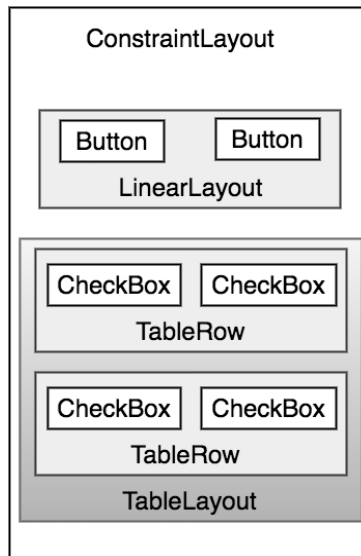


Figure 16-2

As was previously discussed, user interfaces are constructed in the form of a view hierarchy with a root view at the top. This being the case, we can also visualize the above user interface example in the form of the view tree illustrated in Figure 16-3:

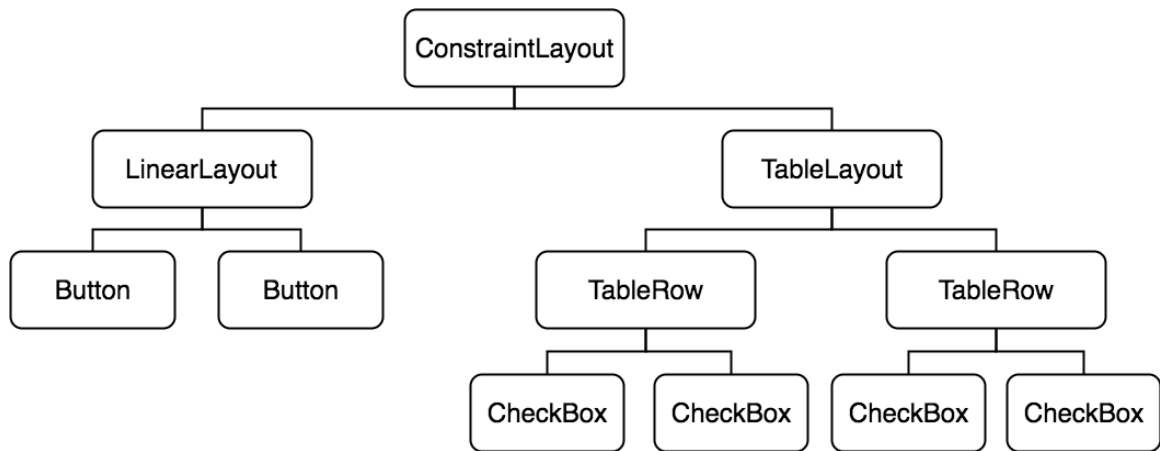


Figure 16-3

The view hierarchy diagram gives probably the clearest overview of the relationship between the various views that make up the user interface shown in Figure 16-1. When a user interface is displayed to the user, the Android runtime walks the view hierarchy, starting at the root view and working down the tree as it renders each view.

## 16.5 Creating User Interfaces

With a clearer understanding of the concepts of views, layouts and the view hierarchy, the following few chapters will focus on the steps involved in creating user interfaces for Android activities. In fact, there are three different approaches to user interface design: using the Android Studio Layout Editor tool, handwriting XML layout resource files or writing Java code, each of which will be covered.

## 16.6 Summary

Each element within a user interface screen of an Android application is a view that is ultimately subclassed from the *android.view.View* class. Each view represents a rectangular area of the device display and is responsible both for what appears in that rectangle and for handling events that take place within the view's bounds. Multiple views may be combined to create a single *composite view*. The views within a composite view are children of a *container view* which is generally a subclass of *android.view.ViewGroup* (which is itself a subclass of *android.view.View*). A user interface is comprised of views constructed in the form of a view hierarchy.

The Android SDK includes a range of pre-built views that can be used to create a user interface. These include basic components such as text fields and buttons, in addition to a range of layout managers that can be used to control the positioning of child views. If the supplied views do not meet a specific requirement, custom views may be created, either by extending or combining existing views, or by subclassing *android.view.View* and creating an entirely new class of view.

User interfaces may be created using the Android Studio Layout Editor tool, handwriting XML layout resource files or by writing Java code. Each of these approaches will be covered in the chapters that follow.

## 17. A Guide to the Android Studio Layout Editor Tool

It is difficult to think of an Android application concept that does not require some form of user interface. Most Android devices come equipped with a touch screen and keyboard (either virtual or physical) and taps and swipes are the primary form of interaction between the user and application. Invariably these interactions take place through the application's user interface.

A well designed and implemented user interface, an important factor in creating a successful and popular Android application, can vary from simple to extremely complex, depending on the design requirements of the individual application. Regardless of the level of complexity, the Android Studio Layout Editor tool significantly simplifies the task of designing and implementing Android user interfaces.

### 17.1 Basic vs. Empty Activity Templates

As outlined in the chapter entitled “*The Anatomy of an Android Application*”, Android applications are made up of one or more activities. An activity is a standalone module of application functionality that usually correlates directly to a single user interface screen. As such, when working with the Android Studio Layout Editor we are invariably working on the layout for an activity.

When creating a new Android Studio project, a number of different templates are available to be used as the starting point for the user interface of the main activity. The most basic of these templates are the Basic Activity and Empty Activity templates. Although these seem similar at first glance, there are actually considerable differences between the two options. To see these differences within the layout editor, use the View Options menu to enable Show System UI as shown in Figure 17-1 below:

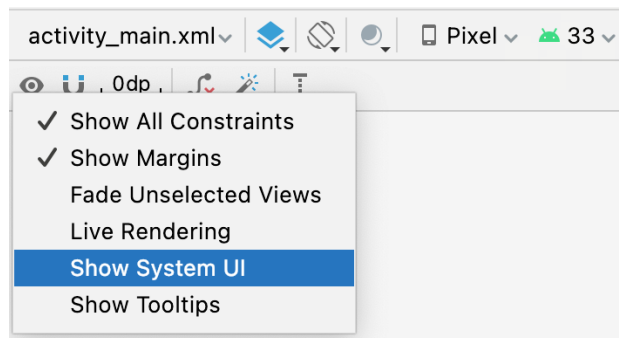


Figure 17-1

The Empty Activity template creates a single layout file consisting of a `ConstraintLayout` manager instance containing a `TextView` object as shown in Figure 17-2:

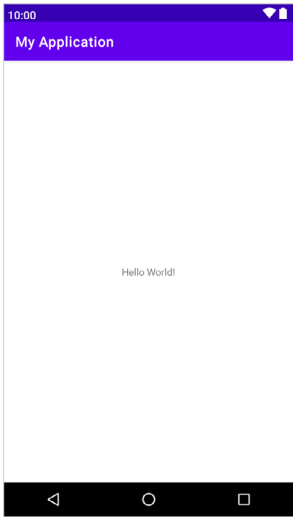


Figure 17-2

The Basic Activity, on the other hand, consists of multiple layout files. The top level layout file has a CoordinatorLayout as the root view, a configurable app bar (which contains a tool bar) that appears across the top of the device screen (marked A in Figure 17-3) and a floating action button (the email button marked B). In addition to these items, the *activity\_main.xml* layout file contains a reference to a second file named *content\_main.xml* containing the content layout (marked C):

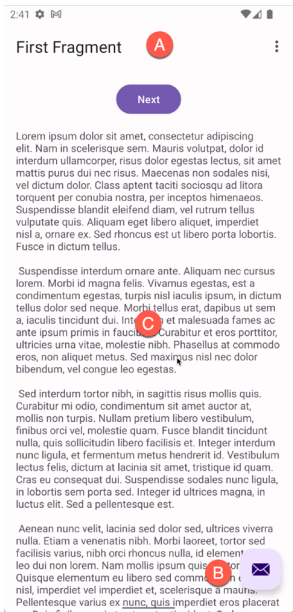


Figure 17-3

The Basic Activity contains layouts for two screens, both containing a button and a text view. The purpose of this template is to demonstrate how to implement navigation between multiple screens within an app. If an unmodified app using the Basic Activity template were to be run, the first of these two screens would appear (marked A in Figure 17-4). Pressing the Next button, would navigate to the second screen (B) which, in turn, contains a button to return to the first screen:

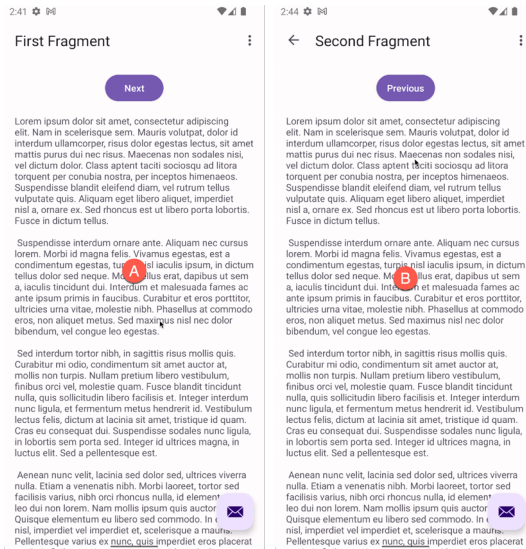


Figure 17-4

This app behavior makes use of two Android features referred to as *fragments* and *navigation*, both of which will be covered starting with the chapters entitled “An Introduction to Android Fragments” and “An Overview of the Navigation Architecture Component” respectively.

The `content_main.xml` file contains a special fragment known as a Navigation Host Fragment which allows different content to be switched in and out of view depending on the settings configured in the `res -> layout -> nav_graph.xml` file. In the case of the Basic Activity template, the `nav_graph.xml` file is configured to switch between the user interface layouts defined in the `fragment_first.xml` and `fragment_second.xml` files based on the Next and Previous button selections made by the user.

Clearly the Empty Activity template is useful if you need neither a floating action button nor a menu in your activity and do not need the special app bar behavior provided by the CoordinatorLayout such as options to make the app bar and toolbar collapse from view during certain scrolling operations (a topic covered in the chapter entitled “Working with the AppBar and Collapsing Toolbar Layouts”). The Basic Activity is useful, however, in that it provides these elements by default. In fact, it is often quicker to create a new activity using the Basic Activity template and delete the elements you do not require than to use the Empty Activity template and manually implement behavior such as collapsing toolbars, a menu or floating action button.

Since not all of the examples in this book require the features of the Basic Activity template, however, most of the examples in this chapter will use the Empty Activity template unless the example requires one or other of the features provided by the Basic Activity template.

For future reference, if you need a menu but not a floating action button, use the Basic Activity and follow these steps to delete the floating action button:

1. Double-click on the main `activity_main.xml` layout file located in the Project tool window under `app -> res -> layout` to load it into the Layout Editor. With the layout loaded into the Layout Editor tool, select the floating action button and tap the keyboard `Delete` key to remove the object from the layout.
2. Locate and edit the Java code for the activity (located under `app -> java -> <package name> -> <activity class name>`) and remove the floating action button code from the `onCreate` method as follows:

```
@Override
```

## A Guide to the Android Studio Layout Editor Tool

```
protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);

    binding = ActivityMainBinding.inflate(getLayoutInflater());
    setContentView(binding.getRoot());

    setSupportActionBar(binding.toolbar);

    NavController navController = Navigation.findNavController(this, R.id.nav_
host_fragment_content_main);
    appBarConfiguration = new AppBarConfiguration.Builder(navController.
getGraph()).build();
    NavigationUI.setupActionBarWithNavController(this, navController,
appBarConfiguration);

    binding.fab.setOnClickListener(new View.OnClickListener() {
    @Override
    public void onClick(View view) {
        Snackbar.make(view, "Replace with your own action", Snackbar.LENGTH_
LONG)
        .setAction("Action", null).show();
    }
});
}
```

If you need a floating action button but no menu, use the Basic Activity template and follow these steps:

1. Edit the activity class file and delete the *onCreateOptionsMenu* and *onOptionsItemSelected* methods.
2. Select the *res -> menu* item in the Project tool window and tap the keyboard *Delete* key to remove the folder and corresponding menu resource files from the project.

If you need to use the Basic Activity template but need neither the navigation features nor the second content fragment, follow these steps:

1. Within the Project tool window, navigate to and double-click on the *app -> res -> navigation -> nav\_graph.xml* file to load it into the navigation editor.
2. Within the editor, select the *SecondFragment* entry in the graph panel and tap the keyboard delete key to remove it from the graph.
3. Locate and delete the *SecondFragment.java* (*app -> java -> <package name> -> SecondFragment*) and *fragment\_second.xml* (*app -> res -> layout -> fragment\_second.xml*) files.
4. The final task is to remove some code from the *FirstFragment* class so that the Button view no longer navigates to the now non-existent second fragment when clicked. Locate the *FirstFragment.java* file, double click on it to load it into the editor and remove the code from the *onViewCreated()* method so that it reads as follows:

```
public void onViewCreated(@NonNull View view, Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    super.onViewCreated(view, savedInstanceState);
```



```

binding.buttonFirst.setOnClickListener(new View.OnClickListener() {
    @Override
    public void onClick(View view) {
        NavHostFragment.findNavController(FirstFragment.this)
            .navigate(R.id.action_FirstFragment_to_SecondFragment);
    }
});
}

```

## 17.2 The Android Studio Layout Editor

As has been demonstrated in previous chapters, the Layout Editor tool provides a “what you see is what you get” (WYSIWYG) environment in which views can be selected from a palette and then placed onto a canvas representing the display of an Android device. Once a view has been placed on the canvas, it can be moved, deleted and resized (subject to the constraints of the parent view). Further, a wide variety of properties relating to the selected view may be modified using the Attributes tool window.

Under the surface, the Layout Editor tool actually constructs an XML resource file containing the definition of the user interface that is being designed. As such, the Layout Editor tool operates in three distinct modes referred to as *Design*, *Code* and *Split* modes.

## 17.3 Design Mode

In design mode, the user interface can be visually manipulated by directly working with the view palette and the graphical representation of the layout. Figure 17-5 highlights the key areas of the Android Studio Layout Editor tool in design mode:

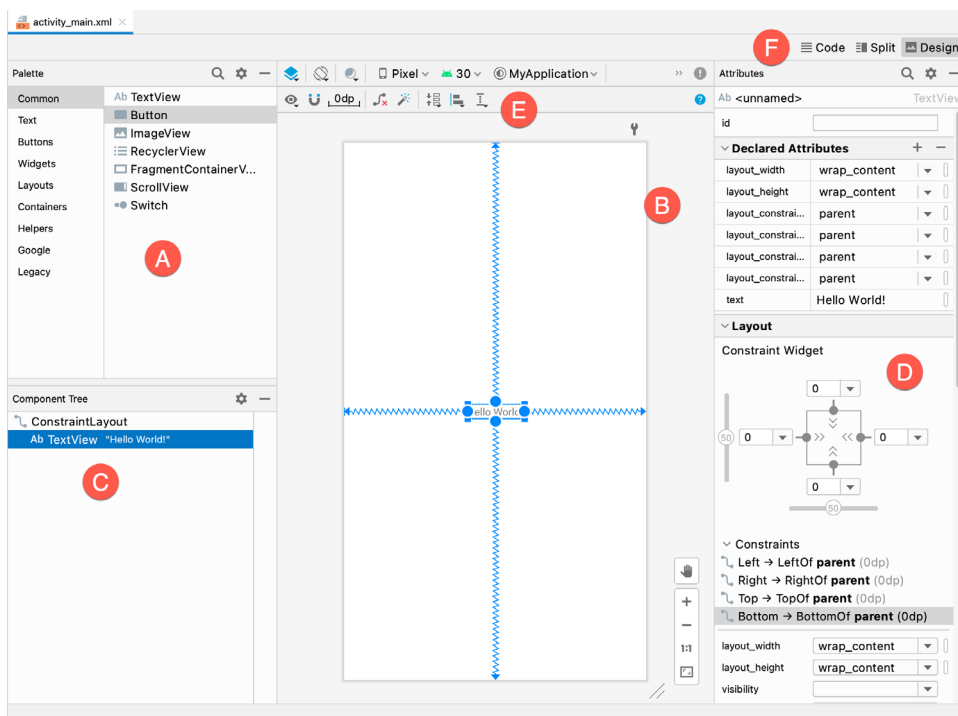


Figure 17-5

**A – Palette** – The palette provides access to the range of view components provided by the Android SDK. These

are grouped into categories for easy navigation. Items may be added to the layout by dragging a view component from the palette and dropping it at the desired position on the layout.

**B – Device Screen** – The device screen provides a visual “what you see is what you get” representation of the user interface layout as it is being designed. This layout allows for direct manipulation of the design in terms of allowing views to be selected, deleted, moved and resized. The device model represented by the layout can be changed at any time using a menu located in the toolbar.

**C – Component Tree** – As outlined in the previous chapter (“*Understanding Android Views, View Groups and Layouts*”) user interfaces are constructed using a hierarchical structure. The component tree provides a visual overview of the hierarchy of the user interface design. Selecting an element from the component tree will cause the corresponding view in the layout to be selected. Similarly, selecting a view from the device screen layout will select that view in the component tree hierarchy.

**D – Attributes** – All of the component views listed in the palette have associated with them a set of attributes that can be used to adjust the behavior and appearance of that view. The Layout Editor’s attributes panel provides access to the attributes of the currently selected view in the layout allowing changes to be made.

**E – Toolbar** – The Layout Editor toolbar provides quick access to a wide range of options including, amongst other options, the ability to zoom in and out of the device screen layout, change the device model currently displayed, rotate the layout between portrait and landscape and switch to a different Android SDK API level. The toolbar also has a set of context sensitive buttons which will appear when relevant view types are selected in the device screen layout.

**F – Mode Switching Controls** – These three buttons provide a way to switch back and forth between the Layout Editor tool’s Design, Code and Split modes.

**G - Zoom and Pan Controls** - This control panel allows you to zoom in and out of the design canvas and to grab the canvas and pan around to find areas that are obscured when zoomed in.

## 17.4 The Palette

The Layout Editor palette is organized into two panels designed to make it easy to locate and preview view components for addition to a layout design. The category panel (marked A in Figure 17-6) lists the different categories of view components supported by the Android SDK. When a category is selected from the list, the second panel (B) updates to display a list of the components that fall into that category:

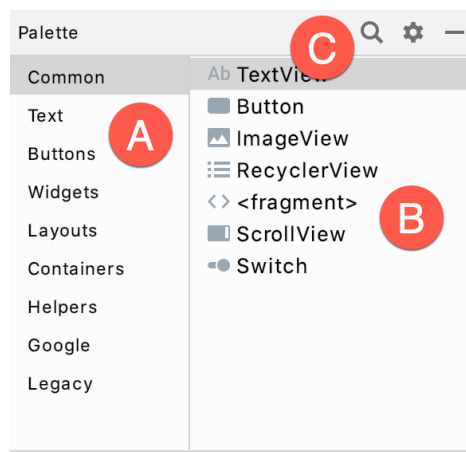


Figure 17-6

To add a component from the palette onto the layout canvas, simply select the item either from the component list or the preview panel, drag it to the desired location on the canvas and drop it into place.

A search for a specific component within the currently selected category may be initiated by clicking on the search button (marked C in Figure 17-6 above) in the palette toolbar and typing in the component name. As characters are typed, matching results will appear in real-time within the component list panel. If you are unsure of the category in which the component resides, simply select the All category either before or during the search operation.

## 17.5 Design Mode and Layout Views

By default, the layout editor will appear in Design mode as is the case in Figure 17-5 above. This mode provides a visual representation of the user interface. Design mode can be selected at any time by clicking on the rightmost mode switching control has shown in Figure 17-7:

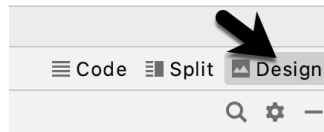


Figure 17-7

When the Layout Editor tool is in Design mode, the layout can be viewed in two different ways. The view shown in Figure 17-5 above is the Design view and shows the layout and widgets as they will appear in the running app. A second mode, referred to as the Blueprint view can be shown either instead of, or concurrently with the Design view. The toolbar menu shown in Figure 17-8 provides options to display the Design, Blueprint, or both views. Settings are also available to adjust for color blindness. A fifth option, *Force Refresh Layout*, causes the layout to rebuild and redraw. This can be useful when the layout enters an unexpected state or is not accurately reflecting the current design settings:

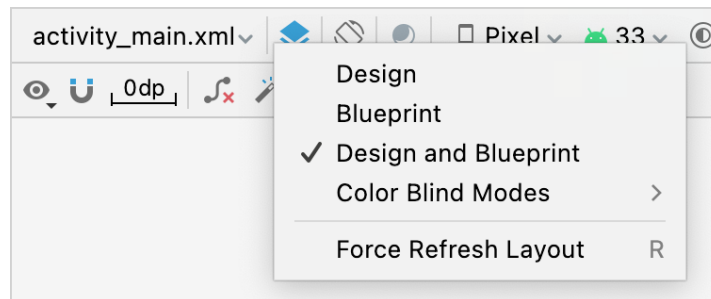


Figure 17-8

Whether to display the layout view, design view or both is a matter of personal preference. A good approach is to begin with both displayed as shown in Figure 17-9:

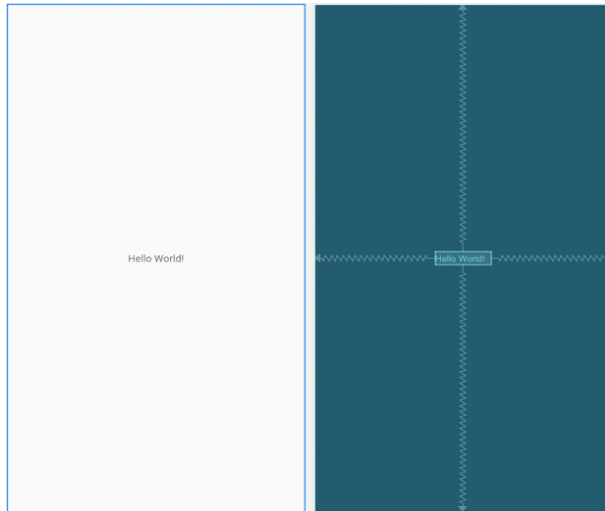


Figure 17-9

## 17.6 Night Mode

To view the layout in night mode during the design work, select the menu shown in Figure 17-10 below and change the setting to *Night*:

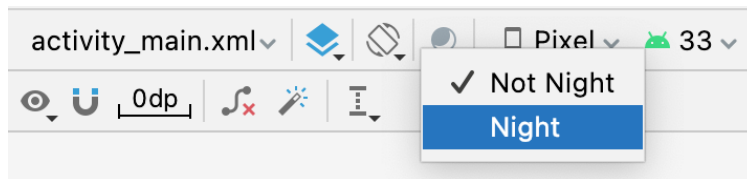


Figure 17-10

## 17.7 Code Mode

It is important to keep in mind when using the Android Studio Layout Editor tool that all it is really doing is providing a user friendly approach to creating XML layout resource files. At any time during the design process, the underlying XML can be viewed and directly edited simply by clicking on the *Code* button located in the top right-hand corner of the Layout Editor tool panel as shown in Figure 17-11:

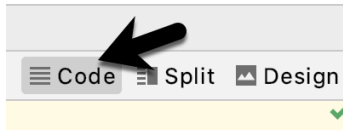


Figure 17-11

Figure 17-12 shows the Android Studio Layout Editor tool in Code mode, allowing changes to be made to the user interface declaration by making changes to the XML:

```

1  <?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
2  <androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout xmlns:android="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res/android"
3  4  xmlns:app="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
4  5  xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
5  6  android:layout_width="match_parent"
6  7  android:layout_height="match_parent"
7  8  tools:context=".MainActivity">
8  9
9  10  <TextView
10 11  android:layout_width="wrap_content"
11 12  android:layout_height="wrap_content"
12 13  android:text="Hello World!"
13 14  app:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
14 15  app:layout_constraintLeft_toLeftOf="parent"
15 16  app:layout_constraintRight_toRightOf="parent"
16 17  app:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent" />
17 18
18  </androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout>

```

Figure 17-12

## 17.8 Split Mode

In Split mode, the editor shows the Design and Code views side-by-side allowing the user interface to be modified both visually using the design canvas and by making changes directly to the XML declarations. To enter Split mode, click on the middle button shown in Figure 17-13 below:



Figure 17-13

Any changes to the XML are automatically reflected in the design canvas and vice versa. Figure 17-14 shows the editor in Split mode:

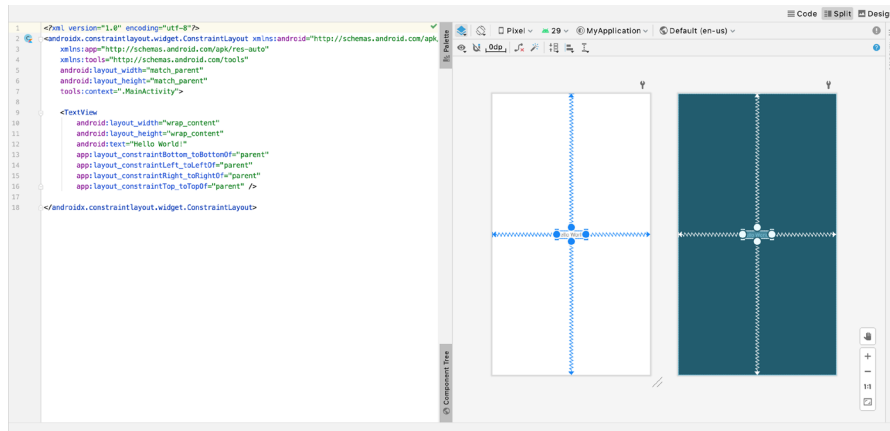


Figure 17-14

## 17.9 Setting Attributes

The Attributes panel provides access to all of the available settings for the currently selected component. Figure 17-15, for example, shows the attributes for the TextView widget:

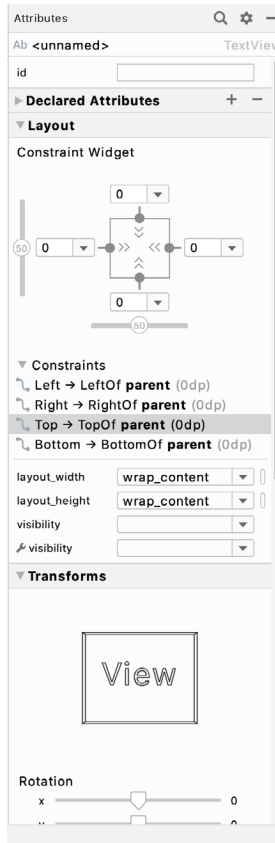


Figure 17-15

The Attributes tool window is divided into the following different sections.

- **id** - Contains the id property which defines the name by which the currently selected object will be referenced in the source code of the app.
- **Declared Attributes** - Contains all of the properties which have already been assigned a value.
- **Layout** - The settings that define how the currently selected view object is positioned and sized in relation to the screen and other objects in the layout.
- **Transforms** - Contains controls allowing the currently selected object to be rotated, scaled and offset.
- **Common Attributes** - A list of attributes that commonly need to be changed for the class of view object currently selected.
- **All Attributes** - A complete list of all of the attributes available for the currently selected object.

A search for a specific attribute may also be performed by selecting the search button in the toolbar of the attributes tool window and typing in the attribute name.

Some attributes contain a narrow button to the right of the value field. This indicates that the Resources dialog is available to assist in selecting a suitable property value. To display the dialog, simply click on the button. The appearance of this button changes to reflect whether or not the corresponding property value is stored in a resource file or hard-coded. If the value is stored in a resource file, the button to the right of the text property

field will be filled in to indicate that the value is not hard coded as highlighted in Figure 17-16 below:



Figure 17-16

Attributes for which a finite number of valid options are available will present a drop down menu (Figure 17-17) from which a selection may be made.

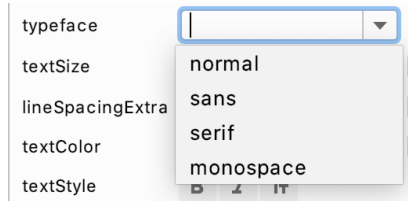


Figure 17-17

A dropper icon (as shown in the backgroundTint field in Figure 17-16 above) can be clicked to display the color selection palette. Similarly, when a flag icon appears in this position it can be clicked to display a list of options available for the attribute, while an image icon opens the resource manager panel allowing images and other resource types to be selected for the attribute.

## 17.10 Transforms

The transforms panel within the Attributes tool window (Figure 17-18) provides a set of controls and properties which control visual aspects of the currently selected object in terms of rotation, alpha (used to fade a view in and out), scale (size), and translation (offset from current position):

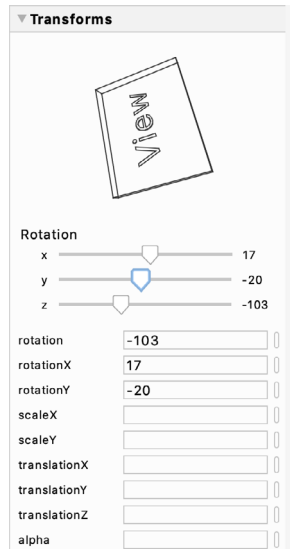


Figure 17-18

The panel contains a visual representation of the view which updates as properties are changed. These changes are also reflected on the view within layout canvas.

## 17.11 Tools Visibility Toggles

When reviewing the content of an Android Studio XML layout file in Code mode you will notice that many of the attributes that define how a view is to appear and behave begin with the *android:* prefix. This indicates that the attributes are set within the *android* namespace and will take effect when the app is run. The following excerpt from a layout file, for example, sets a variety of attributes on a Button view:

```
<Button
    android:id="@+id/button"
    android:layout_width="wrap_content"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:text="Button"
    .
    .
```

In addition to the *android* namespace, Android Studio also provides a *tools* namespace. When attributes are set within this namespace, they only take effect within the layout editor preview. While designing a layout you might, for example, find it helpful for an EditText view to display some text, but require the view to be blank when the app runs. To achieve this you would set the text property of the view using the *tools* namespace as follows:

```
<EditText
    android:id="@+id/editTextTextPersonName"
    android:layout_width="wrap_content"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:ems="10"
    android:inputType="textPersonName"
    tools:text="Sample Text"
    .
    .
```

A tool attribute of this type is set in the Attributes tool window by entering the value into the property fields marked by the wrench icon as shown in Figure 17-19:



Figure 17-19

Tools attributes are particularly useful for changing the visibility of a view during the design process. A layout may contain a view which is programmatically displayed and hidden when the app is running depending on user actions. To simulate the hiding of the view the following tools attribute could be added to the view XML declaration:

```
tools:visibility="invisible"
```

When using the invisible setting, although the view will no longer be visible, it is still present in the layout and occupies the same space it did when it was visible. To make the layout behave as though the view no longer exists, the visibility attribute should be set to *gone* as follows:



```
tools:visibility="gone"
```

In both examples above, the visibility settings only apply within the layout editor and will have no effect in the running app. To control visibility in both the layout editor and running app, the same attribute would be set using the *android* namespace:

```
android:visibility="gone"
```

While these visibility tools attributes are useful, having to manually edit the XML layout file is a cumbersome process. To make it easier to change these settings, Android Studio provides a set of toggles within the layout editor Component Tree panel. To access these controls, click in the margin to the right of the corresponding view in the panel. Figure 17-20, for example, shows the tools visibility toggle controls for a Button view named *myButton*:

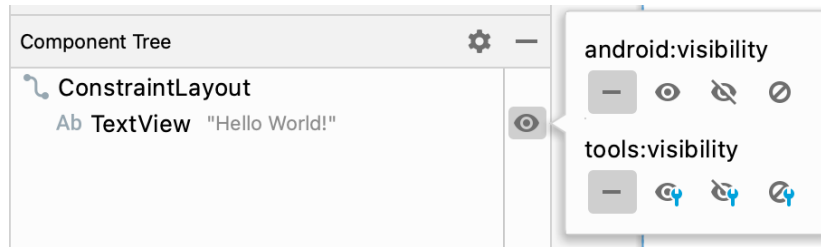


Figure 17-20

These toggles control the visibility of the corresponding view for both the *android* and *tools* namespaces and provide *not set*, *visible*, *invisible* and *gone* options. When conflicting attributes are set (for example an *android* namespace toggle is set to *visible* while the *tools* value set to *invisible*) the *tools* namespace takes precedence within the layout preview. When a toggle selection is made, Android Studio automatically adds the appropriate attribute to the XML view element in the layout file.

In addition to the visibility toggles in the Component Tree panel, the layout editor also includes the *tools visibility* and *position* toggle button shown highlighted in Figure 17-21 below:

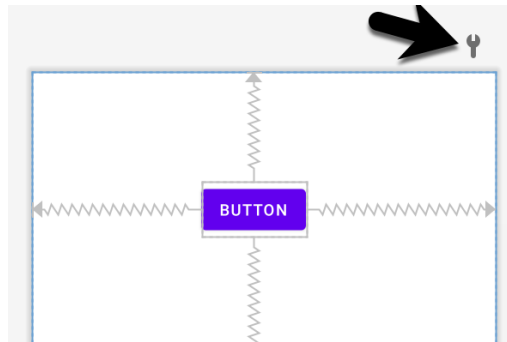


Figure 17-21

This button toggles the current *tools* visibility settings. If the Button view shown above currently has the *tools* visibility attribute set to *gone*, for example, toggling this button will make it visible. This makes it easy to quickly check the layout behavior as the view is added to and removed from the layout. This toggle is also useful for checking that the views in the layout are correctly constrained, a topic which will be covered in the chapter entitled “A Guide to Using *ConstraintLayout* in Android Studio”.

## 17.12 Converting Views

Changing a view in a layout from one type to another (such as converting a `TextView` to an `EditText`) can be performed easily within the Android Studio layout editor simply by right-clicking on the view either within the screen layout or Component tree window and selecting the *Convert view...* menu option (Figure 17-22):

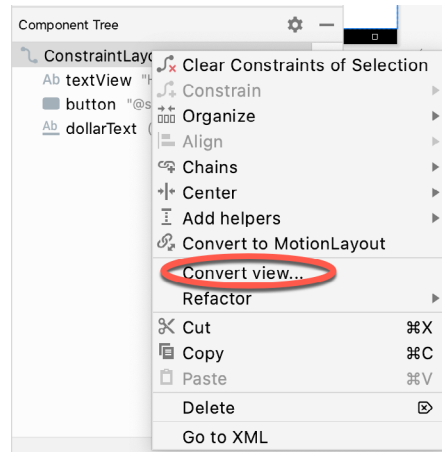


Figure 17-22

Once selected, a dialog will appear containing a list of compatible view types to which the selected object is eligible for conversion. Figure 17-23, for example shows the types to which an existing `TextView` view may be converted:

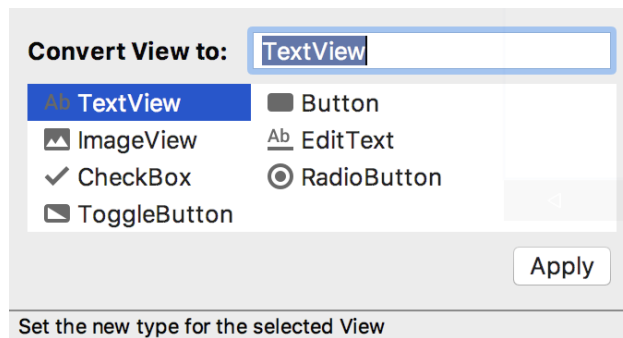


Figure 17-23

This technique is also useful for converting layouts from one type to another (for example converting a `ConstraintLayout` to a `LinearLayout`).

## 17.13 Displaying Sample Data

When designing layouts in Android Studio situations will arise where the content to be displayed within the user interface will not be available until the app is completed and running. This can sometimes make it difficult to assess from within the layout editor how the layout will appear at app runtime. To address this issue, the layout editor allows sample data to be specified that will populate views within the layout editor with sample images and data. This sample data only appears within the layout editor and is not displayed when the app runs. Sample data may be configured either by directly editing the XML for the layout, or visually using the design-time helper by right-clicking on the widget in the design area and selecting the *Set Sample Data* menu option. The design-time helper panel will display a range of preconfigured options for sample data to be displayed on the

selected view item including combinations of text and images in a variety of configurations. Figure 17-24, for example, shows the sample data options displayed when selecting sample data to appear in a RecyclerView list:

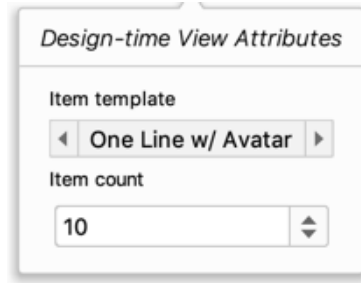


Figure 17-24

Alternatively, custom text and images may be provided for display during the layout design process. An example of using sample data within the layout editor is included in a later chapter entitled “*A Layout Editor Sample Data Tutorial*”. Since sample data is implemented as a *tools* attribute, the visibility of the data within the preview can be controlled using the toggle button highlighted in Figure 17-21 above.

## 17.14 Creating a Custom Device Definition

The device menu in the Layout Editor toolbar (Figure 17-25) provides a list of pre-configured device types which, when selected, will appear as the device screen canvas. In addition to the pre-configured device types, any AVD instances that have previously been configured within the Android Studio environment will also be listed within the menu. To add additional device configurations, display the device menu, select the *Add Device Definition* option and follow the steps outlined in the chapter entitled “*Creating an Android Virtual Device (AVD) in Android Studio*”.



Figure 17-25

## 17.15 Changing the Current Device

As an alternative to the device selection menu, the current device format may be changed by selecting the *Custom* option from the device menu, clicking on the resize handle located next to the bottom right-hand corner of the device screen (Figure 17-26) and dragging to select an alternate device display format. As the screen resizes, markers will appear indicating the various size options and orientations available for selection:

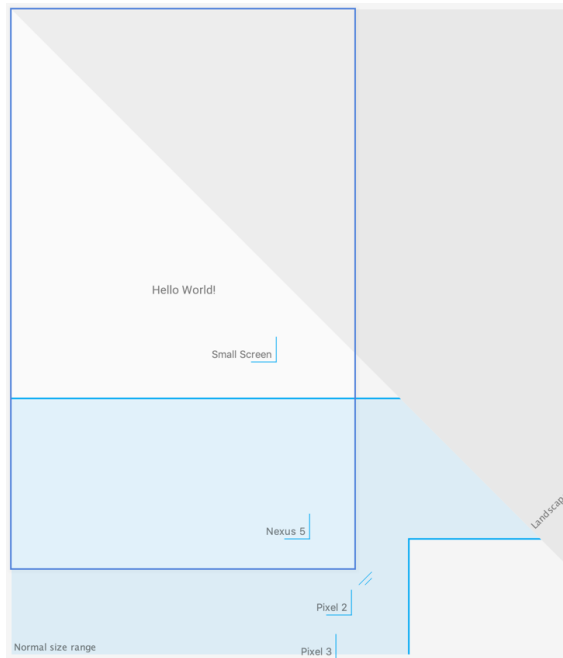


Figure 17-26

## 17.16 Layout Validation (Multi Preview)

The layout validation (also referred to as multi preview) option allows the user interface layout to be previewed on a range of Pixel-sized screens simultaneously. To access multi preview, click on the tab located near the top right-hand corner of the Android Studio main window as indicated in Figure 17-27:

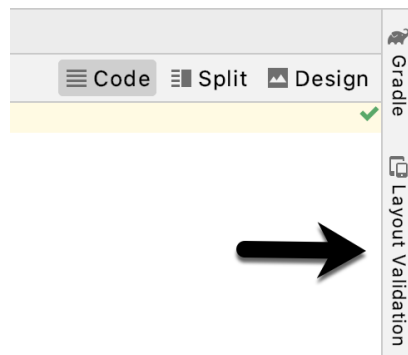


Figure 17-27

Once loaded, the panel will appear as shown in Figure 17-28 with the layout rendered on multiple device screen configurations:

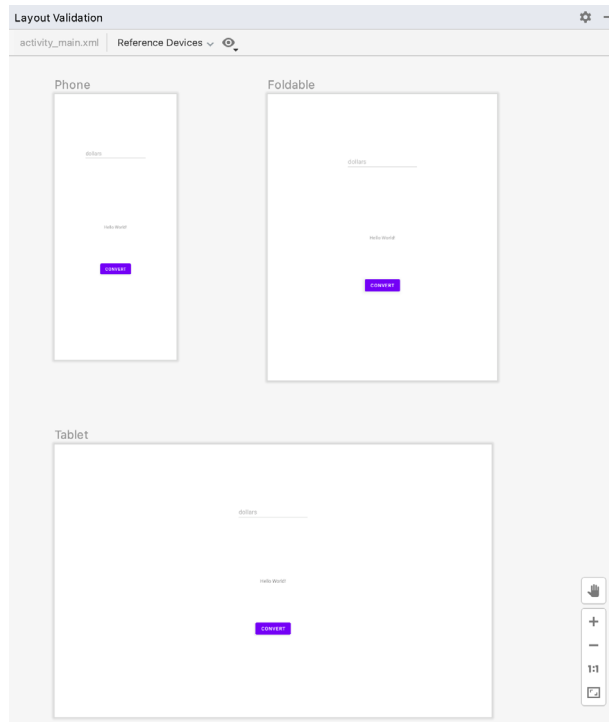


Figure 17-28

## 17.17 Summary

A key part of developing Android applications involves the creation of the user interface. Within the Android Studio environment, this is performed using the Layout Editor tool which operates in three modes. In Design mode, view components are selected from a palette and positioned on a layout representing an Android device screen and configured using a list of attributes. In Code mode, the underlying XML that represents the user interface layout can be directly edited. Split mode, on the other hand allows the layout to be created and modified both visually and via direct XML editing. These modes combine to provide an extensive and intuitive user interface design environment.

The layout validation panel allows user interface layouts to be quickly previewed on a range of different device screen sizes.



## 21. An Android Studio Layout Editor ConstraintLayout Tutorial

By far the easiest and most productive way to design a user interface for an Android application is to make use of the Android Studio Layout Editor tool. This chapter will provide an overview of how to create a ConstraintLayout-based user interface using this approach. The exercise included in this chapter will also be used as an opportunity to outline the creation of an activity starting with a “bare-bones” Android Studio project.

Having covered the use of the Android Studio Layout Editor, the chapter will also introduce the Layout Inspector tool.

### 21.1 An Android Studio Layout Editor Tool Example

The first step in this phase of the example is to create a new Android Studio project. Start by launching Android Studio and closing any previously opened projects by selecting the *File -> Close Project* menu option.

Select the *New Project* option from the welcome screen. In previous examples, we have requested that Android Studio create a template activity for the project. We will, however, be using this tutorial to learn how to create an entirely new activity and corresponding layout resource file manually, so make sure that the *No Activity* option is selected before clicking on the Next button

Enter *LayoutSample* into the Name field and specify *com.ebookfrenzy.layoutsample* as the package name. Before clicking on the Finish button, change the Minimum API level setting to API 26: Android 8.0 (Oreo) and the Language menu to Java.

### 21.2 Creating a New Activity

Once the project creation process is complete, the Android Studio main window should appear and we are ready to create a new activity. This will be a valuable learning exercise since there are many instances in the course of developing Android applications where new activities need to be created from the ground up.

Begin by displaying the Project tool window if it is not already visible using the Alt-1/Cmd-1 keyboard shortcut. Once the Android hierarchy is displayed, unfold it by clicking on the right facing arrows next to the entries in the Project window. The objective here is to gain access to the *app -> java -> com -> ebookfrenzy -> layoutsample* folder in the project hierarchy. Once the package name is visible, right-click on it and select the *New -> Activity -> Empty Activity* menu option as illustrated in Figure 21-1. Alternatively, select the *New -> Activity -> Gallery...* option to browse the available templates and make a selection using the New Android Activity dialog.

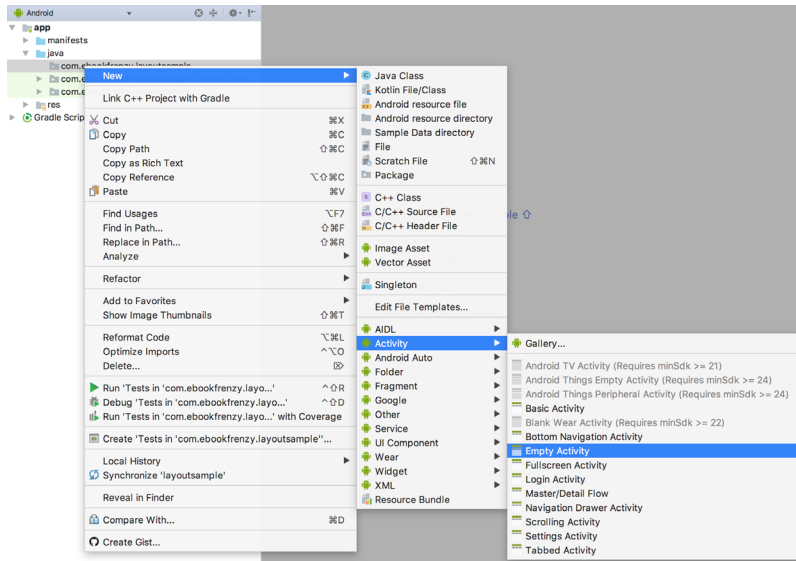


Figure 21-1

In the resulting *New Android Activity* dialog, name the new activity *MainActivity* and the layout *activity\_main*. The activity will, of course, need a layout resource file so make sure that the *Generate a Layout File* option is enabled.

In order for an application to be able to run on a device it needs to have an activity designated as the *launcher activity*. Without a launcher activity, the operating system will not know which activity to start up when the application first launches and the application will fail to start. Since this example only has one activity, it needs to be designated as the launcher activity for the application so make sure that the *Launcher Activity* option is enabled before clicking on the *Finish* button.

At this point Android Studio should have added two files to the project. The Java source code file for the activity should be located in the *app -> java -> com -> ebookfrenzy -> layoutsample* folder.

In addition, the XML layout file for the user interface should have been created in the *app -> res -> layout* folder. Note that the Empty Activity template was chosen for this activity so the layout is contained entirely within the *activity\_main.xml* file and there is no separate content layout file. Also, since we will not be writing any code to access views in the user interface layout, it is not necessary to convert the project to support view binding.

Finally, the new activity should have been added to the *AndroidManifest.xml* file and designated as the launcher activity. The manifest file can be found in the project window under the *app -> manifests* folder and should contain the following XML:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<manifest xmlns:android="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
    package="com.ebookfrenzy.layoutsample">

    <application
        android:allowBackup="true"
        android:dataExtractionRules="@xml/data_extraction_rules"
        android:fullBackupContent="@xml/backup_rules"
```



```

android:icon="@mipmap/ic_launcher"
android:label="@string/app_name"
android:roundIcon="@mipmap/ic_launcher_round"
android:supportsRtl="true"
android:theme="@style/Theme.LayoutSample"
tools:targetApi="31">
<activity
    android:name=".MainActivity"
    android:exported="true" >
    <intent-filter>
        <action android:name="android.intent.action.MAIN" />

        <category
            android:name="android.intent.category.LAUNCHER" />
    </intent-filter>
</activity>
</application>

</manifest>

```

## 21.3 Preparing the Layout Editor Environment

Locate and double-click on the *activity\_main.xml* layout file located in the *app -> res -> layout* folder to load it into the Layout Editor tool. Since the purpose of this tutorial is to gain experience with the use of constraints, turn off the Autoconnect feature using the button located in the Layout Editor toolbar. Once disabled, the button will appear with a line through it as is the case in Figure 21-2:



Figure 21-2

If the default margin value to the right of the Autoconnect button is not set to 8dp, click on it and select 8dp from the resulting panel.

The user interface design will also make use of the *ImageView* object to display an image. Before proceeding, this image should be added to the project ready for use later in the chapter. This file is named *galaxys6.png* and can be found in the *project\_icons* folder of the sample code download available from the following URL:

<https://www.ebookfrenzy.com/retail/dolphinjava/index.php>

Within Android Studio, display the Resource Manager tool window (*View -> Tool Windows -> Resource Manager*). Locate the *galaxy6s.png* image in the file system navigator for your operating system and drag and drop the image onto the Resource Manager tool window. In the resulting dialog, click *Next* followed by the *Import* button to add the image to project. The image should now appear in the Resource Manager as shown in Figure 21-3 below:

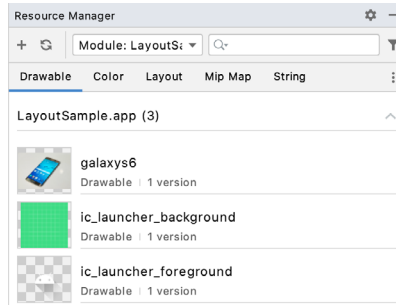


Figure 21-3

The image will also appear in the *res -> drawables* section of the Project tool window:

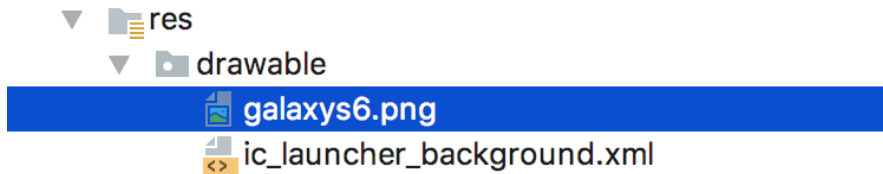


Figure 21-4

## 21.4 Adding the Widgets to the User Interface

From within the *Common* palette category, drag an *ImageView* object into the center of the display view. Note that horizontal and vertical dashed lines appear indicating the center axes of the display. When centered, release the mouse button to drop the view into position. Once placed within the layout, the Resources dialog will appear seeking the image to be displayed within the view. In the search bar located at the top of the dialog, enter “galaxy” to locate the *galaxys6.png* resource as illustrated in Figure 21-5.

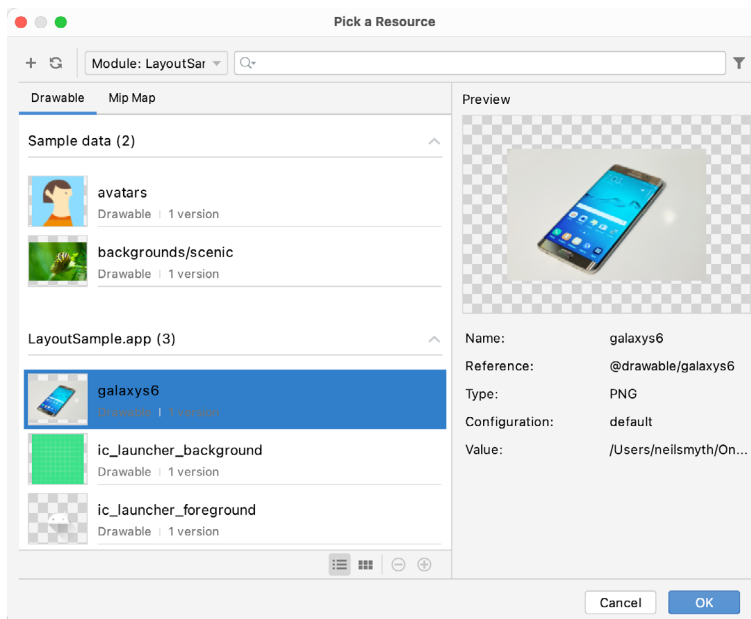


Figure 21-5

Select the image and click on **OK** to assign it to the *ImageView* object. If necessary, adjust the size of the

ImageView using the resize handles and reposition it in the center of the layout. At this point the layout should match Figure 21-6:

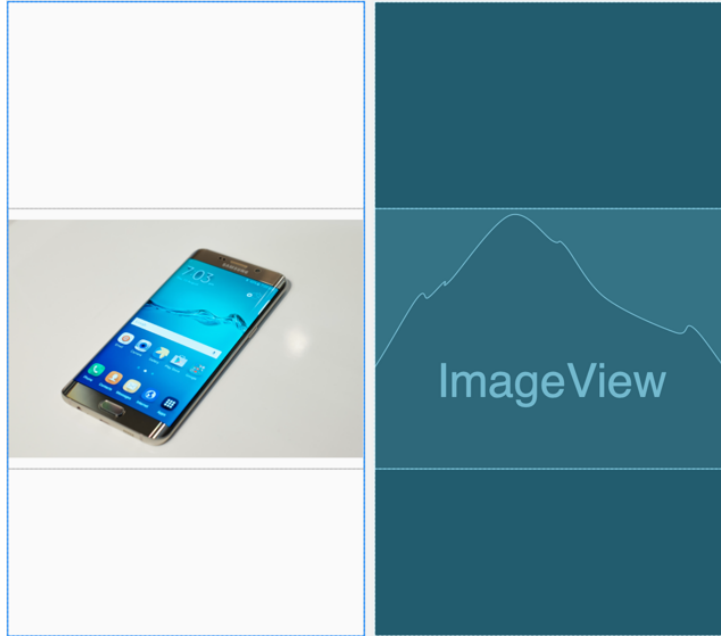


Figure 21-6

Click and drag a TextView object from the *Common* section of the palette and position it so that it appears above the ImageView as illustrated in Figure 21-7.

Using the Attributes panel, unfold the *textAppearance* attribute entry in the Common Attributes section, change the *textSize* property to 24sp, the *textAlignment* setting to center and the text to “Samsung Galaxy S6”.

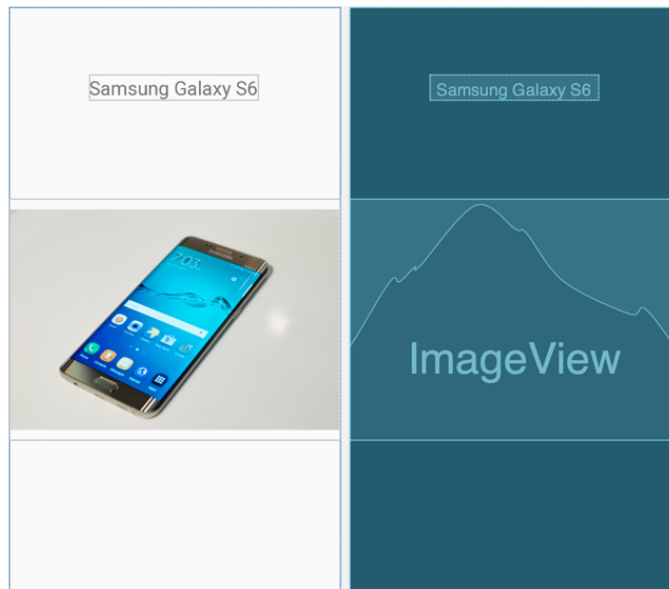


Figure 21-7

Next, add three Button widgets along the bottom of the layout and set the text attributes of these views to “Buy Now”, “Pricing” and “Details”. The completed layout should now match Figure 21-8:

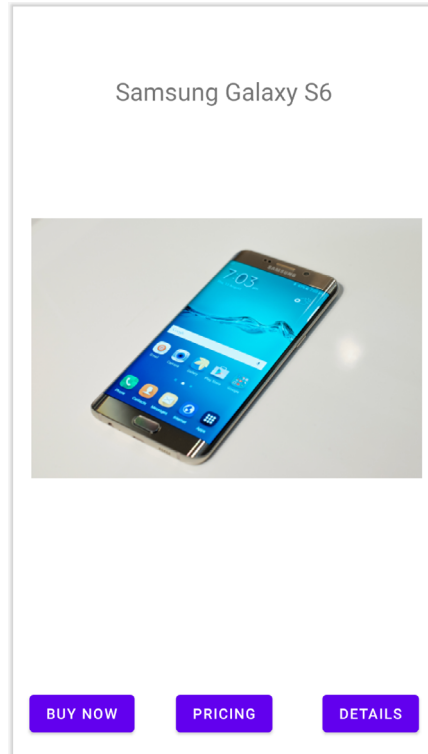


Figure 21-8

At this point, the widgets are not sufficiently constrained for the layout engine to be able to position and size the widgets at runtime. Were the app to run now, all of the widgets would be positioned in the top left-hand corner of the display.

With the widgets added to the layout, use the device rotation button located in the Layout Editor toolbar (indicated by the arrow in Figure 21-9) to view the user interface in landscape orientation:

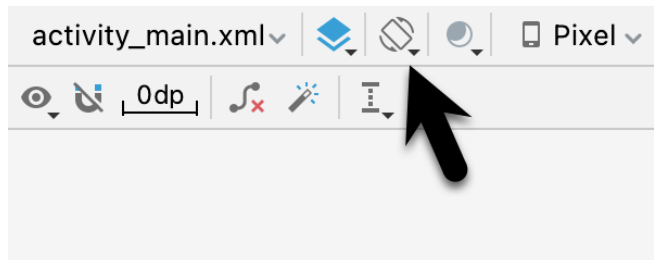


Figure 21-9

The absence of constraints results in a layout that fails to adapt to the change in device orientation, leaving the content off center and with part of the image and all three buttons positioned beyond the viewable area of the screen. Clearly some work still needs to be done to make this into a responsive user interface.

## 21.5 Adding the Constraints

Constraints are the key to creating layouts that can adapt to device orientation changes and different screen sizes. Begin by rotating the layout back to portrait orientation and selecting the TextView widget located above the ImageView. With the widget selected, establish constraints from the left, right and top sides of the TextView to the corresponding sides of the parent ConstraintLayout as shown in Figure 21-10:



Figure 21-10

With the TextView widget constrained, select the ImageView instance and establish opposing constraints on the left and right-hand sides with each connected to the corresponding sides of the parent layout. Next, establish a constraint connection from the top of the ImageView to the bottom of the TextView and from the bottom of the ImageView to the top of the center Button widget. If necessary, click and drag the ImageView so that it is still positioned in the vertical center of the layout.

With the ImageView still selected, use the Inspector in the attributes panel to change the top and bottom margins to 24 and 8 respectively and to change both the widget height and width dimension properties to *match\_constraint* so that the widget will resize to match the constraints. These settings will allow the layout engine to enlarge and reduce the size of the ImageView when necessary to accommodate layout changes:

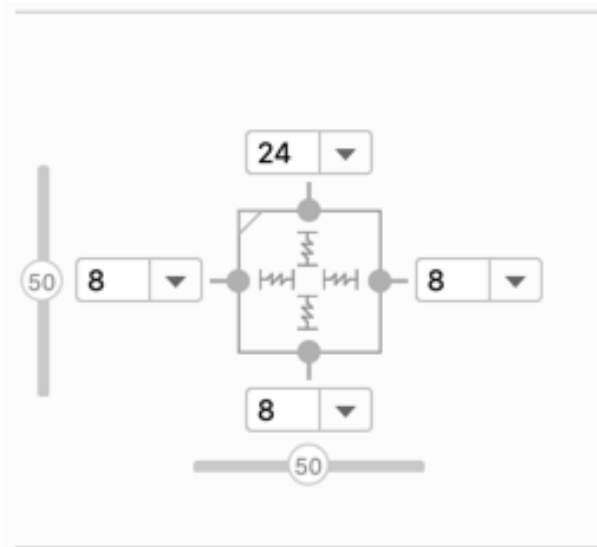


Figure 21-11

Figure 21-12, shows the currently implemented constraints for the ImageView in relation to the other elements in the layout:

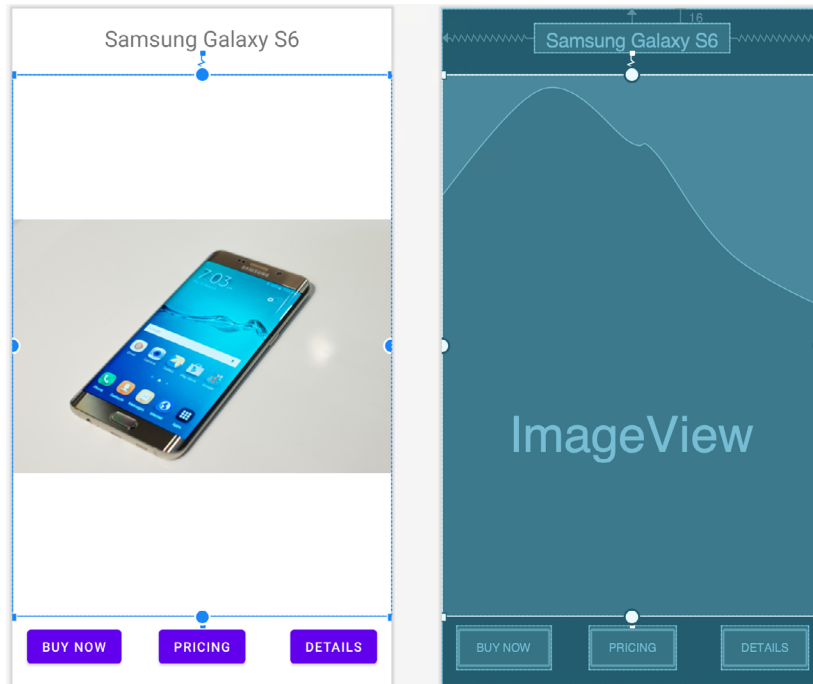


Figure 21-12

The final task is to add constraints to the three Button widgets. For this example, the buttons will be placed in a chain. Begin by turning on Autoconnect within the Layout Editor by clicking the toolbar button highlighted in Figure 21-2.

Next, click on the Buy Now button and then shift-click on the other two buttons so that all three are selected. Right-click on the Buy Now button and select the *Chains -> Create Horizontal Chain* menu option from the resulting menu. By default, the chain will be displayed using the spread style which is the correct behavior for this example.

Finally, establish a constraint between the bottom of the Buy Now button and the bottom of the layout. Repeat this step for the remaining buttons.

On completion of these steps the buttons should be constrained as outlined in Figure 21-13:



Figure 21-13

## 21.6 Testing the Layout

With the constraints added to the layout, rotate the screen into landscape orientation and verify that the layout adapts to accommodate the new screen dimensions.

While the Layout Editor tool provides a useful visual environment in which to design user interface layouts, when it comes to testing there is no substitute for testing the running app. Launch the app on a physical Android device or emulator session and verify that the user interface reflects the layout created in the Layout Editor.

Figure 21-14, for example, shows the running app in landscape orientation:

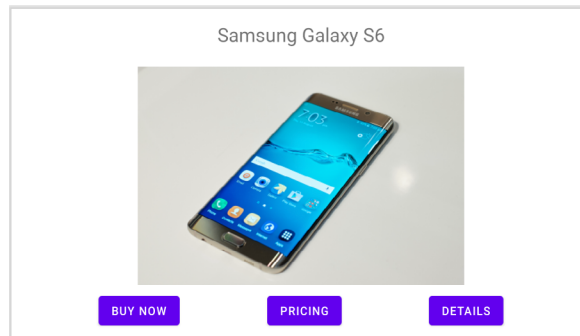


Figure 21-14

The user interface design is now complete. Designing a more complex user interface layout is a continuation of the steps outlined above. Simply drag and drop views onto the display, position, constrain and set properties as needed.

## 21.7 Using the Layout Inspector

The hierarchy of components that make up a user interface layout may be viewed at any time using the Layout Inspector tool. To access this information the app must be running on a device or emulator running Android API 29 or later. Once the app is running, select the *Tools -> Layout Inspector* menu option followed by the process to be inspected using the menu marked A in Figure 21-15 below).

Once the inspector loads, the left most panel (B) shows the hierarchy of components that make up the user interface layout. The center panel (C) shows a visual representation of the layout design. Clicking on a widget in the visual layout will cause that item to highlight in the hierarchy list making it easy to find where a visual component is situated relative to the overall layout hierarchy.

Finally, the right-most panel (marked D in Figure 21-15) contains all of the property settings for the currently selected component, allowing for in-depth analysis of the component's internal configuration. Where appropriate, the value cell will contain a link to the location of the property setting within the project source code.

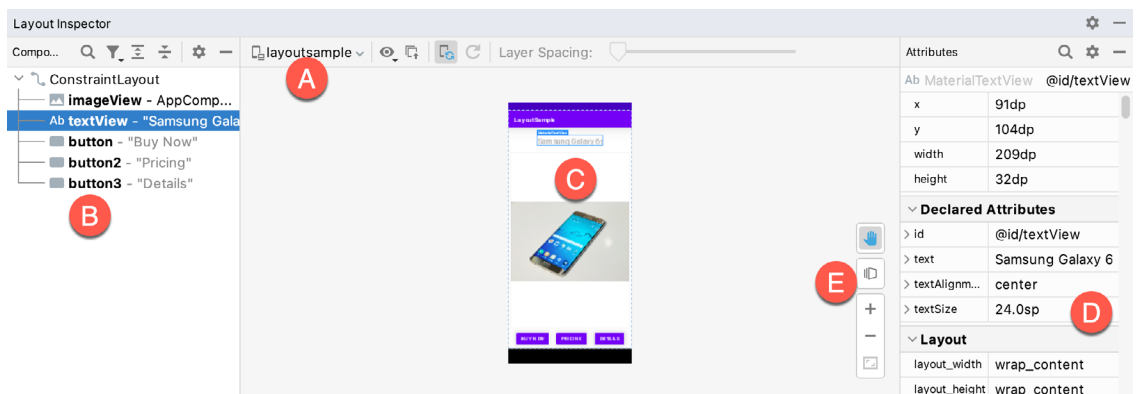


Figure 21-15

To view the layout in 3D, click on the button labeled E. This displays an “exploded” representation of the hierarchy so that it can be rotated and inspected. This can be useful for tasks such as identifying obscured views:

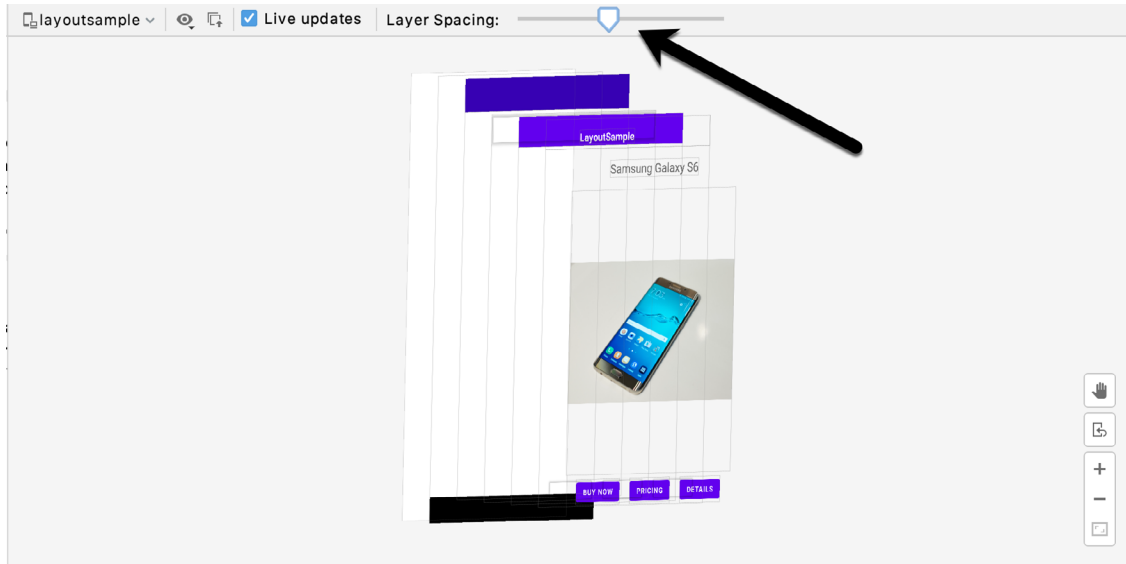


Figure 21-16

Click and drag the rendering to rotate it in three dimensions, using the slider indicated by the arrow in the above figure to increase the spacing between the layers. Click the button marked E again to return to the 2D view.

### 21.8 Summary

The Layout Editor tool in Android Studio has been tightly integrated with the ConstraintLayout class. This chapter has worked through the creation of an example user interface intended to outline the ways in which a ConstraintLayout-based user interface can be implemented using the Layout Editor tool in terms of adding widgets and setting constraints. This chapter also introduced the Live Layout Inspector tool which is useful for analyzing the structural composition of a user interface layout.



## 26. An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling

Much has been covered in the previous chapters relating to the design of user interfaces for Android applications. An area that has yet to be covered, however, involves the way in which a user's interaction with the user interface triggers the underlying activity to perform a task. In other words, we know from the previous chapters how to create a user interface containing a button view, but not how to make something happen within the application when it is touched by the user.

The primary objective of this chapter, therefore, is to provide an overview of event handling in Android applications together with an Android Studio based example project.

### 26.1 Understanding Android Events

Events in Android can take a variety of different forms, but are usually generated in response to an external action. The most common form of events, particularly for devices such as tablets and smartphones, involve some form of interaction with the touch screen. Such events fall into the category of *input events*.

The Android framework maintains an *event queue* into which events are placed as they occur. Events are then removed from the queue on a first-in, first-out (FIFO) basis. In the case of an input event such as a touch on the screen, the event is passed to the view positioned at the location on the screen where the touch took place. In addition to the event notification, the view is also passed a range of information (depending on the event type) about the nature of the event such as the coordinates of the point of contact between the user's fingertip and the screen.

To be able to handle the event that it has been passed, the view must have in place an *event listener*. The Android View class, from which all user interface components are derived, contains a range of event listener interfaces, each of which contains an abstract declaration for a callback method. To be able to respond to an event of a particular type, a view must register the appropriate event listener and implement the corresponding callback. For example, if a button is to respond to a *click* event (the equivalent to the user touching and releasing the button view as though clicking on a physical button) it must both register the *View.OnClickListener* event listener (via a call to the target view's *setOnClickListener()* method) and implement the corresponding *onClick()* callback method. If a "click" event is detected on the screen at the location of the button view, the Android framework will call the *onClick()* method of that view when that event is removed from the event queue. It is, of course, within the implementation of the *onClick()* callback method that any tasks should be performed or other methods called in response to the button click.

### 26.2 Using the android:onClick Resource

Before exploring event listeners in more detail it is worth noting that a shortcut is available when all that is required is for a callback method to be called when a user "clicks" on a button view in the user interface. Consider a user interface layout containing a button view named *button1* with the requirement that when the user touches the button, a method called *buttonClick()* declared in the activity class is called. All that is required to implement this behavior is to write the *buttonClick()* method (which takes as an argument a reference to the view that triggered the click event) and add a single line to the declaration of the button view in the XML file. For example:

```
<Button
```

## An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling

```
android:id="@+id/button1"  
android:layout_width="wrap_content"  
android:layout_height="wrap_content"  
android:onClick="buttonClick"  
android:text="Click me" />
```

This provides a simple way to capture click events. It does not, however, provide the range of options offered by event handlers, which are the topic of the rest of this chapter. As will be outlined in later chapters, the `onClick` property also has limitations in layouts involving fragments. When working within Android Studio Layout Editor, the `onClick` property can be found and configured in the Attributes panel when a suitable view type is selected in the device screen layout.

### 26.3 Event Listeners and Callback Methods

In the example activity outlined later in this chapter the steps involved in registering an event listener and implementing the callback method will be covered in detail. Before doing so, however, it is worth taking some time to outline the event listeners that are available in the Android framework and the callback methods associated with each one.

- **`onClickListener`** – Used to detect click style events whereby the user touches and then releases an area of the device display occupied by a view. Corresponds to the `onClick()` callback method which is passed a reference to the view that received the event as an argument.
- **`onLongClickListener`** – Used to detect when the user maintains the touch over a view for an extended period. Corresponds to the `onLongClick()` callback method which is passed as an argument the view that received the event.
- **`onTouchListener`** – Used to detect any form of contact with the touch screen including individual or multiple touches and gesture motions. Corresponding with the `onTouch()` callback, this topic will be covered in greater detail in the chapter entitled “*Android Touch and Multi-touch Event Handling*”. The callback method is passed as arguments the view that received the event and a `MotionEvent` object.
- **`onCreateContextMenuListener`** – Listens for the creation of a context menu as the result of a long click. Corresponds to the `onCreateContextMenu()` callback method. The callback is passed the menu, the view that received the event and a menu context object.
- **`onFocusChangeListener`** – Detects when focus moves away from the current view as the result of interaction with a track-ball or navigation key. Corresponds to the `onFocusChange()` callback method which is passed the view that received the event and a Boolean value to indicate whether focus was gained or lost.
- **`onKeyListener`** – Used to detect when a key on a device is pressed while a view has focus. Corresponds to the `onKey()` callback method. Passed as arguments are the view that received the event, the `KeyCode` of the physical key that was pressed and a `KeyEvent` object.

### 26.4 An Event Handling Example

In the remainder of this chapter, we will work through the creation of an Android Studio project designed to demonstrate the implementation of an event listener and corresponding callback method to detect when the user has clicked on a button. The code within the callback method will update a text view to indicate that the event has been processed.

Select the *New Project* option from the welcome screen and, within the resulting new project dialog, choose the Empty Activity template before clicking on the Next button.

Enter *EventExample* into the Name field and specify *com.ebookfrenzy.eventexample* as the package name. Before

clicking on the Finish button, change the Minimum API level setting to API 26: Android 8.0 (Oreo) and the Language menu to Java. Using the steps outlined in section 11.8 *Migrating a Project to View Binding*, convert the project to use view binding.

## 26.5 Designing the User Interface

The user interface layout for the *MainActivity* class in this example is to consist of a *ConstraintLayout*, a *Button* and a *TextView* as illustrated in Figure 26-1.

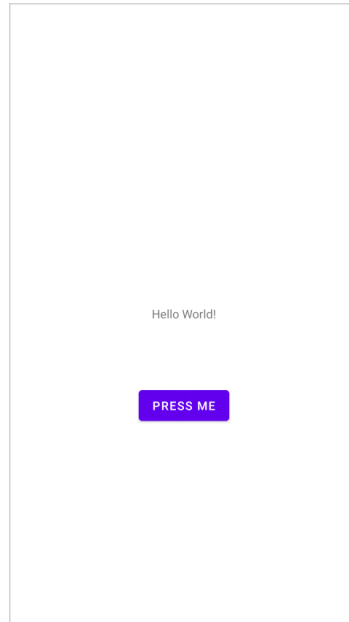


Figure 26-1

Locate and select the *activity\_main.xml* file created by Android Studio (located in the Project tool window under *app -> res -> layouts*) and double-click on it to load it into the Layout Editor tool.

Make sure that Autoconnect is enabled, then drag a *Button* widget from the palette and move it so that it is positioned in the horizontal center of the layout and beneath the existing *TextView* widget. When correctly positioned, drop the widget into place so that appropriate constraints are added by the autoconnect system.

Select the “Hello World!” *TextView* widget and use the Attributes panel to set the ID to *statusText*. Repeat this step to change the ID of the *Button* widget to *myButton*.

Add any missing constraints by clicking on the *Infer Constraints* button in the layout editor toolbar.

With the *Button* widget selected, use the Attributes panel to set the text property to Press Me. Using the yellow warning button located in the top right-hand corner of the Layout Editor (Figure 26-2), display the warnings list and click on the *Fix* button to extract the text string on the button to a resource named *press\_me*:

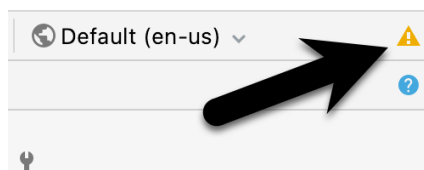


Figure 26-2

With the user interface layout now completed, the next step is to register the event listener and callback method.

### 26.6 The Event Listener and Callback Method

For the purposes of this example, an *onClickListener* needs to be registered for the *myButton* view. This is achieved by making a call to the *setOnClickListener()* method of the button view, passing through a new *onClickListener* object as an argument and implementing the *onClick()* callback method. Since this is a task that only needs to be performed when the activity is created, a good location is the *onCreate()* method of the *MainActivity* class.

If the *MainActivity.java* file is already open within an editor session, select it by clicking on the tab in the editor panel. Alternatively locate it within the Project tool window by navigating to (*app* -> *java* -> *com* -> *ebookfrenzy* -> *eventexample* -> *MainActivity*) and double-click on it to load it into the code editor. Once loaded, locate the template *onCreate()* method and modify it to obtain a reference to the button view, register the event listener and implement the *onClick()* callback method:

```
package com.ebookfrenzy.eventexample;

import androidx.appcompat.app.AppCompatActivity;

import android.os.Bundle;
import android.view.View;
import android.widget.Button;

public class MainActivity extends AppCompatActivity {

    @Override
    protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
        binding = ActivityMainBinding.inflate(getLayoutInflater());
        View view = binding.getRoot();
        setContentView(view);

        binding.myButton.setOnClickListener(
            new Button.OnClickListener() {
                public void onClick(View v) {

                }
            }
        );
    }
}
```

The above code has now registered the event listener on the button and implemented the *onClick()* method. If the application were to be run at this point, however, there would be no indication that the event listener installed on the button was working since there is, as yet, no code implemented within the body of the *onClick()* callback method. The goal for the example is to have a message appear on the *TextView* when the button is clicked, so some further code changes need to be made:

```

@Override
protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
    binding = ActivityMainBinding.inflate(getLayoutInflater());
    View view = binding.getRoot();
    setContentView(view);

    binding.myButton.setOnClickListener(
        new Button.OnClickListener() {
            public void onClick(View v) {
                binding.statusText.setText("Button clicked");
            }
        }
    );
}

```

Complete this phase of the tutorial by compiling and running the application on either an AVD emulator or physical Android device. On touching and releasing the button view (otherwise known as “clicking”) the text view should change to display the “Button clicked” text.

## 26.7 Consuming Events

The detection of standard clicks (as opposed to long clicks) on views is a very simple case of event handling. The example will now be extended to include the detection of long click events which occur when the user clicks and holds a view on the screen and, in doing so, cover the topic of event consumption.

Consider the code for the *onClick()* method in the above section of this chapter. The callback is declared as *void* and, as such, does not return a value to the Android framework after it has finished executing.

The code assigned to the *onLongClickListener*, on the other hand, is required to return a Boolean value to the Android framework. The purpose of this return value is to indicate to the Android runtime whether or not the callback has *consumed* the event. If the callback returns a *true* value, the event is discarded by the framework. If, on the other hand, the callback returns a *false* value the Android framework will consider the event still to be active and will consequently pass it along to the next matching event listener that is registered on the same view.

As with many programming concepts this is, perhaps, best demonstrated with an example. The first step is to add an event listener and callback method for long clicks to the button view in the example activity:

```

@Override
protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    .
    .
    .

    binding.myButton.setOnLongClickListener(
        new Button.OnLongClickListener() {
            public boolean onLongClick(View v) {
                binding.statusText.setText("Long button click");
                return true;
            }
        }
    );
}

```

```
}  
}
```

Clearly, when a long click is detected, the *onLongClick()* callback method will display “Long button click” on the text view. Note, however, that the callback method also returns a value of *true* to indicate that it has consumed the event. Run the application and press and hold the Button view until the “Long button click” text appears in the text view. On releasing the button, the text view continues to display the “Long button click” text indicating that the *onClick* listener code was not called.

Next, modify the code so that the *onLongClick* listener now returns a *false* value:

```
button.setOnLongClickListener(  
    new Button.OnLongClickListener() {  
        public boolean onLongClick(View v) {  
            TextView myTextView = findViewById(R.id.myTextView);  
            myTextView.setText("Long button click");  
            return false;  
        }  
    }  
);
```

Once again, compile and run the application and perform a long click on the button until the long click message appears. Upon releasing the button this time, however, note that the *onClick* listener is also triggered and the text changes to “Button clicked”. This is because the *false* value returned by the *onLongClick* listener code indicated to the Android framework that the event was not consumed by the method and was eligible to be passed on to the next registered listener on the view. In this case, the runtime ascertained that the *onClick* listener on the button was also interested in events of this type and subsequently called the *onClick* listener code.

## 26.8 Summary

A user interface is of little practical use if the views it contains do not do anything in response to user interaction. Android bridges the gap between the user interface and the back end code of the application through the concepts of event listeners and callback methods. The Android View class defines a set of event listeners, which can be registered on view objects. Each event listener also has associated with it a callback method.

When an event takes place on a view in a user interface, that event is placed into an event queue and handled on a first in, first out basis by the Android runtime. If the view on which the event took place has registered a listener that matches the type of event, the corresponding callback method is called. This code then performs any tasks required by the activity before returning. Some callback methods are required to return a Boolean value to indicate whether the event needs to be passed on to any other event listeners registered on the view or discarded by the system.

Having covered the basics of event handling, the next chapter will explore in some depth the topic of touch events with a particular emphasis on handling multiple touches.

## 27. Android Touch and Multi-touch Event Handling

Most Android based devices use a touch screen as the primary interface between user and device. The previous chapter introduced the mechanism by which a touch on the screen translates into an action within a running Android application. There is, however, much more to touch event handling than responding to a single finger tap on a view object. Most Android devices can, for example, detect more than one touch at a time. Nor are touches limited to a single point on the device display. Touches can, of course, be dynamic as the user slides one or more points of contact across the surface of the screen.

Touches can also be interpreted by an application as a *gesture*. Consider, for example, that a horizontal swipe is typically used to turn the page of an eBook, or how a pinching motion can be used to zoom in and out of an image displayed on the screen.

This chapter will explain the handling of touches that involve motion and explore the concept of intercepting multiple concurrent touches. The topic of identifying distinct gestures will be covered in the next chapter.

### 27.1 Intercepting Touch Events

Touch events can be intercepted by a view object through the registration of an *onTouchListener* event listener and the implementation of the corresponding *onTouch()* callback method. The following code, for example, ensures that any touches on a *ConstraintLayout* view instance named *myLayout* result in a call to the *onTouch()* method:

```
binding.myLayout.setOnTouchListener(  
    new ConstraintLayout.OnTouchListener() {  
        public boolean onTouch(View v, MotionEvent m) {  
            // Perform tasks here  
            return true;  
        }  
    }  
);
```

As indicated in the code example, the *onTouch()* callback is required to return a Boolean value indicating to the Android runtime system whether or not the event should be passed on to other event listeners registered on the same view or discarded. The method is passed both a reference to the view on which the event was triggered and an object of type *MotionEvent*.

### 27.2 The MotionEvent Object

The *MotionEvent* object passed through to the *onTouch()* callback method is the key to obtaining information about the event. Information contained within the object includes the location of the touch within the view and the type of action performed. The *MotionEvent* object is also the key to handling multiple touches.

## 27.3 Understanding Touch Actions

An important aspect of touch event handling involves being able to identify the type of action performed by the user. The type of action associated with an event can be obtained by making a call to the `getActionMasked()` method of the `MotionEvent` object which was passed through to the `onTouch()` callback method. When the first touch on a view occurs, the `MotionEvent` object will contain an action type of `ACTION_DOWN` together with the coordinates of the touch. When that touch is lifted from the screen, an `ACTION_UP` event is generated. Any motion of the touch between the `ACTION_DOWN` and `ACTION_UP` events will be represented by `ACTION_MOVE` events.

When more than one touch is performed simultaneously on a view, the touches are referred to as *pointers*. In a multi-touch scenario, pointers begin and end with event actions of type `ACTION_POINTER_DOWN` and `ACTION_POINTER_UP` respectively. To identify the index of the pointer that triggered the event, the `getActionIndex()` callback method of the `MotionEvent` object must be called.

## 27.4 Handling Multiple Touches

The chapter entitled “*An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling*” began exploring event handling within the narrow context of a single touch event. In practice, most Android devices possess the ability to respond to multiple consecutive touches (though it is important to note that the number of simultaneous touches that can be detected varies depending on the device).

As previously discussed, each touch in a multi-touch situation is considered by the Android framework to be a *pointer*. Each pointer, in turn, is referenced by an *index* value and assigned an *ID*. The current number of pointers can be obtained via a call to the `getPointerCount()` method of the current `MotionEvent` object. The ID for a pointer at a particular index in the list of current pointers may be obtained via a call to the `MotionEvent` `getPointerId()` method. For example, the following code excerpt obtains a count of pointers and the ID of the pointer at index 0:

```
public boolean onTouch(View v, MotionEvent m) {
    int pointerCount = m.getPointerCount();
    int pointerId = m.getPointerId(0);
    return true;
}
```

Note that the pointer count will always be greater than or equal to 1 when the `onTouch` listener is triggered (since at least one touch must have occurred for the callback to be triggered).

A touch on a view, particularly one involving motion across the screen, will generate a stream of events before the point of contact with the screen is lifted. As such, it is likely that an application will need to track individual touches over multiple touch events. While the ID of a specific touch gesture will not change from one event to the next, it is important to keep in mind that the index value will change as other touch events come and go. When working with a touch gesture over multiple events, therefore, it is essential that the ID value be used as the touch reference to make sure the same touch is being tracked. When calling methods that require an index value, this should be obtained by converting the ID for a touch to the corresponding index value via a call to the `findPointerIndex()` method of the `MotionEvent` object.

## 27.5 An Example Multi-Touch Application

The example application created in the remainder of this chapter will track up to two touch gestures as they move across a layout view. As the events for each touch are triggered, the coordinates, index and ID for each touch will be displayed on the screen.

Select the *New Project* option from the welcome screen and, within the resulting new project dialog, choose the



Empty Activity template before clicking on the Next button.

Enter *MotionEvent* into the Name field and specify *com.ebookfrenzy.motionevent* as the package name. Before clicking on the Finish button, change the Minimum API level setting to API 26: Android 8.0 (Oreo) and the Language menu to Java.

Adapt the project to use view binding as outlined in section 11.8 *Migrating a Project to View Binding*.

## 27.6 Designing the Activity User Interface

The user interface for the application's sole activity is to consist of a ConstraintLayout view containing two TextView objects. Within the Project tool window, navigate to *app -> res -> layout* and double-click on the *activity\_main.xml* layout resource file to load it into the Android Studio Layout Editor tool.

Select and delete the default “Hello World!” TextView widget and then, with autoconnect enabled, drag and drop a new TextView widget so that it is centered horizontally and positioned at the 16dp margin line on the top edge of the layout:



Figure 27-1

Drag a second TextView widget and position and constrain it so that it is distanced by a 32dp margin from the bottom of the first widget:

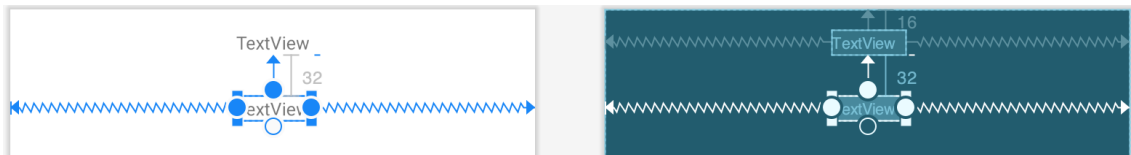


Figure 27-2

Using the Attributes tool window, change the IDs for the TextView widgets to *textView1* and *textView2* respectively. Change the text displayed on the widgets to read “Touch One Status” and “Touch Two Status” and extract the strings to resources using the warning button in the top right-hand corner of the Layout Editor.

## 27.7 Implementing the Touch Event Listener

To receive touch event notifications it will be necessary to register a touch listener on the layout view within the *onCreate()* method of the *MainActivity* activity class. Select the *MainActivity.java* tab from the Android Studio editor panel to display the source code. Within the *onCreate()* method, add code to register the touch listener and implement code which, in this case, is going to call a second method named *handleTouch()* to which is passed the *MotionEvent* object:

```
package com.ebookfrenzy.motionevent;

import androidx.appcompat.app.AppCompatActivity;
import androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout;

import android.os.Bundle;
import android.view.MotionEvent;
import android.view.View;
```

## Android Touch and Multi-touch Event Handling

```
import com.ebookfrenzy.motionevent.databinding.ActivityMainBinding;

public class MainActivity extends AppCompatActivity {

    private ActivityMainBinding binding;

    @Override
    protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
        binding = ActivityMainBinding.inflate(getLayoutInflater());
        View view = binding.getRoot();
        setContentView(view);

        binding.activityMain.setOnTouchListener(
            new ConstraintLayout.OnTouchListener() {
                public boolean onTouch(View v, MotionEvent m) {
                    handleTouch(m);
                    return true;
                }
            }
        );
    }
}
```

When we designed the user interface, the parent `ConstraintLayout` was not assigned an ID that would allow us to access it via the view binding mechanism. Since this layout component is the top-most component in the UI layout hierarchy, we have been able to reference it using the *root* binding property in the code above.

The final task before testing the application is to implement the *handleTouch()* method called by the listener. The code for this method reads as follows:

```
void handleTouch(MotionEvent m) {

    int pointerCount = m.getPointerCount();

    for (int i = 0; i < pointerCount; i++)
    {
        int x = (int) m.getX(i);
        int y = (int) m.getY(i);
        int id = m.getPointerId(i);
        int action = m.getActionMasked();
        int actionIndex = m.getActionIndex();
        String actionString;

        switch (action)
        {
            case MotionEvent.ACTION_DOWN:
                actionString = "DOWN";
                break;
```

```

        case MotionEvent.ACTION_UP:
            actionString = "UP";
            break;
        case MotionEvent.ACTION_POINTER_DOWN:
            actionString = "PNTR DOWN";
            break;
        case MotionEvent.ACTION_POINTER_UP:
            actionString = "PNTR UP";
            break;
        case MotionEvent.ACTION_MOVE:
            actionString = "MOVE";
            break;
        default:
            actionString = "";
    }

    String touchStatus = "Action: " + actionString + " Index: " + actionIndex
+ " ID: " + id + " X: " + x + " Y: " + y;

    if (id == 0)
        binding.textView1.setText(touchStatus);
    else
        binding.textView2.setText(touchStatus);
}
}

```

Before compiling and running the application, it is worth taking the time to walk through this code systematically to highlight the tasks that are being performed.

The code begins by obtaining references to the two `TextView` objects in the user interface and identifying how many pointers are currently active on the view:

```

TextView textView1 = findViewById(R.id.textView1);
TextView textView2 = findViewById(R.id.textView2);

```

```

int pointerCount = m.getPointerCount();

```

Next, the *pointerCount* variable is used to initiate a *for* loop which performs a set of tasks for each active pointer. The first few lines of the loop obtain the X and Y coordinates of the touch together with the corresponding event ID, action type and action index. Lastly, a string variable is declared:

```

for (int i = 0; i < pointerCount; i++)
{
    int x = (int) m.getX(i);
    int y = (int) m.getY(i);
    int id = m.getPointerId(i);
    int action = m.getActionMasked();
    int actionIndex = m.getActionIndex();
    String actionString;

```

## Android Touch and Multi-touch Event Handling

Since action types equate to integer values, a *switch* statement is used to convert the action type to a more meaningful string value, which is stored in the previously declared *actionString* variable:

```
switch (action)
{
    case MotionEvent.ACTION_DOWN:
        actionString = "DOWN";
        break;
    case MotionEvent.ACTION_UP:
        actionString = "UP";
        break;
    case MotionEvent.ACTION_POINTER_DOWN:
        actionString = "PNTR DOWN";
        break;
    case MotionEvent.ACTION_POINTER_UP:
        actionString = "PNTR UP";
        break;
    case MotionEvent.ACTION_MOVE:
        actionString = "MOVE";
        break;
    default:
        actionString = "";
}
```

Finally, the string message is constructed using the *actionString* value, the action index, touch ID and X and Y coordinates. The ID value is then used to decide whether the string should be displayed on the first or second *TextView* object:

```
String touchStatus = "Action: " + actionString + " Index: "
    + actionIndex + " ID: " + id + " X: " + x + " Y: " + y;

if (id == 0)
    binding.textView1.setText(touchStatus);
else
    binding.textView2.setText(touchStatus);
```

## 27.8 Running the Example Application

Compile and run the application and, once launched, experiment with single and multiple touches on the screen and note that the text views update to reflect the events as illustrated in Figure 27-3. When running on an emulator, multiple touches may be simulated by holding down the Ctrl (Cmd on macOS) key while clicking the mouse button (note that simulating multiple touches may not work if the emulator is running in a tool window):

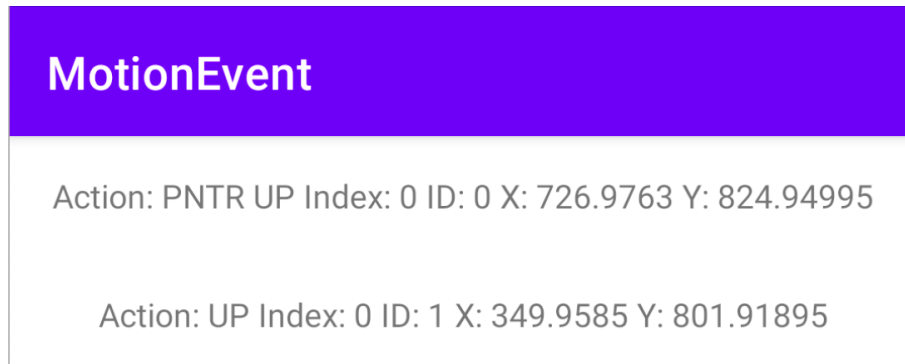


Figure 27-3

## 27.9 Summary

Activities receive notifications of touch events by registering an `onTouchListener` event listener and implementing the `onTouch()` callback method which, in turn, is passed a `MotionEvent` object when called by the Android runtime. This object contains information about the touch such as the type of touch event, the coordinates of the touch and a count of the number of touches currently in contact with the view.

When multiple touches are involved, each point of contact is referred to as a pointer with each assigned an index and an ID. While the index of a touch can change from one event to another, the ID will remain unchanged until the touch ends.

This chapter has worked through the creation of an example Android application designed to display the coordinates and action type of up to two simultaneous touches on a device display.

Having covered touches in general, the next chapter (entitled “*Detecting Common Gestures Using the Android Gesture Detector Class*”) will look further at touch screen event handling through the implementation of gesture recognition.



## 30. An Introduction to Android Fragments

As you progress through the chapters of this book it will become increasingly evident that many of the design concepts behind the Android system were conceived with the goal of promoting reuse of, and interaction between, the different elements that make up an application. One such area that will be explored in this chapter involves the use of Fragments.

This chapter will provide an overview of the basics of fragments in terms of what they are and how they can be created and used within applications. The next chapter will work through a tutorial designed to show fragments in action when developing applications in Android Studio, including the implementation of communication between fragments.

### 30.1 What is a Fragment?

A fragment is a self-contained, modular section of an application's user interface and corresponding behavior that can be embedded within an activity. Fragments can be assembled to create an activity during the application design phase, and added to or removed from an activity during application runtime to create a dynamically changing user interface.

Fragments may only be used as part of an activity and cannot be instantiated as standalone application elements. That being said, however, a fragment can be thought of as a functional "sub-activity" with its own lifecycle similar to that of a full activity.

Fragments are stored in the form of XML layout files and may be added to an activity either by placing appropriate <fragment> elements in the activity's layout file, or directly through code within the activity's class implementation.

### 30.2 Creating a Fragment

The two components that make up a fragment are an XML layout file and a corresponding Java class. The XML layout file for a fragment takes the same format as a layout for any other activity layout and can contain any combination and complexity of layout managers and views. The following XML layout, for example, is for a fragment consisting of a ConstraintLayout with a red background containing a single TextView with a white foreground:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout xmlns:android="http://schemas.
android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:app="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
    xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
    android:id="@+id/constraintLayout"
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="match_parent"
    android:background="@android:color/holo_red_dark"
    tools:context=".FragmentOne">
```

```

<TextView
    android:id="@+id/textView1"
    android:layout_width="wrap_content"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:text="My First Fragment"
    android:textAppearance="@style/TextAppearance.AppCompat.Large"
    android:textColor="@color/white"
    app:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
    app:layout_constraintEnd_toEndOf="parent"
    app:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent"
    app:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent" />
</androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout>

```

The corresponding class to go with the layout must be a subclass of the Android *Fragment* class. This class should, at a minimum, override the *onCreateView()* method which is responsible for loading the fragment layout. For example:

```

package com.example.myfragmentdemo;

import android.os.Bundle;
import android.view.LayoutInflater;
import android.view.View;
import android.view.ViewGroup;
import androidx.fragment.app.Fragment;

public class FragmentOne extends Fragment {

    @Override
    public View onCreateView(LayoutInflater inflater,
        ViewGroup container,
        Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        // Inflate the layout for this fragment
        binding = FragmentTextBinding.inflate(inflater, container, false);
        return binding.getRoot();
    }
}

```

In addition to the *onCreateView()* method, the class may also override the standard lifecycle methods.

Once the fragment layout and class have been created, the fragment is ready to be used within application activities.

### 30.3 Adding a Fragment to an Activity using the Layout XML File

Fragments may be incorporated into an activity either by writing Java code or by embedding the fragment into the activity's XML layout file. Regardless of the approach used, a key point to be aware of is that when the support library is being used for compatibility with older Android releases, any activities using fragments must be implemented as a subclass of *FragmentActivity* instead of the *AppCompatActivity* class:

```

package com.example.myfragmentdemo;

```



```
import android.os.Bundle;
import androidx.fragment.app.FragmentActivity;
import android.view.Menu;

public class MainActivity extends FragmentActivity {
    .
    .
}
```

Fragments are embedded into activity layout files using the `FragmentContainerView` class. The following example layout embeds the fragment created in the previous section of this chapter into an activity layout:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout xmlns:android="http://schemas.
android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:app="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
    xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="match_parent"
    tools:context=".MainActivity">

    <androidx.fragment.app.FragmentContainerView
        android:id="@+id/fragment2"
        android:name="com.ebookfrenzy.myfragmentdemo.FragmentOne"
        android:layout_width="0dp"
        android:layout_height="wrap_content"
        android:layout_marginStart="32dp"
        android:layout_marginEnd="32dp"
        app:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintEnd_toEndOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent"
        tools:layout="@layout/fragment_one" />
</androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout>
```

The key properties within the `<fragment>` element are *android:name*, which must reference the class associated with the fragment, and *tools:layout*, which must reference the XML resource file containing the layout of the fragment.

Once added to the layout of an activity, fragments may be viewed and manipulated within the Android Studio Layout Editor tool. Figure 30-1, for example, shows the above layout with the embedded fragment within the Android Studio Layout Editor:



Figure 30-1

### 30.4 Adding and Managing Fragments in Code

The ease of adding a fragment to an activity via the activity's XML layout file comes at the cost of the activity not being able to remove the fragment at runtime. To achieve full dynamic control of fragments during runtime, those activities must be added via code. This has the advantage that the fragments can be added, removed and even made to replace one another dynamically while the application is running.

When using code to manage fragments, the fragment itself will still consist of an XML layout file and a corresponding class. The difference comes when working with the fragment within the hosting activity. There is a standard sequence of steps when adding a fragment to an activity using code:

1. Create an instance of the fragment's class.
2. Pass any additional intent arguments through to the class instance.
3. Obtain a reference to the fragment manager instance.
4. Call the *beginTransaction()* method on the fragment manager instance. This returns a fragment transaction instance.
5. Call the *add()* method of the fragment transaction instance, passing through as arguments the resource ID of the view that is to contain the fragment and the fragment class instance.
6. Call the *commit()* method of the fragment transaction.

The following code, for example, adds a fragment defined by the `FragmentOne` class so that it appears in the container view with an ID of `LinearLayout1`:

```
FragmentOne firstFragment = new FragmentOne();
firstFragment.setArguments(getIntent().getExtras());

FragmentManager fragmentManager = getSupportFragmentManager();
FragmentManager transaction = fragmentManager.beginTransaction();
```

```
transaction.add(R.id.LinearLayout1, firstFragment);
transaction.commit();
```

The above code breaks down each step into a separate statement for the purposes of clarity. The last four lines can, however, be abbreviated into a single line of code as follows:

```
getSupportFragmentManager().beginTransaction()
    .add(R.id.LinearLayout1, firstFragment).commit();
```

Once added to a container, a fragment may subsequently be removed via a call to the *remove()* method of the fragment transaction instance, passing through a reference to the fragment instance that is to be removed:

```
transaction.remove(firstFragment);
```

Similarly, one fragment may be replaced with another by a call to the *replace()* method of the fragment transaction instance. This takes as arguments the ID of the view containing the fragment and an instance of the new fragment. The replaced fragment may also be placed on what is referred to as the *back stack* so that it can be quickly restored if the user navigates back to it. This is achieved by making a call to the *addToBackStack()* method of the fragment transaction object before making the *commit()* method call:

```
FragmentTwo secondFragment = new FragmentTwo();
transaction.replace(R.id.LinearLayout1, secondFragment);
transaction.addToBackStack(null);
transaction.commit();
```

## 30.5 Handling Fragment Events

As previously discussed, a fragment is very much like a sub-activity with its own layout, class and lifecycle. The view components (such as buttons and text views) within a fragment are able to generate events just like those in a regular activity. This raises the question as to which class receives an event from a view in a fragment; the fragment itself, or the activity in which the fragment is embedded. The answer to this question depends on how the event handler is declared.

In the chapter entitled “*An Overview and Example of Android Event Handling*”, two approaches to event handling were discussed. The first method involved configuring an event listener and callback method within the code of the activity. For example:

```
binding.button.setOnClickListener(
    new Button.OnClickListener() {
        public void onClick(View v) {
            // Code to be performed when
            // the button is clicked
        }
    }
);
```

In the case of intercepting click events, the second approach involved setting the *android:onClick* property within the XML layout file:

```
<Button
    android:id="@+id/button1"
    android:layout_width="wrap_content"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:onClick="onClick"
    android:text="Click me" />
```

The general rule for events generated by a view in a fragment is that if the event listener was declared in the fragment class using the event listener and callback method approach, then the event will be handled first by the fragment. If the *android:onClick* resource is used, however, the event will be passed directly to the activity containing the fragment.

### 30.6 Implementing Fragment Communication

Once one or more fragments are embedded within an activity, the chances are good that some form of communication will need to take place both between the fragments and the activity, and between one fragment and another. In fact, good practice dictates that fragments do not communicate directly with one another. All communication should take place via the encapsulating activity.

In order for an activity to communicate with a fragment, the activity must identify the fragment object via the ID assigned to it. Once this reference has been obtained, the activity can simply call the public methods of the fragment object.

Communicating in the other direction (from fragment to activity) is a little more complicated. In the first instance, the fragment must define a listener interface, which is then implemented within the activity class. For example, the following code declares an interface named *ToolbarListener* on a fragment class named *ToolbarFragment*. The code also declares a variable in which a reference to the activity will later be stored:

```
public class ToolbarFragment extends Fragment {

    ToolbarListener activityCallback;

    public interface ToolbarListener {
        public void onClick(int position, String text);
    }

    .
    .
}
```

The above code dictates that any class that implements the *ToolbarListener* interface must also implement a callback method named *onClick* which, in turn, accepts an integer and a String as arguments.

Next, the *onAttach()* method of the fragment class needs to be overridden and implemented. This method is called automatically by the Android system when the fragment has been initialized and associated with an activity. The method is passed a reference to the activity in which the fragment is contained. The method must store a local reference to this activity and verify that it implements the *ToolbarListener* interface:

```
@Override
public void onAttach(Context context) {
    super.onAttach(context);

    try {
        activityCallback = (ToolbarListener) activity;
    } catch (ClassCastException e) {
        throw new ClassCastException(activity.toString()
            + " must implement ToolbarListener");
    }
}
```

Upon execution of this example, a reference to the activity will be stored in the local *activityCallback* variable, and an exception will be thrown if that activity does not implement the *ToolbarListener* interface.

The next step is to call the callback method of the activity from within the fragment. When and how this happens is entirely dependent on the circumstances under which the activity needs to be contacted by the fragment. The following code, for example, calls the callback method on the activity when a button is clicked:

```
public void buttonClicked (View view) {
    activityCallback.onButtonClick(arg1, arg2);
}
```

All that remains is to modify the activity class so that it implements the *ToolbarListener* interface. For example:

```
public class MainActivity extends FragmentActivity
    implements ToolbarFragment.ToolbarListener {

    public void onButtonClick(String arg1, int arg2) {
        // Implement code for callback method
    }
    .
    .
}
```

As we can see from the above code, the activity declares that it implements the *ToolbarListener* interface of the *ToolbarFragment* class and then proceeds to implement the *onButtonClick()* method as required by the interface.

## 30.7 Summary

Fragments provide a powerful mechanism for creating re-usable modules of user interface layout and application behavior, which, once created, can be embedded in activities. A fragment consists of a user interface layout file and a class. Fragments may be utilized in an activity either by adding the fragment to the activity's layout file, or by writing code to manage the fragments at runtime. Fragments added to an activity in code can be removed and replaced dynamically at runtime. All communication between fragments should be performed via the activity within which the fragments are embedded.

Having covered the basics of fragments in this chapter, the next chapter will work through a tutorial designed to reinforce the techniques outlined in this chapter.



## 31. Using Fragments in Android Studio - An Example

As outlined in the previous chapter, fragments provide a convenient mechanism for creating reusable modules of application functionality consisting of both sections of a user interface and the corresponding behavior. Once created, fragments can be embedded within activities.

Having explored the overall theory of fragments in the previous chapter, the objective of this chapter is to create an example Android application using Android Studio designed to demonstrate the actual steps involved in both creating and using fragments, and also implementing communication between one fragment and another within an activity.

### 31.1 About the Example Fragment Application

The application created in this chapter will consist of a single activity and two fragments. The user interface for the first fragment will contain a toolbar of sorts consisting of an EditText view, a SeekBar and a Button, all contained within a ConstraintLayout view. The second fragment will consist solely of a TextView object, also contained within a ConstraintLayout view.

The two fragments will be embedded within the main activity of the application and communication implemented such that when the button in the first fragment is pressed, the text entered into the EditText view will appear on the TextView of the second fragment using a font size dictated by the position of the SeekBar in the first fragment.

Since this application is intended to work on earlier versions of Android, it will also be necessary to make use of the appropriate Android support library.

### 31.2 Creating the Example Project

Select the *New Project* option from the welcome screen and, within the resulting new project dialog, choose the Empty Activity template before clicking on the Next button.

Enter *FragmentExample* into the Name field and specify *com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample* as the package name. Before clicking on the Finish button, change the Minimum API level setting to API 26: Android 8.0 (Oreo) and the Language menu to Java. Using the steps outlined in section 11.8 *Migrating a Project to View Binding*, modify the project to use view binding.

Return to the *Gradle Scripts* -> *build.gradle (Module: FragmentExample.app)* file and add the following directive to the *dependencies* section (keeping in mind that a more recent version of the library may now be available):

```
implementation 'androidx.navigation:navigation-fragment:2.5.2'
```

### 31.3 Creating the First Fragment Layout

The next step is to create the user interface for the first fragment that will be used within our activity.

This user interface will consist of an XML layout file and a fragment class. While these could be added manually, it is quicker to ask Android Studio to create them for us. Within the project tool window, locate the *app* -> *java* -> *com* -> *ebookfrenzy* -> *fragmentexample* entry and right click on it. From the resulting menu, select the *New*

## Using Fragments in Android Studio - An Example

-> *Fragment* -> *Gallery...* option to display the dialog shown in Figure 31-1 below:

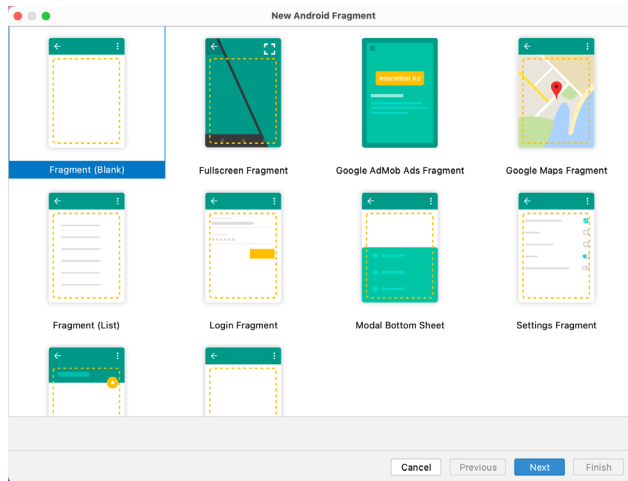


Figure 31-1

Select the *Fragment (Blank)* template before clicking the Next button. On the subsequent screen, name the fragment *ToolbarFragment* with a layout file named *fragment\_toolbar*:

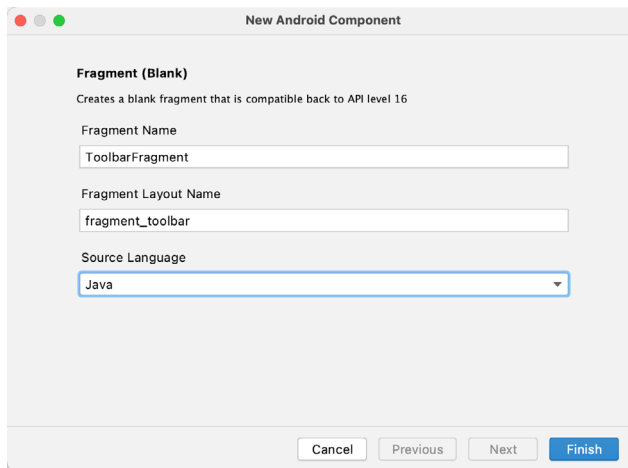


Figure 31-2

Load the *fragment\_toolbar.xml* file into the layout editor using Design mode, right-click on the *FrameLayout* entry in the Component Tree panel and select the *Convert FrameLayout to ConstraintLayout* menu option, accepting the default settings in the confirmation dialog. Change the id from *frameLayout* to *constraintLayout*. Select and delete the default *TextView* and add a Plain *EditText*, *SeekBar* and *Button* to the layout and change the view ids to *editText1*, *button1* and *seekBar1* respectively.

Change the text on the button to read “Change Text”, extract the text to a string resource named *change\_text* and remove the Name text from the *EditText* view. Finally, set the *layout\_width* property of the *SeekBar* to *match\_constraint* with margins set to 16dp on the left and right edges.

Use the *Infer constraints* toolbar button to add any missing constraints, at which point the layout should match that shown in Figure 31-3 below:



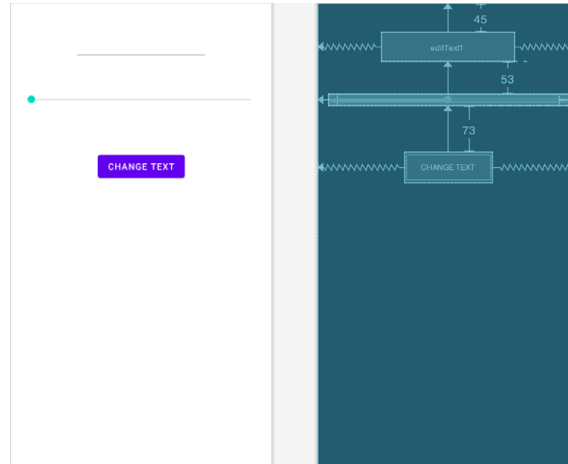


Figure 31-3

### 31.4 Migrating a Fragment to View Binding

As with the Empty Activity template, Android Studio does not enable view binding support when new fragments are added to a project. Before moving to the next step of this tutorial, therefore, we will need to perform this migration. Begin by editing the *ToolbarFragment.java* file and importing the binding for the fragment as follows:

```
import com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample.databinding.FragmentToolbarBinding;
```

Next, locate the *onCreateView()* method and make the following declarations and changes (which also include adding the *onDestroyView()* method to ensure that the binding reference is removed when the fragment is destroyed):

```
.
.
private FragmentToolbarBinding binding;

@Override
public View onCreateView(LayoutInflater inflater, ViewGroup container,
                        Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    // Inflate the layout for this fragment
    return inflater.inflate(R.layout.fragment_toolbar, container, false);
    binding = FragmentToolbarBinding.inflate(inflater, container, false);
    return binding.getRoot();
}

@Override
public void onDestroyView() {
    super.onDestroyView();
    binding = null;
}
```

Once these changes are complete, the fragment is ready to use view binding.

## 31.5 Adding the Second Fragment

Repeating the steps used to create the toolbar fragment, add another empty fragment named `TextFragment` with a layout file named `fragment_text`. Once again, convert the `FrameLayout` container to a `ConstraintLayout` (changing the id to `constraintLayout2`) and remove the default `TextView`.

Drag and drop a `TextView` widget from the palette and position it in the center of the layout, using the *Infer constraints* button to add any missing constraints. Change the id of the `TextView` to `textView2`, the text to read “Fragment Two” and modify the `textAppearance` attribute to `Large`.

On completion, the layout should match that shown in Figure 31-4:

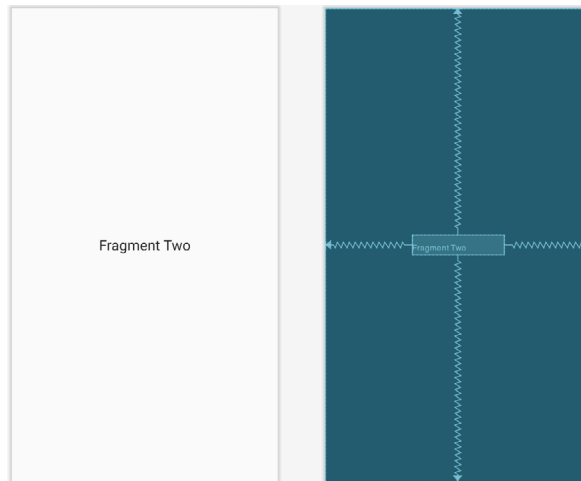


Figure 31-4

Repeat the steps performed in the previous section to migrate the `TextFragment` class to use view binding as follows:

```
.
.
import com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample.databinding.FragmentTextBinding;
.
.
private FragmentTextBinding binding;

@Override
public View onCreateView(LayoutInflater inflater, ViewGroup container,
                        Bundle savedInstanceState) {
    // Inflate the layout for this fragment
    return inflater.inflate(R.layout.fragment_text, container, false);
    binding = FragmentTextBinding.inflate(inflater, container, false);
    return binding.getRoot();
}

@Override
public void onDestroyView() {
```

```

super.onDestroyView();
binding = null;
}

```

## 31.6 Adding the Fragments to the Activity

The main activity for the application has associated with it an XML layout file named *activity\_main.xml*. For the purposes of this example, the fragments will be added to the activity using the `<fragment>` element within this file. Using the Project tool window, navigate to the *app* -> *res* -> *layout* section of the *FragmentExample* project and double-click on the *activity\_main.xml* file to load it into the Android Studio Layout Editor tool.

With the Layout Editor tool in Design mode, select and delete the default `TextView` object from the layout and select the *Common* category in the palette. Drag the *FragmentContainerView* component from the list of views and drop it onto the layout so that it is centered horizontally and positioned such that the dashed line appears indicating the top layout margin:

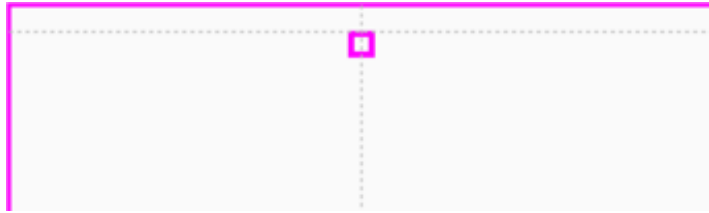


Figure 31-5

On dropping the fragment onto the layout, a dialog will appear displaying a list of Fragments available within the current project as illustrated in Figure 31-6:

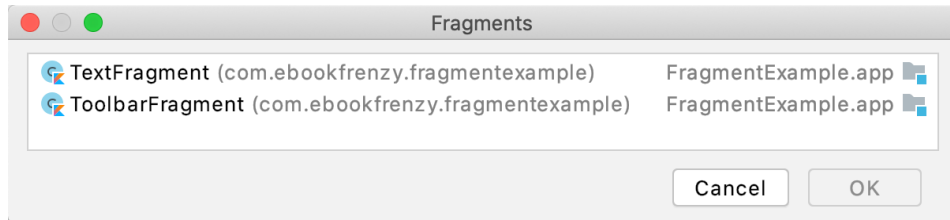


Figure 31-6

Select the *ToolbarFragment* entry from the list and click on the OK button to dismiss the Fragments dialog. Once added, click on the red warning button in the top right-hand corner of the layout editor to display the warnings panel. An *unknown fragments* message will be listed indicating that the Layout Editor tool needs to know which fragment to display during the preview session. Click on the *Pick Layout...* link in the error message as indicated in Figure 31-7:

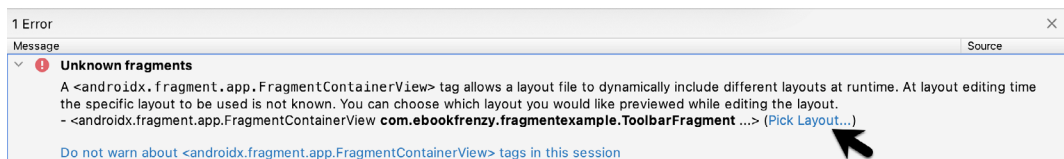


Figure 31-7

In the resulting dialog (Figure 31-8) select the *fragment\_toolbar* entry and before clicking the OK button:

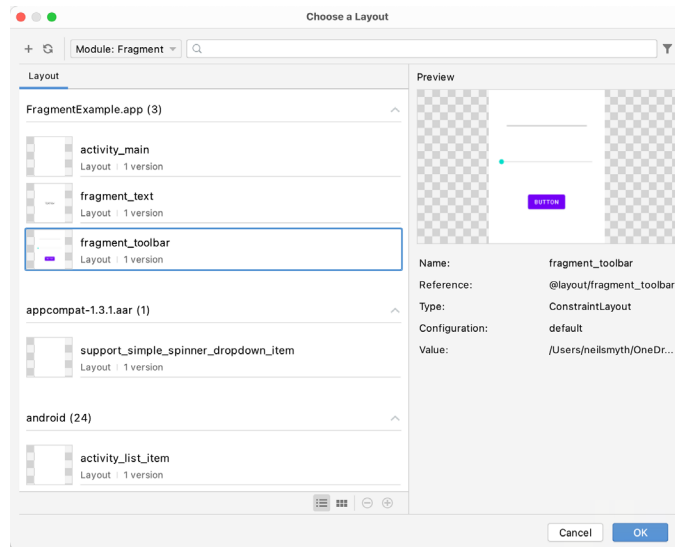


Figure 31-8

With the fragment selected, change the *layout\_width* property to *match\_constraint* so that it occupies the full width of the screen. Click and drag another *FragmentContainerView* entry from the palette and position it so that it is centered horizontally and located beneath the bottom edge of the first fragment. When prompted, select the *TextFragment* entry from the fragment dialog before clicking on the OK button. Display the error panel once again and click on the *Use @layout/fragment\_text* option. Use the *Infer constraints* button to establish any missing layout constraints.

Note that the fragments are now visible in the layout as demonstrated in Figure 31-9:

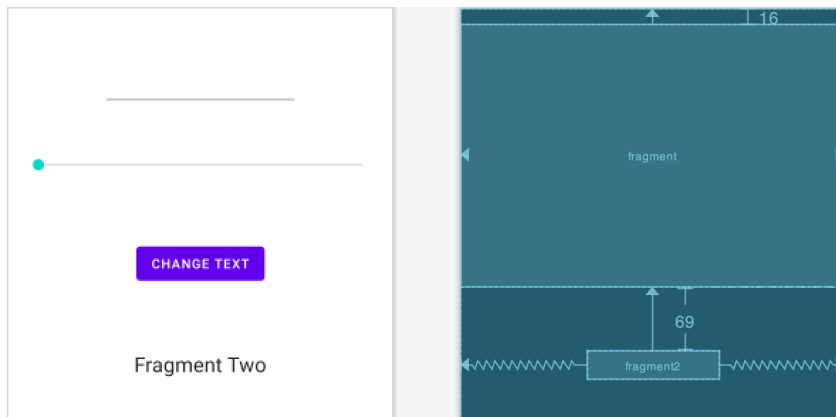


Figure 31-9

Before proceeding to the next step, select the *TextFragment* instance in the layout and, within the Attributes tool window, change the ID of the fragment to *text\_fragment*.

### 31.7 Making the Toolbar Fragment Talk to the Activity

When the user touches the button in the toolbar fragment, the fragment class is going to need to get the text from the *EditText* view and the current value of the *SeekBar* and send them to the text fragment. As outlined in “*An Introduction to Android Fragments*”, fragments should not communicate with each other directly, instead

using the activity in which they are embedded as an intermediary.

The first step in this process is to make sure that the toolbar fragment responds to the button being clicked. We also need to implement some code to keep track of the value of the SeekBar view. For the purposes of this example, we will implement these listeners within the *ToolbarFragment* class. Select the *ToolbarFragment.java* file and modify it so that it reads as shown in the following listing:

```
package com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample;

.
.
import androidx.annotation.NonNull;
import androidx.annotation.Nullable;
import android.content.Context;
import android.widget.SeekBar;

public class ToolbarFragment extends Fragment implements
    SeekBar.OnSeekBarChangeListener {

    private static int seekvalue = 10;

    .
    .
    @Override
    public void onCreateView(@NonNull View view,
        @Nullable Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreateView(view, savedInstanceState);

        binding.seekBar1.setOnSeekBarChangeListener(this);
        binding.button1.setOnClickListener(new View.OnClickListener() {
            public void onClick(View v) {
                buttonClicked(v);
            }
        });
    }

    public void buttonClicked (View view) {

    }

    @Override
    public void onProgressChanged(SeekBar seekBar, int progress,
        boolean fromUser) {
        seekvalue = progress;
    }

    @Override
    public void onStartTrackingTouch(SeekBar arg0) {
```

```

    }

    @Override
    public void onStopTrackingTouch(SeekBar arg0) {

    }
}

```

Before moving on, we need to take some time to explain the above code changes. First, the class is declared as implementing the `OnSeekBarChangeListener` interface. This is because the user interface contains a `SeekBar` instance and the fragment needs to receive notifications when the user slides the bar to change the font size. Implementation of the `OnSeekBarChangeListener` interface requires that the *`onProgressChanged()`*, *`onStartTrackingTouch()`* and *`onStopTrackingTouch()`* methods be implemented. These methods have been implemented but only the *`onProgressChanged()`* method is actually required to perform a task, in this case storing the new value in a variable named `seekvalue` which has been declared at the start of the class. Also declared is a variable in which to store a reference to the `EditText` object.

The *`onViewCreated()`* method has been added to set up an `onClick` listener on the button which is configured to call a method named *`buttonClicked()`* when a click event is detected. This method is also then implemented, though at this point it does not do anything.

The next phase of this process is to set up the listener that will allow the fragment to call the activity when the button is clicked. This follows the mechanism outlined in the previous chapter:

```

public class ToolbarFragment extends Fragment
    implements SeekBar.OnSeekBarChangeListener {

    private static int seekvalue = 10;
    private FragmentToolbarBinding binding;
    ToolbarListener activityCallback;

    public interface ToolbarListener {
        public void onClick(int position, String text);
    }

    @Override
    public void onAttach(Context context) {
        super.onAttach(context);
        try {
            activityCallback = (ToolbarListener) context;
        } catch (ClassCastException e) {
            throw new ClassCastException(context.toString()
                + " must implement ToolbarListener");
        }
    }

    .
    .

    public void buttonClicked (View view) {
        activityCallback.onClick(seekvalue,

```

```

        binding.editText1.getText().toString());
    }

    .
    .
    .
}

```

The above implementation will result in a method named *onButtonClick()* belonging to the activity class being called when the button is clicked by the user. All that remains, therefore, is to declare that the activity class implements the newly created *ToolbarListener* interface and to implement the *onButtonClick()* method.

Since the Android Support Library is being used for fragment support in earlier Android versions, the activity also needs to be changed to subclass from *FragmentActivity* instead of *AppCompatActivity*. Bringing these requirements together results in the following modified *MainActivity.java* file:

```

package com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample;

import androidx.appcompat.app.AppCompatActivity;
import androidx.fragment.app.FragmentActivity;
import android.os.Bundle;

public class MainActivity extends FragmentActivity implements ToolbarFragment.
ToolbarListener {
    .
    .

    public void onButtonClick(int fontsize, String text) {

    }
}

```

With the code changes as they currently stand, the toolbar fragment will detect when the button is clicked by the user and call a method on the activity passing through the content of the *EditText* field and the current setting of the *SeekBar* view. It is now the job of the activity to communicate with the *Text Fragment* and to pass along these values so that the fragment can update the *TextView* object accordingly.

## 31.8 Making the Activity Talk to the Text Fragment

As outlined in “*An Introduction to Android Fragments*”, an activity can communicate with a fragment by obtaining a reference to the fragment class instance and then calling public methods on the object. As such, within the *TextFragment* class we will now implement a public method named *changeTextProperties()* which takes as arguments an integer for the font size and a string for the new text to be displayed. The method will then use these values to modify the *TextView* object. Within the Android Studio editing panel, locate and modify the *TextFragment.java* file to add this new method:

```

package com.ebookfrenzy.fragmentexample;

.
.

public class TextFragment extends Fragment {
    .
    .
}

```

```
public void changeTextProperties(int fontsize, String text)
{
    binding.textView2.setTextSize(fontsize);
    binding.textView2.setText(text);
}
}
```

When the TextFragment fragment was placed in the layout of the activity, it was given an ID of *text\_fragment*. Using this ID, it is now possible for the activity to obtain a reference to the fragment instance and call the *changeTextProperties()* method on the object. Edit the *MainActivity.java* file and modify the *onButtonClick()* method as follows:

```
public void onButtonClick(int fontsize, String text) {

    TextFragment textFragment =
        (TextFragment)
            getSupportFragmentManager().findFragmentById(R.id.text_fragment);

    textFragment.changeTextProperties(fontsize, text);
}
```

## 31.9 Testing the Application

With the coding for this project now complete, the last remaining task is to run the application. When the application is launched, the main activity will start and will, in turn, create and display the two fragments. When the user touches the button in the toolbar fragment, the *onButtonClick()* method of the activity will be called by the toolbar fragment and passed the text from the EditText view and the current value of the SeekBar. The activity will then call the *changeTextProperties()* method of the second fragment, which will modify the TextView to reflect the new text and font size:

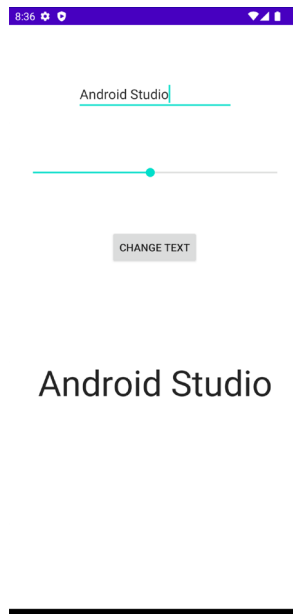


Figure 31-10



## 31.10 Summary

The goal of this chapter was to work through the creation of an example project intended specifically to demonstrate the steps involved in using fragments within an Android application. Topics covered included the use of the Android Support Library for compatibility with Android versions predating the introduction of fragments, the inclusion of fragments within an activity layout and the implementation of inter-fragment communication.



## 38. Working with Android Lifecycle-Aware Components

The earlier chapter entitled “*Understanding Android Application and Activity Lifecycles*” described the use of lifecycle methods to track lifecycle state changes within a UI controller such as an activity or fragment. One of the main problems with these methods is that they place the burden of handling lifecycle changes onto the UI controller. On the surface this might seem like the logical approach since the UI controller is, after all, the object going through the state change. The fact is, however, that the code that is typically impacted by the state change invariably resides in other classes within the app. This led to complex code appearing in the UI controller that needed to manage and manipulate other objects in response to changes in lifecycle state. Clearly this is a scenario best avoided when following the Android architectural guidelines.

A much cleaner and logical approach would be for the objects within an app to be able to observe the lifecycle state of other objects and to be responsible for taking any necessary actions in response to the changes. The class responsible for tracking a user’s location, for example, could observe the lifecycle state of a UI controller and suspend location updates when the controller enters a paused state. Tracking would then be restarted when the controller enters the resumed state. This is made possible by the classes and interfaces provided by the Lifecycle package bundled with the Android architecture components.

This chapter will introduce the terminology and key components that enable lifecycle awareness to be built into Android apps.

### 38.1 Lifecycle Awareness

An object is said to be *lifecycle-aware* if it is able to detect and respond to changes in the lifecycle state of other objects within an app. Some Android components, LiveData being a prime example, are already lifecycle-aware. It is also possible to configure any class to be lifecycle-aware by implementing the LifecycleObserver interface within the class.

### 38.2 Lifecycle Owners

Lifecycle-aware components can only observe the status of objects that are *lifecycle owners*. Lifecycle owners implement the LifecycleOwner interface and are assigned a companion *Lifecycle object* which is responsible for storing the current state of the component and providing state information to *lifecycle observers*. Most standard Android Framework components (such as activity and fragment classes) are lifecycle owners. Custom classes may also be configured as lifecycle owners by using the LifecycleRegistry class and implementing the LifecycleObserver interface. For example:

```
public class SampleOwner implements LifecycleOwner {

    private LifecycleRegistry lifecycleRegistry;

    @Override
    protected void onCreate(Bundle savedInstanceState) {
        super.onCreate(savedInstanceState);
    }
}
```

```
        lifecycleRegistry = new LifecycleRegistry(this);
    }

    @NonNull
    @Override
    public Lifecycle getLifecycle() {
        return lifecycleRegistry;
    }
}
```

Unless the lifecycle owner is a subclass of another lifecycle-aware component, the class will need to trigger lifecycle state changes itself via calls to methods of the `LifecycleRegistry` class. The `markState()` method can be used to trigger a lifecycle state change passing through the new state value:

```
public void resuming() {
    lifecycleRegistry.markState(Lifecycle.State.RESUMED);
}
```

The above call will also result in a call to the corresponding event handler. Alternatively, the `LifecycleRegistry` `handleLifecycleEvent()` method may be called and passed the lifecycle event to be triggered (which will also result in the lifecycle state changing). For example:

```
lifecycleRegistry.handleLifecycleEvent(Lifecycle.Event.ON_START);
```

### 38.3 Lifecycle Observers

In order for a lifecycle-aware component to observe the state of a lifecycle owner it must implement the `DefaultLifecycleObserver` interface and override methods for any lifecycle change events it needs to observe.

```
public class SampleObserver implements DefaultLifecycleObserver {
    // Lifecycle event methods overrides go here
}
```

An instance of this observer class is then created and added to the list of observers maintained by the `Lifecycle` object.

```
getLifecycle().addObserver(new SampleObserver());
```

An observer may also be removed from the `Lifecycle` object at any time if it no longer needs to track the lifecycle state.

Figure 38-1 illustrates the relationship between the key elements that provide lifecycle awareness:

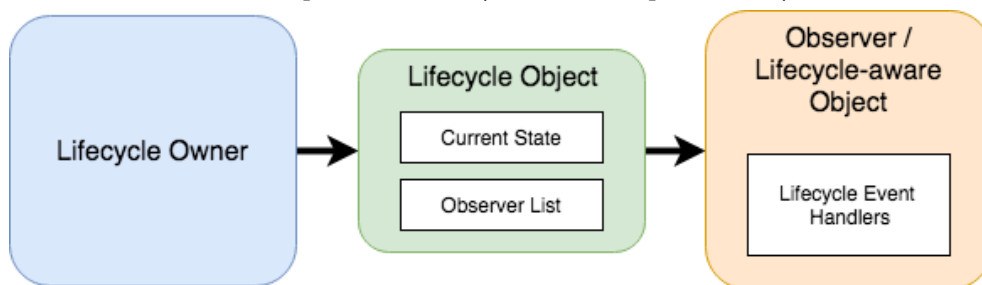


Figure 38-1

## 38.4 Lifecycle States and Events

When the status of a lifecycle owner changes, the assigned Lifecycle object will be updated with the new state. At any given time, a lifecycle owner will be in one of the following five states:

- Lifecycle.State.INITIALIZED
- Lifecycle.State.CREATED
- Lifecycle.State.STARTED
- Lifecycle.State.RESUMED
- Lifecycle.State.DESTROYED

As the component transitions through the different states, the Lifecycle object will trigger events on any observers that have been added to the list. The following event methods are available to be overridden within the lifecycle observer:

- onCreate()
- onResume()
- onPause()
- onStop()
- onStart()
- onDestroy()

The following code, for example, overrides the DefaultLifecycleObserver *onResume()* method:

```
@Override
public void onResume(@NonNull LifecycleOwner owner) {
    // Perform tasks in response to Resume status event
}
```

The flowchart in Figure 38-2 illustrates the sequence of state changes for a lifecycle owner and the lifecycle events that will be triggered on observers between each state transition:

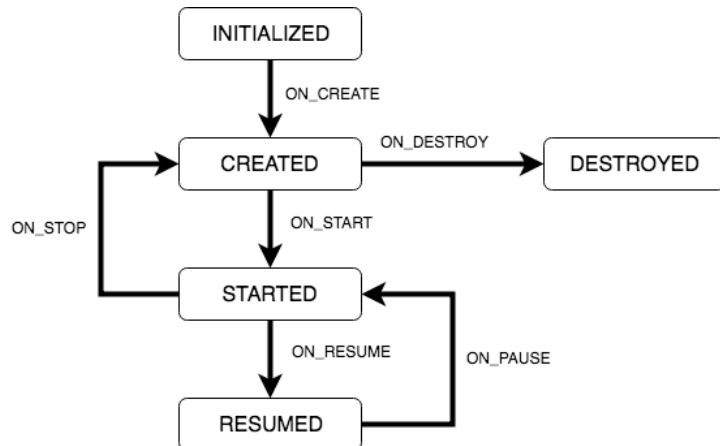


Figure 38-2

## 38.5 Summary

This chapter has introduced the basics of lifecycle awareness and the classes and interfaces of the Android Lifecycle package included with Android Jetpack. The package contains a number of classes and interfaces that are used to create lifecycle owners, lifecycle observers and lifecycle-aware components. A lifecycle owner has assigned to it a Lifecycle object that maintains a record of the owners state and a list of subscribed observers. When the owner's state changes, the observer is notified via lifecycle event methods so that it can respond to the change.

The next chapter will create an Android Studio project that demonstrates how to work with and create lifecycle-aware components including the creation of both lifecycle observers and owners, and the handling of lifecycle state changes and events.

## 42. An Introduction to MotionLayout

The MotionLayout class provides an easy way to add animation effects to the views of a user interface layout. This chapter will begin by providing an overview of MotionLayout and introduce the concepts of MotionScenes, Transitions and Keyframes. Once these basics have been covered, the next two chapters (entitled “*An Android MotionLayout Editor Tutorial*” and “*A MotionLayout KeyCycle Tutorial*”) will provide additional detail and examples of MotionLayout animation in action through the creation of example projects.

### 42.1 An Overview of MotionLayout

MotionLayout is a layout container, the primary purpose of which is to animate the transition of views within a layout from one state to another. MotionLayout could, for example, animate the motion of an ImageView instance from the top left-hand corner of the screen to the bottom right-hand corner over a specified period of time. In addition to the position of a view, other attribute changes may also be animated, such as the color, size or rotation angle. These state changes can also be interpolated (such that a view moves, rotates and changes size throughout the animation).

The motion of a view using MotionLayout may be performed in a straight line between two points, or implemented to follow a path comprising intermediate points located at different positions between the start and end points. MotionLayout also supports the use of touches and swipes to initiate and control animation.

MotionLayout animations are declared entirely in XML and do not typically require that any code be written. These XML declarations may be implemented manually in the Android Studio code editor, visually using the MotionLayout editor, or using a combination of both approaches.

### 42.2 MotionLayout

When implementing animation, the ConstraintLayout container typically used in a user interface must first be converted to a MotionLayout instance (a task which can be achieved by right-clicking on the ConstraintLayout in the layout editor and selecting the *Convert to MotionLayout* menu option). MotionLayout also requires at least version 2.0.0 of the ConstraintLayout library.

Unsurprisingly since it is a subclass of ConstraintLayout, MotionLayout supports all of the layout features of the ConstraintLayout. A user interface layout can, therefore, be designed in exactly the same way when using MotionLayout for any views that do not require animation.

For views that are to be animated, two ConstraintSets are declared defining the appearance and location of the view at the start and end of the animation. A *transition* declaration defines *key frames* to apply additional effects to the target view between these start and end states, together with click and swipe handlers used to start and control the animation.

Both the start and end ConstraintSets and the transitions are declared within a MotionScene XML file.

### 42.3 MotionScene

As we have seen in earlier chapters, an XML layout file contains the information necessary to configure the appearance and layout behavior of the static views presented to the user, and this is still the case when using MotionLayout. For non-static views (in other words the views that will be animated) those views are still declared within the layout file, but the start, end and transition declarations related to those views are stored in a separate XML file referred to as the MotionScene file (so called because all of the declarations are defined

within a `MotionScene` element). This file is imported into the layout XML file and contains the start and end `ConstraintSets` and `Transition` declarations (a single file can contain multiple `ConstraintSet` pairs and `Transition` declarations allowing different animations to be targeted to specific views within the user interface layout).

The following listing shows a template for a `MotionScene` file:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<MotionScene
    xmlns:android="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:motion="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto">

    <Transition
        motion:constraintSetEnd="@+id/end"
        motion:constraintSetStart="@id/start"
        motion:duration="1000">
        <KeyFrameSet>
        </KeyFrameSet>
    </Transition>

    <ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/start">
    </ConstraintSet>

    <ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/end">
    </ConstraintSet>
</MotionScene>
```

In the above XML, `ConstraintSets` named *start* and *end* (though any name can be used) have been declared which, at this point, are yet to contain any constraint elements. The `Transition` element defines that these `ConstraintSets` represent the animation start and end points and contains an empty `KeyFrameSet` element ready to be populated with additional animation key frame entries. The `Transition` element also includes a millisecond duration property to control the running time of the animation.

`ConstraintSets` do not have to imply motion of a view. It is possible, for example, to have the start and end sets declare the same location on the screen, and then use the transition to animate other property changes such as scale and rotation angle.

## 42.4 Configuring ConstraintSets

The `ConstraintSets` in the `MotionScene` file allow the full set of `ConstraintLayout` settings to be applied to a view in terms of positioning, sizing and relation to the parent and other views. In addition, the following attributes may also be included within the `ConstraintSet` declarations:

- `alpha`
- `visibility`
- `elevation`
- `rotation`
- `rotationX`
- `rotationY`



- translationX
- translationY
- translationZ
- scaleX
- scaleY

For example, to rotate the view by 180° during the animation the following could be declared within the start and end constraints:

```
<ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/start">
    <Constraint
    .
    .
        motion:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent"
        android:rotation="0">
    </Constraint>
</ConstraintSet>

<ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/end">
    <Constraint
    .
    .
        motion:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
        android:rotation="180">
    </Constraint>
</ConstraintSet>
```

The above changes tell MotionLayout that the view is to start at 0° and then, during the animation, rotate a full 180° before coming to rest upside-down.

## 42.5 Custom Attributes

In addition to the standard attributes listed above, it is also possible to specify a range of *custom attributes* (declared using CustomAttribute). In fact, just about any property available on the view type can be specified as a custom attribute for inclusion in an animation. To identify the name of the attribute, find the getter/setter name from the documentation for the target view class, remove the get/set prefix and lower the case of the first remaining character. For example, to change the background color of a Button view in code, we might call the *setBackgroundColor()* setter method as follows:

```
myButton.setBackgroundColor(Color.RED)
```

When setting this attribute in a constraint set or key frame, the attribute name will be *backgroundColor*. In addition to the attribute name, the value must also be declared using the appropriate type from the following list of options:

- **motion:customBoolean** - Boolean attribute values.
- **motion:customColorValue** - Color attribute values.
- **motion:customDimension** - Dimension attribute values.

- **motion:customFloatValue** - Floating point attribute values.
- **motion:customIntegerValue** - Integer attribute values.
- **motion:customStringValue** - String attribute values

For example, a color setting will need to be assigned using the *customColorValue* type:

```
<CustomAttribute
    motion:attributeName="backgroundColor"
    motion:customColorValue="#43CC76" />
```

The following excerpt from a MotionScene file, for example, declares start and end constraints for a view in addition to changing the background color from green to red:

```
.
.
    <ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/start">
        <Constraint
            android:layout_width="wrap_content"
            android:layout_height="wrap_content"
            motion:layout_editor_absoluteX="21dp"
            android:id="@+id/button"
            motion:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent"
            motion:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent" >
            <CustomAttribute
                motion:attributeName="backgroundColor"
                motion:customColorValue="#33CC33" />
        </Constraint>
    </ConstraintSet>

    <ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/end">
        <Constraint
            android:layout_width="wrap_content"
            android:layout_height="wrap_content"
            motion:layout_editor_absoluteY="21dp"
            android:id="@+id/button"
            motion:layout_constraintEnd_toEndOf="parent"
            motion:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent" >
            <CustomAttribute
                motion:attributeName="backgroundColor"
                motion:customColorValue="#F80A1F" />
        </Constraint>
    </ConstraintSet>
.
.
```

## 42.6 Triggering an Animation

Without some form of event to tell MotionLayout to start the animation, none of the settings in the MotionScene file will have any effect on the layout (with the exception that the view will be positioned based on the setting in

the *start* ConstraintSet).

The animation can be configured to start in response to either screen tap (OnClick) or swipe motion (OnSwipe) gesture. The OnClick handler causes the animation to start and run until completion while OnSwipe will synchronize the animation to move back and forth along the timeline to match the touch motion. The OnSwipe handler will also respond to “flinging” motions on the screen. The OnSwipe handler also provides options to configure how the animation reacts to dragging in different directions and the side of the target view to which the swipe is to be anchored. This allows, for example, left-ward dragging motions to move a view in the corresponding direction while preventing an upward motion from causing a view to move sideways (unless, of course, that is the required behavior).

The OnSwipe and OnClick declarations are contained within the Transition element of a MotionScene file. In both cases the view id must be specified. For example, to implement an OnSwipe handler responding to downward drag motions anchored to the bottom edge of a view named *button*, the following XML would be placed in the Transition element:

```
.
.
<Transition
    motion:constraintSetEnd="@+id/end"
    motion:constraintSetStart="@id/start"
    motion:duration="1000">
    <KeyFrameSet>
    </KeyFrameSet>
    <OnSwipe
        motion:touchAnchorId="@+id/button"
        motion:dragDirection="dragDown"
        motion:touchAnchorSide="bottom" />
    </Transition>
.
.
```

Alternatively, to add an OnClick handler to the same button:

```
<OnClick motion:targetId="@id/button"
    motion:clickAction="toggle" />
```

In the above example the action has been set to *toggle* mode. This mode, and the other available options can be summarized as follows:

- **toggle** - Animates to the opposite state. For example, if the view is currently at the transition start point it will transition to the end point, and vice versa.
- **jumpToStart** - Changes immediately to the start state without animation.
- **jumpToEnd** - Changes immediately to the end state without animation.
- **transitionToStart** - Transitions with animation to the start state.
- **transitionToEnd** - Transitions with animation to the end state.

## 42.7 Arc Motion

By default, a movement of view position will travel in a straight-line between the start and end points. To change the motion to an arc path, simply use the *pathMotionArc* attribute as follows within the start constraint, configured with either a *startHorizontal* or *startVertical* setting to define whether arc is to be concave or convex:

```
<ConstraintSet android:id="@+id/start">
    <Constraint
        android:layout_width="wrap_content"
        android:layout_height="wrap_content"
        motion:layout_editor_absoluteX="21dp"
        android:id="@+id/button"
        motion:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent"
        motion:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent"
        motion:pathMotionArc="startVertical" >
```

Figure 42-1 illustrates *startVertical* and *startHorizontal* arcs in comparison to the default straight line motion:

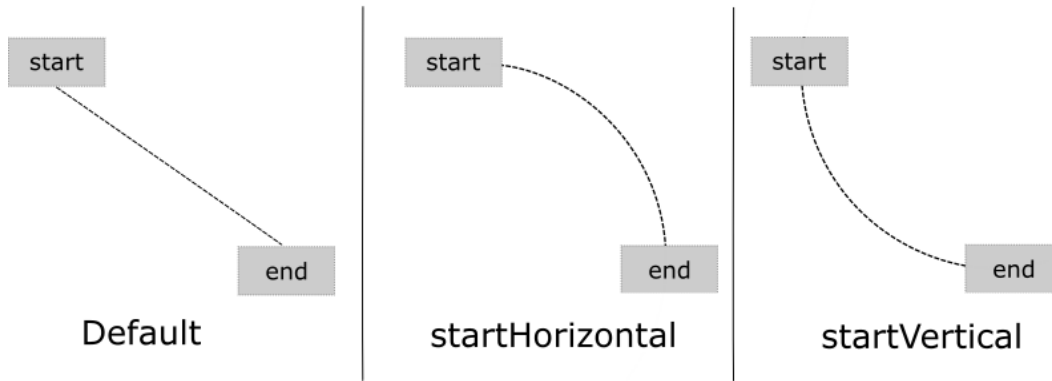


Figure 42-1

## 42.8 Keyframes

All of the *ConstraintSet* attributes outlined so far only apply to the start and end points of the animation. In other words if the rotation property were set to 180° on the end point, the rotation will begin when animation starts and complete when the end point is reached. It is not, therefore, possible to configure the rotation to reach the full 180° at a point 50% of the way through the animation and then rotate back to the original orientation by the end of the animation. Fortunately, this type of effect is available using *Keyframes*.

*Keyframes* are used to define intermediate points during the animation at which state changes are to occur. *Keyframes* could, for example, be declared such that the background color of a view is to have transitioned to blue at a point 50% of the way through the animation, green at the 75% point and then back to the original color by the end of the animation. *Keyframes* are implemented within the *Transition* element of the *MotionScene* file embedded into the *KeyFrameSet* element.

*MotionLayout* supports several types of *Keyframe* which can be summarized as follows:

### 42.8.1 Attribute Keyframes

*Attribute Keyframes* (declared using *KeyAttribute*) allow view attributes to be changed at intermediate points in the animation timeline. *KeyAttribute* supports the same set of attributes listed above for *ConstraintSets* combined with the ability to specify where in the animation timeline the change is to take effect. For example,

the following Keyframe declaration will cause the button view to double in size gradually both horizontally (scaleX) and vertically (scaleY), reaching full size at a point 50% through the timeline. For the remainder of the timeline, the view will decrease in size to its original dimensions:

```
<Transition
    motion:constraintSetEnd="@+id/end"
    motion:constraintSetStart="@+id/start"
    motion:duration="1000">
    <KeyFrameSet>
        <KeyAttribute
            motion:motionTarget="@+id/button"
            motion:framePosition="50"
            android:scaleX="2.0" />
        <KeyAttribute
            motion:motionTarget="@+id/button"
            motion:framePosition="50"
            android:scaleY="2.0" />
    </KeyFrameSet>
```

#### 42.8.2 Position Keyframes

Position keyframes (KeyPosition) are used to modify the path followed by a view as it moves between the start and end locations. By placing key positions at different points on the timeline, a path of just about any level of complexity can be applied to an animation. Positions are declared using x and y coordinates combined with the corresponding points in the transition timeline. These coordinates must be declared in relation to one of the following coordinate systems:

- **parentRelative** - The x and y coordinates are relative to the parent container where the coordinates are specified as a percentage (represented as a value between 0.0 and 1.0):

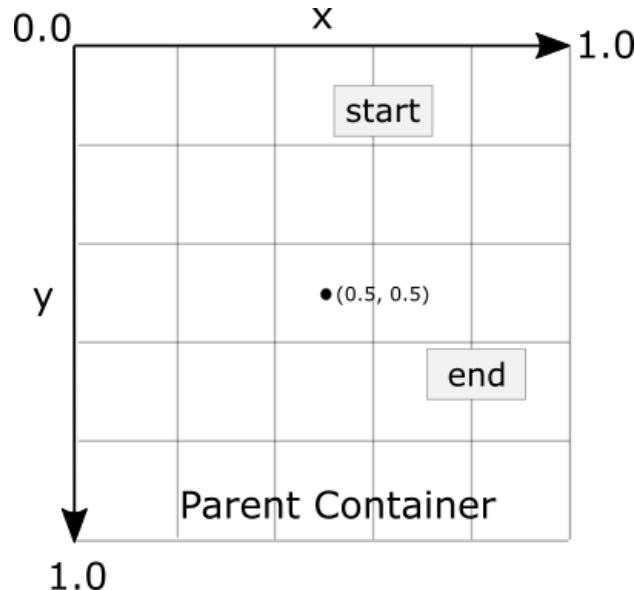


Figure 42-2

- **deltaRelative** - Instead of being relative to the parent, the x and y coordinates are relative to the start and end

positions. For example, the start point is (0, 0) the end point (1, 1). Keep in mind that the x and y coordinates can be negative values):

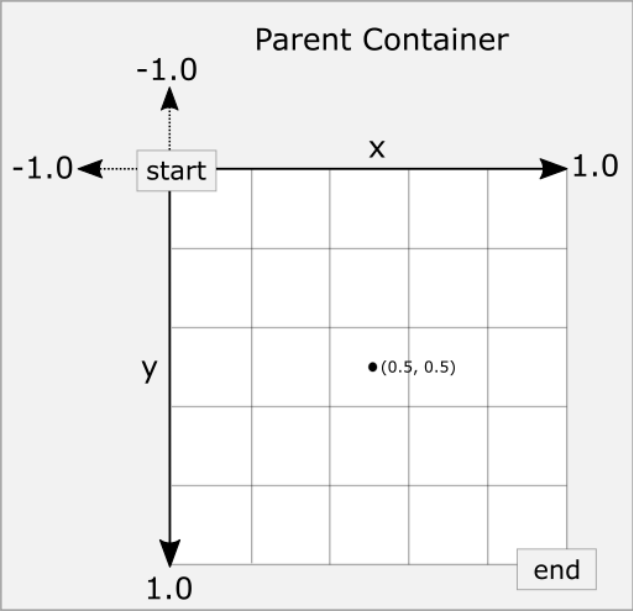


Figure 42-3

- **pathRelative** - The x and y coordinates are relative to the path, where the straight line between start and end points serves as the X-axis of the graph. Once again, coordinates are represented as a percentage (0.0 to 1.0). This is similar to the deltaRelative coordinate space but takes into consideration the angle of the path. Once again coordinates may be negative:

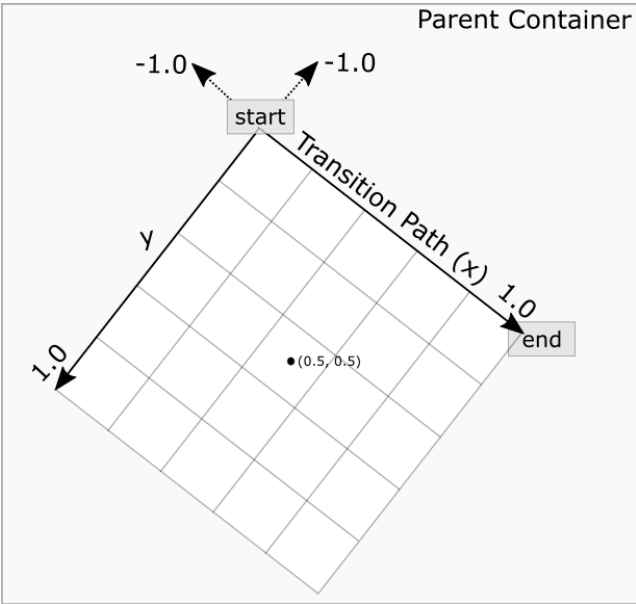


Figure 42-4

As an example, the following ConstraintSets declare start and end points on either side of a device screen. By

default, a view transition using these points would move in a straight line across the screen as illustrated in Figure 42-5:



Figure 42-5

Suppose, however, that the view is required to follow a path similar to that shown in Figure 42-6 below:

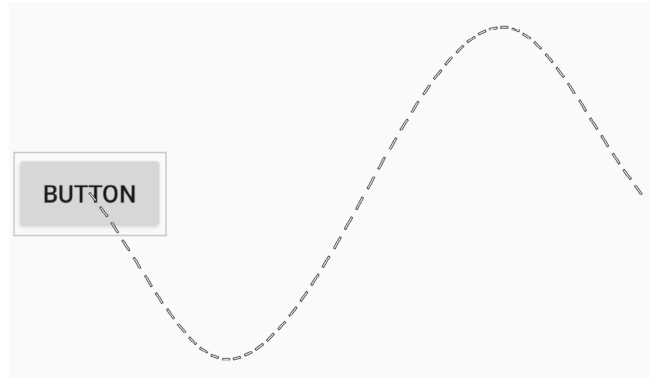


Figure 42-6

To achieve this, key frame position points could be declared within the transition as follows:

```
<KeyPosition
    motion:motionTarget="@+id/button"
    motion:framePosition="25"
    motion:keyPositionType="pathRelative"
    motion:percentY="0.3"
    motion:percentX="0.25"/>
```

```
<KeyPosition
    motion:motionTarget="@+id/button"
    motion:framePosition="75"
    motion:keyPositionType="pathRelative"
    motion:percentY="-0.3"
    motion:percentX="0.75"/>
```

The above elements create key frame position points 25% and 75% through the path using the pathRelative coordinate system. The first position is placed at coordinates (0.25, 0.3) and the second at (0.75, -0.3). These position key frames can be visualized as illustrated in Figure 42-7 below:

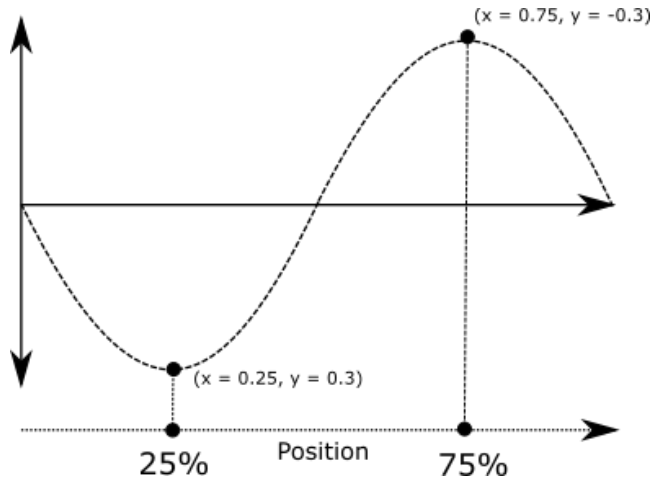


Figure 42-7

## 42.9 Time Linearity

In the absence of any additional settings, the animations outlined above will be performed at a constant speed. To vary the speed of an animation (for example so that it accelerates and then decelerates) the transition easing attribute (`transitionEasing`) can be used either within a `ConstraintSet` or `Keyframe`.

For complex easing requirements, the linearity can be defined by plotting points on a cubic Bézier curve, for example:

```
.
.
    motion:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
    motion:transitionEasing="cubic(0.2, 0.7, 0.3, 1)"
    android:rotation="360">
.
.
```

If you are unfamiliar with Bézier curves, consider using the curve generator online at the following URL:

<https://cubic-bezier.com/>

For most requirements, however, easing can be specified using the built-in *standard*, *accelerate* and *decelerate* values:

```
.
.
    motion:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
    motion:transitionEasing="decelerate"
    android:rotation="360">
.
.
```

## 42.10 KeyTrigger

The trigger keyframe (`KeyTrigger`) allows a method on a view to be called when the animation reaches a specified frame position within the animation timeline. This also takes into consideration the direction of the



animations. For example, different methods can be called depending on whether the animation is running forward or backward. Consider a button that is to be made visible when the animation moves beyond 20% of the timeline. The `KeyTrigger` would be implemented within the `KeyFrameSet` of the `Transition` element as follows using the `onPositiveCross` property:

```
.
.
    <KeyFrameSet>
        <KeyTrigger
            motion:framePosition="20"
            motion:onPositiveCross="show"
            motion:motionTarget="@id/button"/>
.
.
```

Similarly, if the same button is to be hidden when the animation is reversed and drops below the 10%, a second key trigger could be added using the `onNegativeCross` property:

```
<KeyTrigger
    motion:framePosition="20"
    motion:onNegativeCross="show"
    motion:motionTarget="@id/button2"/>
```

If the animation is using toggle action, simply use the `onCross` property:

```
<KeyTrigger
    motion:framePosition="20"
    motion:onCross="show"
    motion:motionTarget="@id/button2"/>
```

## 42.11 Cycle and Time Cycle Keyframes

While position keyframes can be used to add intermediate state changes into the animation this would quickly become cumbersome if large numbers of repetitive positions and changes needed to be implemented. For situations where state changes need to be performed repetitively with predictable changes, `MotionLayout` includes the `Cycle` and `Time Cycle` keyframes, a topic which will be covered in detail in the chapter entitled “*A MotionLayout KeyCycle Tutorial*”.

## 42.12 Starting an Animation from Code

So far in this chapter we have only looked at controlling an animation using the `OnSwipe` and `OnClick` handlers. It is also possible to start an animation from within code by calling methods on the `MotionLayout` instance. The following code, for example, runs the transition from start to end with a duration of 2000ms for a layout named *motionLayout*:

```
motionLayout.setTransitionDuration(2000);
motionLayout.transitionToEnd();
```

In the absence of addition settings, the start and end states used for the animation will be those declared in the `Transition` declaration of the `MotionScene` file. To use specific start and end constraint sets, simply reference them by id in a call to the `setTransition()` method of the `MotionLayout` instance:

```
motionLayout.setTransitionDuration(2000);
motionLayout.transitionToEnd();
```

To monitor the state of an animation while it is running, add a transition listener to the `MotionLayout` instance

## An Introduction to MotionLayout

as follows:

```
motionLayout.setTransitionListener(transitionListener);
```

```
MotionLayout.TransitionListener transitionListener =
    new MotionLayout.TransitionListener() {
        @Override
        public void onTransitionStarted(MotionLayout motionLayout,
                                         int startId, int endId) {
            // Called when the transition starts
        }

        @Override
        public void onTransitionChange(MotionLayout motionLayout, int startId,
                                       int endId, float progress) {
            // Called each time a preproperty changes. Track progress value to find
            // current position
        }

        @Override
        public void onTransitionCompleted(MotionLayout motionLayout, int currentId) {
            // Called when the transition is complete
        }

        @Override
        public void onTransitionTrigger(MotionLayout motionLayout, int triggerId,
                                       boolean positive, float progress) {
            // Called when a trigger keyframe threshold is crossed
        }
    };
```

### 42.13 Summary

MotionLayout is a subclass of ConstraintLayout designed specifically to add animation effects to the views in user interface layouts. MotionLayout works by animating the transition of a view between two states defined by start and end constraint sets. Additional animation effects may be added between these start and end points by making use of keyframes.

Animations may be triggered either via OnClick or OnSwipe handlers or programmatically via method calls on the MotionLayout instance.

## 47. Working with the RecyclerView and CardView Widgets

The RecyclerView and CardView widgets work together to provide scrollable lists of information to the user in which the information is presented in the form of individual cards. Details of both classes will be covered in this chapter before working through the design and implementation of an example project.

### 47.1 An Overview of the RecyclerView

Much like the ListView class outlined in the chapter entitled “*Working with the Floating Action Button and Snackbar*”, the purpose of the RecyclerView is to allow information to be presented to the user in the form of a scrollable list. The RecyclerView, however, provides a number of advantages over the ListView. In particular, the RecyclerView is significantly more efficient in the way it manages the views that make up a list, essentially reusing existing views that make up list items as they scroll off the screen instead of creating new ones (hence the name “recycler”). This both increases the performance and reduces the resources used by a list, a feature that is of particular benefit when presenting large amounts of data to the user.

Unlike the ListView, the RecyclerView also provides a choice of three built-in layout managers to control the way in which the list items are presented to the user:

- **LinearLayoutManager** – The list items are presented as either a horizontal or vertical scrolling list.



Figure 47-1

- **GridLayoutManager** – The list items are presented in grid format. This manager is best used when the list items are of uniform size.



Figure 47-2

- **StaggeredGridLayoutManager** - The list items are presented in a staggered grid format. This manager is best

used when the list items are not of uniform size.



Figure 47-3

For situations where none of the three built-in managers provide the necessary layout, custom layout managers may be implemented by subclassing the `RecyclerView.LayoutManager` class.

Each list item displayed in a `RecyclerView` is created as an instance of the `ViewHolder` class. The `ViewHolder` instance contains everything necessary for the `RecyclerView` to display the list item, including the information to be displayed and the view layout used to display the item.

As with the `ListView`, the `RecyclerView` depends on an adapter to act as the intermediary between the `RecyclerView` instance and the data that is to be displayed to the user. The adapter is created as a subclass of the `RecyclerView.Adapter` class and must, at a minimum, implement the following methods, which will be called at various points by the `RecyclerView` object to which the adapter is assigned:

- **`getItemCount()`** – This method must return a count of the number of items that are to be displayed in the list.
- **`onCreateViewHolder()`** – This method creates and returns a `ViewHolder` object initialized with the view that is to be used to display the data. This view is typically created by inflating the XML layout file.
- **`onBindViewHolder()`** – This method is passed the `ViewHolder` object created by the `onCreateViewHolder()` method together with an integer value indicating the list item that is about to be displayed. Contained within the `ViewHolder` object is the layout assigned by the `onCreateViewHolder()` method. It is the responsibility of the `onBindViewHolder()` method to populate the views in the layout with the text and graphics corresponding to the specified item and to return the object to the `RecyclerView` where it will be presented to the user.

Adding a `RecyclerView` to a layout is simply a matter of adding the appropriate element to the XML content layout file of the activity in which it is to appear. For example:

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout
    xmlns:android="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res/android"
    xmlns:app="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
    xmlns:tools="http://schemas.android.com/tools"
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="match_parent"
    app:layout_behavior="@string/appbar_scrolling_view_behavior"
    tools:context=".MainActivity"
    tools:showIn="@layout/activity_card_demo">

    <androidx.recyclerview.widget.RecyclerView
        android:id="@+id/recycler_view"
```

```

        android:layout_width="0dp"
        android:layout_height="0dp"
        app:layout_constraintBottom_toBottomOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintEnd_toEndOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintStart_toStartOf="parent"
        app:layout_constraintTop_toTopOf="parent"
        tools:listItem="@layout/card_layout" />

</androidx.constraintlayout.widget.ConstraintLayout>
.
.

```

In the above example the RecyclerView has been embedded into the CoordinatorLayout of a main activity layout file along with the AppBar and Toolbar. This provides some additional features, such as configuring the Toolbar and AppBar to scroll off the screen when the user scrolls up within the RecyclerView (a topic covered in more detail in the chapter entitled “Working with the AppBar and Collapsing Toolbar Layouts”).

## 47.2 An Overview of the CardView

The CardView class is a user interface view that allows information to be presented in groups using a card metaphor. Cards are usually presented in lists using a RecyclerView instance and may be configured to appear with shadow effects and rounded corners. Figure 47-4, for example, shows three CardView instances configured to display a layout consisting of an ImageView and two TextViews:

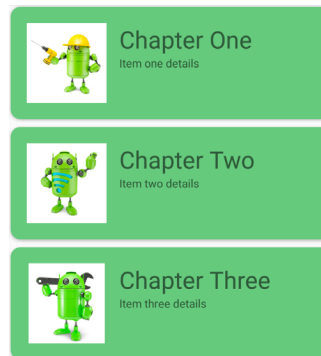


Figure 47-4

The user interface layout to be presented with a CardView instance is defined within an XML layout resource file and loaded into the CardView at runtime. The CardView layout can contain a layout of any complexity using the standard layout managers such as RelativeLayout and LinearLayout. The following XML layout file represents a card view layout consisting of a RelativeLayout and a single ImageView. The card is configured to be elevated to create shadowing effect and to appear with rounded corners:

```

<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<androidx.cardview.widget.CardView
    xmlns:card_view="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res-auto"
    xmlns:android="http://schemas.android.com/apk/res/android"
    android:id="@+id/card_view"
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:layout_margin="5dp"

```

## Working with the RecyclerView and CardView Widgets

```
card_view:cardCornerRadius="12dp"
card_view:cardElevation="3dp"
card_view:contentPadding="4dp">

<RelativeLayout
    android:layout_width="match_parent"
    android:layout_height="wrap_content"
    android:padding="16dp" >

    <ImageView
        android:layout_width="100dp"
        android:layout_height="100dp"
        android:id="@+id/item_image"
        android:layout_alignParentLeft="true"
        android:layout_alignParentTop="true"
        android:layout_marginRight="16dp" />

</RelativeLayout>
</androidx.cardview.widget.CardView>
```

When combined with the RecyclerView to create a scrollable list of cards, the *onCreateViewHolder()* method of the recycler view inflates the layout resource file for the card, assigns it to the ViewHolder instance and returns it to the RecyclerView instance.

### 47.3 Summary

This chapter has introduced the Android RecyclerView and CardView components. The RecyclerView provides a resource efficient way to display scrollable lists of views within an Android app. The CardView is useful when presenting groups of data (such as a list of names and addresses) in the form of cards. As previously outlined, and demonstrated in the tutorial contained in the next chapter, the RecyclerView and CardView are particularly useful when combined.

## 81. An Overview of Android In-App Billing

In the early days of mobile applications for operating systems such as Android and iOS, the most common method for earning revenue was to charge an upfront fee to download and install the application. Another revenue opportunity was soon introduced in the form of embedding advertising within applications. Perhaps the most common and lucrative option is now to charge the user for purchasing items from within the application after it has been installed. This typically takes the form of access to a higher level in a game, acquiring virtual goods or currency, or subscribing to premium content in the digital edition of a magazine or newspaper.

Google provides support for the integration of in-app purchasing through the Google Play In-App Billing API and the Play Console. This chapter will provide an overview of in-app billing and outline how to integrate in-app billing into your Android projects. Once these topics have been explored, the next chapter will walk you through creating an example app that includes in-app purchasing features.

### 81.1 Preparing a Project for In-App Purchasing

Building in-app purchasing into an app will require a Google Play Developer Console account, details of which were covered previously in the “*Creating, Testing and Uploading an Android App Bundle*” chapter. You will also need to register a Google merchant account and configure your payment settings. These settings can be found by navigating to *Setup -> Payments profile* in the Play Console. Note that merchant registration is not available in all countries. For details, refer to the following page:

<https://support.google.com/googleplay/android-developer/answer/9306917>

The app will then need to be uploaded to the console and enabled for in-app purchasing. The console will not activate in-app purchasing support for an app, however, unless the Google Play Billing Library has been added to the module-level *build.gradle* file. When working with Kotlin, the Google Play Kotlin Extensions Library is also recommended:

```
dependencies {  
    .  
    .  
    implementation 'com.android.billingclient:billing:<latest version>'  
    .  
    .  
}
```

Once the build file has been modified and the app bundle uploaded to the console, the next step is to add in-app products or subscriptions for the user to purchase.

### 81.2 Creating In-App Products and Subscriptions

Products and subscriptions are created and managed using the options listed beneath the Monetize section of the Play Console navigation panel as highlighted in Figure 81-1 below:

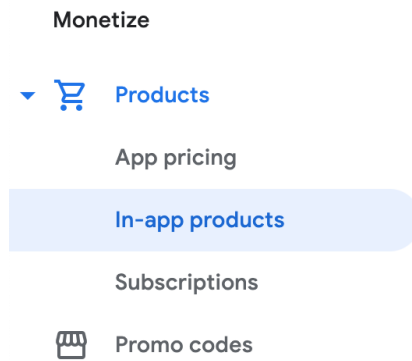


Figure 81-1

Each product or subscription needs an ID, title, description, and pricing information. Purchases fall into the categories of *consumable* (the item must be purchased each time it is required by the user such as virtual currency in a game), *non-consumable* (only needs to be purchased once by the user such as content access), and *subscription*-based. Consumable and non-consumable products are collectively referred to as *managed products*.

Subscriptions are useful for selling an item that needs to be renewed on a regular schedule such as access to news content or the premium features of an app. When creating a subscription, a *base plan* is defined specifying the price, renewal period (monthly, annually, etc.), and whether the subscription auto-renews. Users can also be provided with discount *offers* and given the option of pre-purchasing a subscription.

### 81.3 Billing Client Initialization

Communication between your app and the Google Play Billing Library is handled by a `BillingClient` instance. In addition, `BillingClient` includes a set of methods that can be called to perform both synchronous and asynchronous billing-related activities. When the billing client is initialized, it will need to be provided with a reference to a `PurchasesUpdatedListener` callback handler. The client will call this handler to notify your app of the results of any purchasing activity. To avoid duplicate notifications, it is recommended to have only one `BillingClient` instance per app.

A `BillingClient` instance can be created using the `newBuilder()` method, passing through the current activity or fragment context. The purchase update handler is then assigned to the client via the `setListener()` method:

```
private final PurchasesUpdatedListener purchasesUpdatedListener =
    new PurchasesUpdatedListener() {

    @Override
    public void onPurchasesUpdated(BillingResult billingResult,
        List<Purchase> purchases) {

        if (billingResult.getResponseCode() ==
            BillingClient.BillingResponseCode.OK
            && purchases != null) {

            // Purchase(s) successful

            for (Purchase purchase : purchases) {
                // Process purchases
            }
        }
    }
}
```



```

        }
    } else if (billingResult.getResponseCode() ==
        BillingClient.BillingResponseCode.USER_CANCELED) {
        // User cancelled purchase
    } else {
        // handle errors here
    }
}
};

private BillingClient billingClient = BillingClient.newBuilder(context)
    .setListener(purchasesUpdatedListener)
    .enablePendingPurchases()
    .build();

```

## 81.4 Connecting to the Google Play Billing Library

After the successful creation of the Billing Client, the next step is to initialize a connection to the Google Play Billing Library. To establish this connection, a call needs to be made to the *startConnection()* method of the billing client instance. Since the connection is performed asynchronously, a *BillingClientStateListener* handler needs to be implemented to receive a callback indicating whether the connection was successful. Code should also be added to override the *onBillingServiceDisconnected()* method. This is called if the connection to the Billing Library is lost and can be used to report the problem to the user and retry the connection.

Once the setup and connection tasks are complete, the *BillingClient* instance will make a call to the *onBillingSetupFinished()* method which can be used to check that the client is ready:

```

billingClient.startConnection(new BillingClientStateListener() {

    @Override
    public void onBillingSetupFinished(
        @NonNull BillingResult billingResult) {

        if (billingResult.getResponseCode() ==
            BillingClient.BillingResponseCode.OK) {
            // Connection successful
        } else {
            // Connection failed
        }
    }

    @Override
    public void onBillingServiceDisconnected() {
        // Existing connection lost
    }

});

```

## 81.5 Querying Available Products

Once the billing environment is initialized and ready to go, the next step is to request the details of the products or subscriptions that are available for purchase. This is achieved by making a call to the *queryProductDetailsAsync()* method of the *BillingClient* and passing through an appropriately configured *QueryProductDetailsParams* instance containing the product ID and type (*ProductType.SUBS* for a subscription or *ProductType.INAPP* for a managed product):

```
QueryProductDetailsParams queryProductDetailsParams =
    QueryProductDetailsParams.newBuilder()
        .setProductList(
            ImmutableList.of(
                QueryProductDetailsParams.Product.newBuilder()
                    .setProductId("one_button_click")
                    .setProductType(BillingClient.ProductType.INAPP)
                    .build())
            )
        .build();

billingClient.queryProductDetailsAsync(queryProductDetailsParams,
    new ProductDetailsResponseListener() {
        public void onProductDetailsResponse(
            @NonNull BillingResult billingResult,
            @NonNull List<ProductDetails> productDetailsList) {

            if (!productDetailsList.isEmpty()) {
                // Process list of matching products
            } else {
                // No product matches found
            }
        }
    }
);
```

The *queryProductDetailsAsync()* method is passed a *ProductDetailsResponseListener* handler which, in turn, is called and passed a list of *ProductDetail* objects containing information about the matching products. For example, we can call methods on these objects to get information such as the product name, title, description, price, and offer details.

## 81.6 Starting the Purchase Process

Once a product or subscription has been queried and selected for purchase by the user, the purchase process is ready to be launched. We do this by calling the *launchBillingFlow()* method of the *BillingClient*, passing through as arguments the current activity and a *BillingFlowParams* instance configured with the *ProductDetail* object for the item being purchased.

```
BillingFlowParams billingFlowParams =
    BillingFlowParams.newBuilder()
        .setProductDetailsParamsList(
            ImmutableList.of(
                BillingFlowParams.ProductDetailsParams.newBuilder()
```

```

        .setProductDetails(productDetails)
        .build()
    )
}
.build();

```

```
billingClient.launchBillingFlow(this, billingFlowParams);
```

The success or otherwise of the purchase operation will be reported via a call to the `PurchasesUpdatedListener` callback handler outlined earlier in the chapter.

## 81.7 Completing the Purchase

When purchases are successful, the `PurchasesUpdatedListener` handler will be passed a list containing a `Purchase` object for each item. You can verify that the item has been purchased by calling the `getPurchaseState()` method of the `Purchase` instance as follows:

```

if (purchase.getPurchaseState() == Purchase.PurchaseState.PURCHASED) {
    // Purchase completed.
} else if (purchase.getPurchaseState() == Purchase.PurchaseState.PENDING) {
    // Payment is still pending
}

```

Note that your app will only support pending purchases if a call is made to the `enablePendingPurchases()` method during initialization. A pending purchase will remain so until the user completes the payment process.

When the purchase of a non-consumable item is complete, it will need to be acknowledged to prevent a refund from being issued to the user. This requires the *purchase token* for the item which is obtained via a call to the `getPurchaseToken()` method of the `Purchase` object. This token is used to create an `AcknowledgePurchaseParams` instance together with an `AcknowledgePurchaseResponseListener` handler. Managed product purchases and subscriptions are acknowledged by calling the `BillingClient`'s `acknowledgePurchase()` method as follows:

```

AcknowledgePurchaseParams acknowledgePurchaseParams =
    AcknowledgePurchaseParams.newBuilder()
        .setPurchaseToken(purchase.getPurchaseToken())
        .build();

AcknowledgePurchaseResponseListener acknowledgePurchaseResponseListener =
    new AcknowledgePurchaseResponseListener() {

        @Override
        public void onAcknowledgePurchaseResponse(
            @NonNull BillingResult billingResult) {
            // Check acknowledgement result
        }
    };

```

For consumable purchases, you will need to notify Google Play when the item has been consumed so that it is available to be repurchased by the user. This requires a configured `ConsumeParams` instance containing a purchase token, a `ConsumeResponseListener`, and a call to the billing client's `consumeAsync()` method:

```
ConsumeParams consumeParams =
```

## An Overview of Android In-App Billing

```
ConsumeParams.newBuilder()
    .setPurchaseToken(purchase.getPurchaseToken())
    .build();

ConsumeResponseListener listener = new ConsumeResponseListener() {
    @Override
    public void onConsumeResponse(BillingResult billingResult,
                                  @NonNull String purchaseToken) {
        if (billingResult.getResponseCode() ==
            BillingClient.BillingResponseCode.OK) {
            // Purchase consumed successfully
        }
    }
};

billingClient.consumeAsync(consumeParams, listener);
```

### 81.8 Querying Previous Purchases

When working with in-app billing it is a common requirement to check whether a user has already purchased a product or subscription. A list of all the user's previous purchases of a specific type can be generated by calling the *queryPurchasesAsync()* method of the *BillingClient* instance and implementing a *PurchaseResponseListener*. The following code, for example, obtains a list of all previously purchased items that have not yet been consumed:

```
QueryPurchasesParams queryPurchasesParams =
    QueryPurchasesParams.newBuilder()
        .setProductType(BillingClient.ProductType.INAPP)
        .build();

billingClient.queryPurchasesAsync(queryPurchasesParams,
    new PurchasesResponseListener() {
        @Override
        public void onQueryPurchasesResponse(@NonNull BillingResult billingResult,
            @NonNull List<Purchase> list) {
            // Process list of purchases
        }
    });
```

To obtain a list of active subscriptions, change the *ProductType* value from *INAPP* to *SUBS*.

Alternatively, to obtain a list of the most recent purchases for each product, make a call to the *BillingClient* *queryPurchaseHistoryAsync()* method:

```
QueryPurchaseHistoryParams queryPurchaseHistoryParams =
    QueryPurchaseHistoryParams.newBuilder()
        .setProductType(BillingClient.ProductType.INAPP)
        .build();

billingClient.queryPurchaseHistoryAsync(queryPurchaseHistoryParams,
    new PurchaseHistoryResponseListener() {
```

```
@Override
public void onPurchaseHistoryResponse(@NonNull BillingResult billingResult,
                                     @NonNull List<PurchaseHistoryRecord> list) {
    // Process purchase history
}
});
```

## 81.9 Summary

In-app purchases provide a way to generate revenue from within Android apps by selling virtual products and subscriptions to users. In this chapter, we have explored managed products and subscriptions and explained the difference between consumable and non-consumable products. In-app purchasing support is added to an app using the Google Play In-app Billing Library and involves creating and initializing a billing client on which methods are called to perform tasks such as making purchases, listing available products, and consuming existing purchases. The next chapter contains a tutorial demonstrating the addition of in-app purchases to an Android Studio project.



## Index

### Symbols

<fragment> 239  
 <fragment> element 239  
 <receiver> 456  
 <service> 466, 475  
 Code Reformatting 73  
 .well-known folder 429, 452, 664

### A

AbsoluteLayout 118  
 ACCESS\_COARSE\_LOCATION permission 600  
 ACCESS\_FINE\_LOCATION permission 600  
 acknowledgePurchase() method 703  
 ACTION\_CREATE\_DOCUMENT 571  
 ACTION\_CREATE\_INTENT 572  
 ACTION\_DOWN 214  
 ACTION\_MOVE 214  
 ACTION\_OPEN\_DOCUMENT intent 564  
 ACTION\_POINTER\_DOWN 214  
 ACTION\_POINTER\_UP 214  
 ACTION\_UP 214  
 ACTION\_VIEW 447  
 Active / Running state 92  
 Activity 79, 95  
   adding to a project 175  
   adding views in Java code 195  
   class 95  
   creation 14  
   Entire Lifetime 99  
   Foreground Lifetime 99  
   lifecycle methods 98  
   lifecycles 89  
   returning data from 426  
   state change example 103  
   state changes 95

states 92  
 Visible Lifetime 99  
 ActivityCompat class 605  
 Activity Lifecycle 91  
 Activity Manager 78  
 ActivityResultLauncher 427  
 Activity Stack 91  
 Actual screen pixels 186  
 adb  
   command-line tool 57  
   connection testing 63  
   device pairing 61  
   enabling on Android devices 57  
   Linux configuration 60  
   list devices 57  
   macOS configuration 58  
   overview 57  
   restart server 58  
   testing connection 63  
   WiFi debugging 61  
   Windows configuration 59  
   Wireless debugging 61  
   Wireless pairing 61  
 addCategory() method 455  
 addMarker() method 627  
 addView() method 190  
 ADD\_VOICEMAIL permission 600  
 android  
   command-line tool 35  
   gestureColor 233  
   layout\_behavior property 411  
   onClick 241  
   process 475  
   uncertainGestureColor 233  
 Android  
   Activity 79  
   architecture 75  
   events 207  
   intents 80

## Index

- onClick Resource 207
- runtime 76
- SDK Packages 6
- android.app 76
- Android Architecture Components 257
- android.content 76
- android.content.Intent 425
- android.database 76
- Android Debug Bridge. *See* ADB
- Android Design Support Library 367
- Android Development
  - System Requirements 3
- Android Devices
  - designing for different 117
- android.graphics 76
- android.hardware 76
- android.intent.action 461
- android.intent.action.MAIN 447
- android.intent.category.LAUNCHER 447
- Android Libraries 76
- AndroidManifest.xml file 176
- android.media 77
- Android Monitor tool window 31
- Android Native Development Kit 77
- android.net 77
- android.opengl 77
- android.os 77
- android.permission.RECORD\_AUDIO 609
- android.print 77
- Android Project
  - create new 13
- android.provider 77
- Android SDK Location
  - identifying 9
- Android SDK Manager 8, 10
- Android SDK Packages
  - version requirements 8
- Android SDK Tools
  - command-line access 9
  - Linux 10
  - macOS 10
  - Windows 7 9
- Windows 8 9
- Android Software Stack 75
- Android Storage Access Framework 564
- Android Studio
  - changing theme 54
  - downloading 3
  - Editor Window 48
  - installation 4
  - Linux installation 5
  - macOS installation 4
  - Main Window 48
  - Menu Bar 48
  - Navigation Bar 48
  - Project tool window 49
  - setup wizard 5
  - Status Bar 49
  - Toolbar 48
  - Tool window bars 50
  - tool windows 49
  - updating 11
  - Welcome Screen 47
  - Windows installation 4
- android.text 77
- android.util 77
- android.view 77
- android.view.View 120
- android.view.ViewGroup 117, 120
- Android Virtual Device. *See* AVD
  - overview 27
- Android Virtual Device Manager 27
- android.webkit 77
- android.widget 77
- AndroidX libraries 760
- APK analyzer 696
- APK file 690
  - split 720
- APK File
  - analyzing 696
- APK Signing 760
- APK Wizard dialog 688
- App Architecture
  - modern 257



- AppBar
  - anatomy of 409
- appbar\_scrolling\_view\_behavior 411
- App Bundles 685
  - creating 690
  - overview 685
  - revisions 695
  - uploading 692
- AppCompatActivity class 96
- App Inspector 51
- Application
  - stopping 31
- Application Context 81
- Application Framework 77
- Application Manifest 81
- Application Resources 81
- App Link
  - Adding Intent Filter 672
  - Assistant 667
  - Digital Asset Links file 664, 429
  - Intent Filter Handling 672
  - Intent Filters 663
  - Intent Handling 664
  - Testing 676
  - tutorial 667
  - URL Mapping 669
- App Link Assistant 667
- App Links 663
  - auto verification 429
  - autoVerify 429
  - manually enabling 431
  - overview 663
- Apply Changes 203
  - Apply Changes and Restart Activity 203
  - Apply Code Changes 203
  - fallback settings 205
  - options 203
  - Run App 203
  - tutorial 205
- applyToActivitiesIfAvailable() method 756
- Architecture Components 257
- ART 76

- assetlinks.json , 664, 429
- Attribute Keyframes 334
- Audio
  - supported formats 607
- Audio Playback 607
- Audio Recording 607
- Autoconnect Mode 150
- Automatic Link Verification 429, 451
- autoVerify 429, 672

- AVD
  - command-line creation 27, 35
  - configuration files 37
  - creation 27
  - device frame 34
  - launch in tool window 34
  - overview 27
  - renaming 37
  - running an application 29
  - standalone 33
  - starting 28
  - Startup size and orientation 29

## B

- Background Process 90
- Barriers 144
  - adding 162
  - constrained views 144
- Base APK file 720
- Baseline Alignment 143
- beginTransaction() method 240
- BillingClient 704
  - acknowledgePurchase() method 703
  - consumeAsync() method 703
  - getPurchaseState() method 703
  - initialization 700, 710
  - launchBillingFlow() method 702
  - queryProductDetailsAsync() method 702
  - queryPurchasesAsync() method 704
  - startConnection() method 701
- BillingResult 717
  - getDebugMessage() 717
- Binding Expressions 281

## Index

- one-way 281
- two-way 282
- bindService() method 463, 468
- Biometric Authentication 677
  - callbacks 681
  - overview 677
  - tutorial 677
- Biometric Prompt 682
- BitmapFactory 565
- black activity 14
- Blank template 121
- Blueprint view 149
- BODY\_SENSORS permission 600
- Bound Service 463
  - adding to a project 464
  - Implementing the Binder 464
  - Interaction options 463
- BoundService class 465
- Broadcast Intent 455
  - example 458
  - overview 80, 455
  - sending 458
  - Sticky 457
- Broadcast Receiver 455
  - adding to manifest file 460
  - creation 459
  - overview 80, 456
- BroadcastReceiver class 456
- BroadcastReceiver superclass 459
- BufferedReader object 576
- Build tool window 51
- Build Variants 51, 760
  - tool window 51
- Bundle class 112
- Bundled Notifications 500

## C

- Calendar permissions 600
- CALL\_PHONE permission 600
- CAMERA permission 600
- Camera permissions 600
- CameraUpdateFactory class

- methods 628
- CancellationSignal 682
- Canvas class 658
- CardView
  - example 391
  - layout file 389
  - responding to selection of 397
- CardView class 389
- CATEGORY\_OPENABLE 564
- C/C++ Libraries 77
- Chain bias 170
- chain head 142
- chains 142
- Chains
  - creation of 167
- Chain style
  - changing 169
- chain styles 142
- CharSequence 113
- CheckBox 117
- checkSelfPermission() method 604
- Circle class 617
- Code completion 68
- Code Editor
  - basics 65
  - Code completion 68
  - Code Generation 70
  - Code Reformatting 73
  - Document Tabs 65
  - Editing area 66
  - Gutter Area 66
  - Live Templates 74
  - Splitting 67
  - Statement Completion 69
  - Status Bar 67
- Code Generation 70
- code samples
  - download 1
- CollapsingToolbarLayout
  - example 413
  - introduction 412
  - parallax mode 412

- pin mode 412
- setting scrim color 415
- setting title 415
- with image 412
- Color class 659
- COLOR\_MODE\_COLOR 634, 654
- COLOR\_MODE\_MONOCHROME 634, 654
- com.android.application 723
- com.android.dynamic-feature 723
- Common Gestures 221
  - detection 221
- Component tree 17
- Configuration APK file 720
- Constraint Bias 141
  - adjusting 154
- ConstraintLayout
  - advantages of 147
  - Availability 148
  - Barriers 144
  - Baseline Alignment 143
  - chain bias 170
  - chain head 142
  - chains 142
  - chain styles 142
  - Constraint Bias 141
  - Constraints 139
  - conversion to 166
  - convert to MotionLayout 341
  - deleting constraints 154
  - guidelines 160
  - Guidelines 144
  - manual constraint manipulation 151
  - Margins 140, 155
  - Opposing Constraints 140, 156
  - overview of 139
  - Packed chain 143, 170
  - ratios 147, 171
  - Spread chain 142
  - Spread inside 169
  - Spread inside chain 142
  - tutorial 175
  - using in Android Studio 149
  - Weighted chain 142, 170
  - Widget Dimensions 143, 158
  - Widget Group Alignment 165
- ConstraintLayout chains
  - creation of 167
  - in layout editor 167
- ConstraintLayout Chain style
  - changing 169
- Constraints
  - deleting 154
- ConstraintSet
  - addToHorizontalChain() method 192
  - addToVerticalChain() method 192
  - alignment constraints 191
  - apply to layout 190
  - applyTo() method 190
  - centerHorizontally() method 191
  - centerVertically() method 191
  - chains 191
  - clear() method 192
  - clone() method 191
  - connect() method 190
  - connect to parent 190
  - constraint bias 191
  - copying constraints 191
  - create 190
  - create connection 190
  - createHorizontalChain() method 191
  - createVerticalChain() method 191
  - guidelines 192
  - removeFromHorizontalChain() method 192
  - removeFromVerticalChain() method 192
  - removing constraints 192
  - rotation 193
  - scaling 192
  - setGuidelineBegin() method 192
  - setGuidelineEnd() method 192
  - setGuidelinePercent() method 192
  - setHorizontalBias() method 191
  - setRotationX() method 193
  - setRotationY() method 193
  - setScaleX() method 192

## Index

- setScaleY() method 192
- setTransformPivot() method 193
- setTransformPivotX() method 193
- setTransformPivotY() method 193
- setVerticalBias() method 191
- sizing constraints 191
- tutorial 195
- view IDs 197
- ConstraintSet class 189, 190
- ConstraintSet.PARENT\_ID 190
- Constraint Sets 190
- ConstraintSets
  - configuring 330
- consumeAsync() method 703
- ConsumeParams 715
- ConsumeResponseListener 703
- Contacts permissions 600
- container view 117
- Content Provider 78
  - overview 81
- Context class 81
- CoordinatorLayout 118, 409, 411
- createPrintDocumentAdapter() method 649
- Custom Attribute 331
- Custom Document Printing 637, 649
- Custom Gesture
  - recognition 227
- Custom Print Adapter
  - implementation 651
- Custom Print Adapters 649
- Custom Theme
  - building 748
- Cycle Editor 359
- Cycle Keyframe 339
- Cycle Keyframes
  - overview 355

## D

- dangerous permissions 599
  - list of 600
- Dark Theme 32
  - enable on device 32

- Data Access Object (DAO) 530
- Data Access Objects (DAO) 534
- Database Inspector 537, 561
  - live updates 561
  - SQL query 561
- Database Rows 524
- Database Schema 523
- Database Tables 523
- Data binding
  - binding expressions 281
- Data Binding 260
  - binding classes 280
  - enabling 286
  - event and listener binding 282
  - key components 277
  - overview 277
  - tutorial 285
  - with LiveData 260
- DDMS 31
- Debugging
  - enabling on device 57
- debug.keystore file 429, 451
- DefaultLifecycleObserver 300, 303
- deltaRelative 335
- Density-independent pixels 185
- Density Independent Pixels
  - converting to pixels 200
- Developer Signature 618
- Device Definition
  - custom 135
- Device File Explorer 51
- device frame 34
- Device Manager 51
- device pairing 61
- Digital Asset Links file 429, 664, 429
- Direct Reply Input 511
- Direct Reply Notification 505
- document provider 563
- dp 185
- Dynamic Colors
  - applyToActivitiesIfAvailable() method 756
  - enabling 756

- enabling in Android 756
- Dynamic Delivery 722
- Dynamic Feature APK 720
- Dynamic Feature Module
  - architecture 719
  - overview 719
  - removal 743
  - tutorial 729
- Dynamic Feature Modules
  - deferred installation 725
  - handling of large 727
- Dynamic Feature Support
  - adding to project 729
- Dynamic State 97
  - saving 111

## E

- Empty Process 91
- Empty template 121
- Emulator 51
  - battery 42
  - cellular configuration 42
  - configuring fingerprints 44
  - directional pad 42
  - extended control options 41
  - Extended controls 41
  - fingerprint 42
  - location configuration 42
  - phone settings 42
  - resize 41
  - rotate 40
  - Screen Record 43
  - Snapshots 43
  - starting 28
  - take screenshot 40
  - toolbar 39
  - toolbar options 39
  - tool window mode 45
  - Virtual Sensors 43
  - zoom 40
- enablePendingPurchases() method 703
- enabling ADB support 57

- ettings.gradle file 760
- Event Handling 207
  - example 208
- Event Listener 210
- Event Listeners 208
- Event Log 51
- Events
  - consuming 211
- explicit
  - intent 80
- explicit intent 425
- Explicit Intent 425
- Extended Control
  - options 41

## F

- Favorites
  - tool window 51
- Files
  - switching between 66
- findPointerIndex() method 214
- findViewById() 83
- Fingerprint
  - emulation 44
- Fingerprint authentication
  - device configuration 678
  - permission 678
  - steps to implement 677
- Fingerprint Authentication
  - overview 677
  - tutorial 677
- FLAG\_INCLUDE\_STOPPED\_PACKAGES 455
- flexible space area 409
- floating action button 14, 122, 367
  - changing appearance of 371
  - margins 368
  - overview of 367
  - removing 123
  - sizes 368
- Foldable Devices 100
  - multi-resume 100
- Foldable Emulator 516

## Index

Foldables 515  
Foreground Process 90  
Forward-geocoding 621  
Fragment  
    creation 237  
    event handling 241  
    XML file 237, 238  
FragmentActivity class 96  
Fragment Communication 242  
FragmentPagerAdapter class 381  
Fragments 237  
    adding in code 240  
    duplicating 378  
    example 245  
    overview 237  
FrameLayout 118

## G

Geocoder class 620  
Geocoder object 621  
Geocoding 620  
Gesture Builder Application 227  
    building and running 228  
Gesture Detector class 221  
GestureDetectorCompat 224  
    instance creation 224  
GestureDetectorCompat class 221  
GestureDetector.OnDoubleTapListener 221, 222  
GestureDetector.OnGestureListener 222  
GestureLibrary 227  
GestureLibrary class 227  
GestureOverlayView 227  
    configuring color 233  
    configuring multiple strokes 233  
GestureOverlayView class 227  
GesturePerformedListener 227  
Gestures  
    interception of 233  
Gestures File  
    creation 228  
    extract from SD card 228  
    loading into application 230  
GET\_ACCOUNTS permission 600  
getAction() method 461  
getDebugMessage() 717  
getFromLocation() method 621  
getId() method 190  
getIntent() method 426  
getPointerCount() method 214  
getPointerId() method 214  
getPurchaseState() method 703  
getService() method 468  
GNU/Linux 76  
Google Cloud Print 632  
Google Drive 564  
    printing to 632  
GoogleMap 617  
    map types 625  
GoogleMap.MAP\_TYPE\_HYBRID 625  
GoogleMap.MAP\_TYPE\_NONE 625  
GoogleMap.MAP\_TYPE\_NORMAL 625  
GoogleMap.MAP\_TYPE\_SATELLITE 625  
GoogleMap.MAP\_TYPE\_TERRAIN 625  
Google Maps 617  
Google Maps Android API 617  
    Controlling the Map Camera 628  
    developer signature 618  
    displaying controls 625  
    gesture handling 626  
    Map Markers 627  
    overview 617  
Google Play Billing Library 699  
Google Play Console 708  
    Creating an in-app product 708  
    License Testers 709  
Google Play Developer Console 686  
Gradle  
    APK signing settings 764  
    Build Variants 760  
    command line tasks 765  
    dependencies 759  
    Manifest Entries 760  
    overview 759  
    sensible defaults 759

- tool window 51
- Gradle Build File
  - top level 761
- Gradle Build Files
  - module level 762
- gradle.properties file 760
- GridLayout 118
- GridLayoutManager 387

## H

- Handler class 474
- HP Print Services Plugin 631
- HTML printing 635
- HTML Printing
  - example 639

## I

- IBinder 465
- IBinder object 463, 473, 475
- Image Printing 634
- implicit
  - intent 80
- implicit intent 425
- Implicit Intent 427
- Implicit Intents
  - example 443
- in 185
- INAPP 704
- In-App Products 699
- In-App Purchasing 707
  - acknowledgePurchase() method 703
  - BillingClient 700
  - BillingResult 717
  - consumeAsync() method 703
  - ConsumeParams 715
  - ConsumeResponseListener 703
  - Consuming purchases 714
  - enablePendingPurchases() method 703
  - getPurchaseState() method 703
  - Google Play Billing Library 699
  - launchBillingFlow() method 702
  - Libraries 707

- newBuilder() method 700
- onBillingServiceDisconnected() callback 712
- onBillingServiceDisconnected() method 701
- onBillingSetupFinished() listener 711
- onProductDetailsResponse() callback 712
- Overview 699
- ProductDetail 702
- ProductDetails 713
- products 699
- ProductType 704
- ProductType.INAPP 704
- ProductType.SUBS 704
- Purchase Flow 713
- PurchaseResponseListener 704
- PurchasesUpdatedListener 703
- PurchaseUpdatedListener 713
- purchase updates 713
- queryProductDetailsAsync() 712
- queryProductDetailsAsync() method 702
- queryPurchasesAsync() 715
- queryPurchasesAsync() method 704
- runOnUiThread() 713
- startConnection() method 701
- subscriptions 699
- tutorial 707
- In-Memory Database 537
- Instant Dynamic Feature Module 720
- Intent 80
  - explicit 80
  - implicit 80
- Intent Availability
  - checking for 433
- Intent.CATEGORY\_OPENABLE 572
- intent filters 425
- Intent Filters 428
  - App Link 663
- intent resolution 428
- Intents 425
  - ActivityResultLauncher 427
  - overview 425
  - registerForActivityResult() 440
- Intent URL 446

## Index

## J

Java Native Interface 77  
Jetpack 257  
    overview 257

## K

KeyAttribute 334  
Keyboard Shortcuts 52  
KeyCycle 339, 355  
    Cycle Editor 359  
    tutorial 355  
Keyframe 347  
Keyframes 334  
KeyFrameSet 364  
KeyPosition 335  
    deltaRelative 335  
    parentRelative 335  
    pathRelative 336  
Keystore File  
    creation 688  
KeyTimeCycle 339, 355  
keytool 429  
KeyTrigger 338  
Killed state 92

## L

launchBillingFlow() method 702  
launcher activity 176  
layout\_collapseMode  
    parallax 414  
    pin 414  
layout\_constraintDimentionRatio 172  
layout\_constraintHorizontal\_bias 170  
layout\_constraintVertical\_bias 170  
layout editor  
    ConstraintLayout chains 167  
Layout Editor 16, 175  
    Autoconnect Mode 150  
    code mode 128  
    Component Tree 126  
    design mode 125  
    device screen 126

    example project 175  
    Inference Mode 151  
    palette 125  
    properties panel 126  
    Sample Data 134  
    Setting Properties 129  
    toolbar 126  
    user interface design 177  
    view conversion 134

Layout Editor Tool  
    changing orientation 16  
    overview 125

Layout Inspector 52

Layout Managers 117

LayoutResultCallback object 655

Layouts 117

layout\_scrollFlags  
    enterAlwaysCollapsed mode 411  
    enterAlways mode 411  
    exitUntilCollapsed mode 411  
    scroll mode 411

Layout Validation 136

libc 77

License Testers 709

Lifecycle  
    awareness 299  
    components 260  
    owners 299  
    states and events 301  
    tutorial 303

Lifecycle-Aware Components 299

Lifecycle Methods 98

Lifecycle Observer 303

    creating a 303

Lifecycle Owner

    creating a 305

Lifecycles

    modern 260

LinearLayout 118

LinearLayoutManager 387

LinearLayoutManager layout 396

Linux Kernel 76



- list devices 57
- LiveData 258, 271
  - adding to ViewModel 271
  - observer 273
  - tutorial 271
- Live Templates 74
- Local Bound Service 463
  - example 463
- Location Manager 78
- Location permission 600
- Logcat
  - tool window 52
- LogCat
  - enabling 106
- M**
- MANAGE\_EXTERNAL\_STORAGE 601
  - adb enabling 601
  - testing 601
- Manifest File
  - permissions 447
- Maps 617
- MapView 617
  - adding to a layout 622
- Marker class 617
- Master/Detail Flow
  - creation 418
  - two pane mode 417
- match\_parent properties 185
- Material design 367
- Material Design 2 745
- Material Design 2 Theming 745
- Material Design 3 745
- Material Design 3 Theming 747
- Material Theme Builder 748
- Material You 748
- MediaController
  - adding to VideoView instance 583
- MediaController class 580
  - methods 580
- MediaPlayer class 607
  - methods 607
- MediaRecorder class 607
  - methods 608
  - recording audio 608
- Messenger object 475
- Microphone
  - checking for availability 610
- Microphone permissions 600
- mm 185
- MotionEvent 213, 214, 235
  - getActionMasked() 214
- MotionLayout 329
  - arc motion 334
  - Attribute Keyframes 334
  - ConstraintSets 330
  - Custom Attribute 350
  - Custom Attributes 331
  - Cycle Editor 359
  - Cycle Keyframes 339
  - Editor 341
  - KeyAttribute 334
  - KeyCycle 355
  - Keyframes 334
  - KeyFrameSet 364
  - KeyPosition 335
  - KeyTimeCycle 355
  - KeyTrigger 338
  - OnClick 333, 346
  - OnSwipe 333
  - overview 329
  - Position Keyframes 335
  - previewing animation 345
  - starting animation 332
  - Trigger Keyframe 338
  - Tutorial 341
- MotionScene
  - ConstraintSets 330
  - Custom Attributes 331
  - file 330
  - overview 329
  - transition 330
- moveCamera() method 628
- multiple devices

## Index

- testing app on 31
- Multiple Touches
  - handling 214
- multi-resume 100
- Multi-Touch
  - example 214
- Multi-touch Event Handling 213
- Multi-Window
  - attributes 519
- Multi-Window Mode
  - detecting 520
  - entering 517
  - launching activity into 521
- Multi-Window Notifications 520
- multi-window support 100
- Multi-Window Support
  - enabling 518
- My Location Layer 618

## N

- Navigation 309
  - adding destinations 318
  - overview 309
  - pass data with safeargs 325
  - passing arguments 314
  - safeargs 314
  - stack 309
  - tutorial 315
- Navigation Action
  - triggering 313
- Navigation Architecture Component 309
- Navigation Component
  - tutorial 315
- Navigation Controller
  - accessing 313
- Navigation Graph 312, 316
  - adding actions 321
  - creating a 316
- Navigation Host 310
  - declaring 317
- newBuilder() method 700
- normal permissions 599

- Notification
  - adding actions 500
  - direct reply 505
  - Direct Reply Input 511
  - issuing a basic 496
  - launch activity from a 498
  - PendingIntent 507
  - Reply Action 508
  - updating direct reply 512
- Notifications 491
  - bundled 500
  - overview 491
- Notifications Manager 78

## O

- Observer
  - implementing a LiveData 273
- onAttach() method 242
- onBillingServiceDisconnected() callback 712
- onBillingServiceDisconnected() method 701
- onBillingSetupFinished() listener 711
- onBind() method 463, 473
- onBindViewHolder() method 395
- OnClick 333
- onClickListener 208, 210, 212
- onClick() method 207
- onCreateContextMenuListener 208
- onCreate() method 90, 98
- onCreateView() method 98
- on-demand modules 719
- onDestroy() method 98
- onDoubleTap() method 221
- onDown() method 221
- onFling() method 221
- onFocusChangeListener 208
- OnFragmentInteractionListener
  - implementation 322
- onGesturePerformed() method 227
- onKeyListener 208
- onLayoutFailed() method 655
- onLayoutFinished() method 655
- onLongClickListener 208, 211

- onLongClick() method 212
- onLongPress() method 221
- onMapReady() method 623
- onPageFinished() callback 640
- onPause() method 98
- onProductDetailsResponse() callback 712
- onReceive() method 90, 456, 457, 459
- onRequestPermissionsResult() method 603, 604, 614
- onRestart() method 98
- onRestoreInstanceState() method 99
- onResume() method 90, 98
- onSaveInstanceState() method 99
- onScaleBegin() method 233
- onScaleEnd() method 233
- onScale() method 233
- onScroll() method 221
- OnSeekBarChangeListener 252
- onServiceConnected() method 463, 467, 476
- onServiceDisconnected() method 463, 467, 476
- onShowPress() method 221
- onSingleTapUp() method 221
- onStart() method 98
- onStop() method 98
- onTouchEvent() method 221, 233
- onTouchListener 208, 213
- onTouch() method 213
- onViewCreated() method 98
- onViewStatusRestored() method 98
- openFileDescriptor() method 564
- OpenJDK 3

## P

- Package Explorer 15
- Package Manager 78
- PackageManager class 610
- PackageManager.FEATURE\_MICROPHONE 610
- PackageManager.PERMISSION\_DENIED 601
- PackageManager.PERMISSION\_GRANTED 601
- Package Name 14
- Packed chain 143, 170
- PageRange 656, 657
- Paint class 659

- parentRelative 335
- parent view 119
- pathRelative 336
- Paused state 92
- PdfDocument 637
- PdfDocument.Page 649, 656
- PendingIntent class 507
- Permission
  - checking for 601
- permissions
  - dangerous 599
  - normal 599
- Persistent State 97
- Phone permissions 600
- picker 563
- Pinch Gesture
  - detection 233
  - example 234
- Pinch Gesture Recognition 227
- Play Core Library 725, 729
- Polygon class 617
- Polyline class 617
- Position Keyframes 335
- PrintAttributes 654
- PrintDocumentAdapter 637, 649
- PrintDocumentInfo 654
- Printing
  - color 634
  - monochrome 634
- Printing framework
  - architecture 631
- Printing Framework 631
- Print Job
  - starting 660
- Print Manager 631
- PrintManager service 641
- Problems
  - tool window 52
- PROCESS\_OUTGOING\_CALLS permission 600
- Process States 89
- ProductDetail 702
- ProductDetails 713

## Index

ProductType 704  
Profiler  
    tool window 52  
ProgressBar 117  
proguard-rules.pro file 764  
ProGuard Support 760  
Project  
    tool window 52  
Project Name 14  
Project tool window 15, 52  
pt 185  
PurchaseResponseListener 704  
PurchasesUpdatedListener 703  
PurchaseUpdatedListener 713  
putExtra() method 425, 455  
px 186

## Q

queryProductDetailsAsync() 712  
queryProductDetailsAsync() method 702  
queryPurchaseHistoryAsync() method 704  
queryPurchasesAsync() 715  
queryPurchasesAsync() method 704  
Quick Documentation 72

## R

RadioButton 117  
ratios 171  
READ\_CALENDAR permission 600  
READ\_CALL\_LOG permission 600  
READ\_CONTACTS permission 600  
READ\_EXTERNAL\_STORAGE permission 601  
READ\_PHONE\_STATE permission 600  
READ\_SMS permission 600  
RECEIVE\_MMS permission 600  
RECEIVE\_SMS permission 600  
RECEIVE\_WAP\_PUSH permission 600  
Recent Files Navigation 53  
RECORD\_AUDIO permission 600  
Recording Audio  
    permission 609  
RecyclerView 387

    adding to layout file 388  
    example 391  
    LayoutManager 387  
    initializing 396  
    LayoutManager 387  
    StaggeredLayoutManager 387  
RecyclerView Adapter  
    creation of 394  
RecyclerView.Adapter 388, 394  
    getItemCount() method 388  
    onBindViewHolder() method 388  
    onCreateViewHolder() method 388  
RecyclerView.ViewHolder  
    getAdapterPosition() method 398  
registerForActivityResult() method 427, 440  
registerReceiver() method 457  
RelativeLayout 118  
release mode 685  
releasePersistableUriPermission() method 567  
Release Preparation 685  
Remote Bound Service 473  
    client communication 473  
    implementation 474  
    manifest file declaration 475  
RemoteInput.Builder() method 507  
RemoteInput Object 507  
Remote Service  
    launching and binding 476  
    sending a message 477  
Repository  
    tutorial 547  
Repository Modules 260  
requestPermissions() method 603  
Resource  
    string creation 19  
Resource File 21  
Resource Management 89  
Resource Manager 52, 78  
result receiver 457  
Reverse-geocoding 621  
Reverse Geocoding 620  
Room

- Data Access Object (DAO) 530
- entities 530, 531
- In-Memory Database 537
- Repository 530
- Room Database 530
  - tutorial 547
- Room Database Persistence 529
- Room Persistence Library 527, 529
- root element 117
- root view 119
- Run
  - tool window 52
- runOnUiThread() 713
- Runtime Permission Requests 599

## S

- safeargs 314, 325
- Sample Data 134, 401
  - tutorial 401
- Saved State 259, 293
  - library dependencies 295
- SavedStateHandle 294, 295
  - contains() method 295
  - keys() method 295
  - remove() method 295
- Saved State module 293
- SavedStateViewModelFactory 294
- ScaleGestureDetector class 233
- Scale-independent 186
- SDK Packages 6
- Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) 77
- SeekBar 245
- sendBroadcast() method 455, 457
- sendOrderedBroadcast() method 455, 457
- SEND\_SMS permission 600
- sendStickyBroadcast() method 455
- Sensor permissions 600
- Service
  - overview 80
- ServiceConnection class 476
- Service Process 90
- setAudioEncoder() method 608
- setAudioSource() method 608
- setBackgroundColor() 190
- setCompassEnabled() method 626
- setContentView() method 189, 195
- setId() method 190
- setMyLocationButtonEnabled() method 626
- setOnClickListener() method 207, 210
- setOnDoubleTapListener() method 221, 224
- setOutputFile() method 608
- setOutputFormat() method 608
- setResult() method 427
- setRotateGesturesEnabled() method 627
- setScrollGesturesEnabled() method 626
- setText() method 114
- setTiltGesturesEnabled() method 627
- setTransition() 339
- setVideoSource() method 608
- setZoomControlsEnabled() method 626
- SHA-256 certificate fingerprint 429
- shouldOverrideUrlLoading() method 640
- shouldShowRequestPermissionRationale() method 605
- SimpleOnScaleGestureListener 233
- SimpleOnScaleGestureListener class 235
- SMS permissions 600
- Snackbar 367, 368, 369
  - overview of 368
- Snapshots
  - emulator 43
- sp 186
- Space class 118
- split APK files 720
- SplitCompatApplication 724
- SplitInstallManager 725
- Spread chain 142
- Spread inside 169
- Spread inside chain 142
- SQL 524
- SQLite 523
  - AVD command-line use 525
  - Columns and Data Types 523
  - overview 524
  - Primary keys 524

## Index

StaggeredLayoutManager 387

startActivity() method 425

startConnection() method 701

startForeground() method 90

State

restoring 114

State Change

handling 93

Statement Completion 69

status bar 409

Sticky Broadcast Intents 457

Stopped state 92

Storage Access Framework 563

ACTION\_CREATE\_DOCUMENT 564

ACTION\_OPEN\_DOCUMENT 564

deleting a file 567

example 569

file creation 571

file filtering 564

file reading 565

file writing 566

intents 564

MIME Types 565

Persistent Access 567

picker 563

Storage permissions 601

StringBuilder object 576

strings.xml file 23

Structure

tool window 52

Structured Query Language 524

Structure tool window 52

SUBS 704

subscriptions 699

SupportMapFragment class 617

Switcher 53

System Broadcasts 461

system requirements 3

## T

tab bar 409

TabLayout 375

adding to layout 379

app

tabGravity property 384

tabMode property 384

example 376

fixed mode 383

getCount() method 375

getItem() method 375

overview 375

scrollable mode 384

TableLayout 118, 539

TableRow 539

Telephony Manager 78

Templates

blank vs. empty 121

Terminal

tool window 52

Theme

building a custom 748

Theming 745

Material Theme Builder 748

tutorial 751

Time Cycle Keyframes 339

TODO

tool window 52

toolbar 409

ToolBarListener 242

tools

layout 239

Tool window bars 50

Tool windows 49

Touch Actions 214

Touch Event Listener

implementation 215

Touch Events

intercepting 213

Touch handling 213

## U

UiSettings class 617

unregisterReceiver() method 457

URL Mapping 669

- USB connection issues
  - resolving 60
- USE\_BIOMETRIC 678
- user interface state 97
- USE\_SIP permission 600

## V

- Video Playback 579
- VideoView class 579
  - methods 579
  - supported formats 579
- view bindings 83
  - enabling 84
  - using 84
- View class
  - setting properties 196
- view conversion 134
- ViewGroup 117
- View Groups 117
- View Hierarchy 119
- ViewHolder class 388
  - sample implementation 395
- ViewModel
  - adding LiveData 271
  - data access 269
  - fragment association 267
  - overview 258
  - saved state 293
  - Saved State 259, 293
  - tutorial 263
- ViewModelProvider 267
- ViewModel Saved State 293
- ViewPager 375, 380
  - adapter 380
  - adding to layout 379
  - example 376
- Views 117
  - Java creation 189
- View System 78
- Virtual Device Configuration dialog 28
- Virtual Sensors 43
- Visible Process 90

## W

- WebViewClient 635, 640
- WebView view 445
- Weighted chain 142, 170
- Welcome screen 47
- Widget Dimensions 143
- Widget Group Alignment 165
- Widgets palette 178
- WiFi debugging 61
- Wireless debugging 61
- Wireless pairing 61
- wrap\_content properties 187
- WRITE\_CALENDAR permission 600
- WRITE\_CALL\_LOG permission 600
- WRITE\_CONTACTS permission 600
- WRITE\_EXTERNAL\_STORAGE permission 601

## X

- XML Layout File
  - manual creation 185
  - vs. Java Code 189

