- > setx JAVA_HOME "C:\Program Files\Java\jdk-21"
 - It is used to set the environment variable permanently.
- ➤ How the Java code works?
 - Java Code (.java) -----<compiler (javac)>----- Byte Code (.class)
 - △ Byte Code goes into JVM (JVM accepts only byte code)
 - - It says, even if you have 1000 files, you need to tell me which is the first file that I'll run.
 - From That file needs to have main method.
 - △ Whenever you run a .java file, one .class file will get created. It is the Byte Code file.
- To run a java code (file name is let: Hello.java)
 - If you run this using javac Hello.java, one file will be created depending upon the classname used inside the Hello.java.

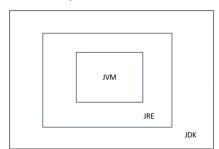
- △ Here I gave the *classname* same as the *filename*.
- But, it doesn't matter what is the filename; you can give the classname different.
- But, the .class file will be created with the classname that is mentioned inside the .java file.

You can see here, I gave the class name *Hello2*, and the file got created is *Hello2.class*.

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- But, if you are creating public class, then the filename must be same as the classname.
- First you need to run the command javac Hello.java
 - For It'll create the .class file.
- Then, run the .class file using java Hello
 - Fere, don't write java Hello.class
- > JVM(Java Virtual Machine) is present inside JRE(Java Runtime Environment).
 - A When you need to run something, it might requires some libraries.
 - △ JRE provides that.

 - - For The kitchen provides the environment to cook a dish.
 - Utensils and Ingredients are like the libraries and resources JRE provides.
- ➤ JVM < JRE < JDK (inner to outer layer)
 - △ JVM present inside JRE and JRE present inside JDK.
 - △ JDK is used by developers to develop the code and all.
 - △ If you want to run your application in any other system, that doesn't require JDK. Only JRE should be there to run the application.



- ➤ Is JVM like a virtual machine on top of OS?
 - △ Yes and No:
 - ✓ Yes: It behaves like a virtual computer for Java bytecode. That's why Java is

 "Write Once, Run Anywhere."
 - ➤ No: It doesn't emulate hardware or run another OS. It sits on top of the real OS, using system calls, memory, CPU instructions, etc.
 - So, JVM is an abstraction layer, not a full-blown VM like VirtualBox.

> <u>Variables</u>

- △ Primitive
 - Integer (byte(1), short(2), int(4), long(8)) (for long: you need to write I as suffix)

- Float (double(8), float(4)) (2.3 => double, 2.3f => float) (default is double)
- Character (2 bytes)
- Boolean (doesn't work like 0 and 1; only true and false works)

```
byte vbyte = 3;
short vshort = 5;
int vint = 10;
long vlong = 1001;

float vfloat = 5.6f;
double vdouble = 6.7;
char vchar = 'A';
boolean vbool = true;
```

NOTE: you can't double quotes in char variables. That is only for string.

```
int vbin = 0b101;
System.out.println(vbin);
```

- You can also write in binrary format, when you execute this, output will be 5.
- * As 101 = 5
- For hexadecimal, use **0x** as prefix.
- Unlike C++, in Java also if you print (int)(ch) where ch is char variable, it'll print the ASCII value of that character.
- Higher sized variables can't be assigned to smaller sized variables; but viceversa is possible.
 - * Ex: int can't be assigned to short; but short can be assigned to int.
 - f If you are assigning larger to smaller, then you need to do type casting.

```
byte b = 3;
int a = 345;

b = (byte) a;
System.out.println(b); // print 89
(345 % 256 = 89)
```

- Type promotion:
 - lets say you have 2 byte variables 10, 30.
- When you multiply these and store the result in a variable, it'll automatically become int (as 300 is not in the scope of byte variable).

Some points to be remembered

- Just like C++, here also, when you divide 2 inegers, it'll return a integer value only. Not float number.
- Operators (arithmetic, logical, ternary and all), Conditional statement (if, else if, else) are same as C++.
- △ switch case statement is also same as C++.
- string + int + int => for example: "abcdef " + 5 + 6 => "abcdef 56"
 - It'll concatenate.

```
if (1) {
    System.out.println(x:"Hello");
}
```

This is wrong. It'll give error that can't convert int into boolean.

Classes and Objects

```
class Calculator {
    public int add(int a, int b) {
        return a + b;
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int num1 = 5, num2 = 10;

        Calculator calc = new Calculator();
        System.out.println("Sum is: " + calc.add(num1, num2));
    }
}
```

- You can't run this directly using **java filename.java**, you need to compile and run separately.
- Bcs, when you compile it, 2 .class files will be created i.e.
 Calculator.class and Demo.class.

> JDK JRE JVM

- △ JDK: Java Development Kit
- △ JVM: Java Virtual Machine
- △ JRE: Java Runtime Environment
- Compilation happens in JDK, Running happens in JVM.
- △ Most of the time, you'll be using some built-in libraries; in this case JRE comes into play.
 - One extra layer outside JVM, which is JRE, stays there to provide the libraries during the run.

> Methods

While creating a method, you should provide a proper access modifier.

```
class Computer {
   public void playMusic() {
       System.out.println(x:"Playing music");
   }

   public String getMeAPen(int cost) {
       if (cost < 10)
            return "No pen for you";
       return "Here is your pen";
   }
}

public class Demo2 {
   Run | Debug
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       Computer comp = new Computer();
       comp.playMusic();
       String pen = comp.getMeAPen(cost:10);
       System.out.println(pen);
   }
}</pre>
```

class Calculator {

```
public int add(int a, int b) {
       System.out.println(x:"add-1");
       return a + b;
    public float add(int a, float b) {
       System.out.println(x:"add-2");
    public int add(int a, int b, int c) {
       System.out.println(x:"add-3");
    public float add(float a, float b) {
       System.out.println(x:"add-4");
       return a + b;
public class Demo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
       Calculator calc = new Calculator();
       int r1 = calc.add(a:5, b:6);
       System.out.println("Sum is: " + r1);
       float r2 = calc.add(a:5, b:6.8f);
       System.out.println("Sum is: " + r2);
       int r3 = calc.add(a:5, b:6, c:7);
       System.out.println("Sum is: " + r3);
        float r4 = calc.add(a:5.5f, b:6.5f);
        System.out.println("Sum is: " + r4);
```

```
alokr@Alok MINGW
$ javac Demo.jav.

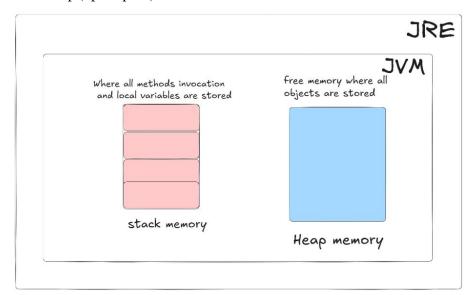
alokr@Alok MINGW
$ java Demo
add-1
Sum is: 11
add-2
Sum is: 11.8
add-3
Sum is: 18
add-4
Sum is: 12.0
```

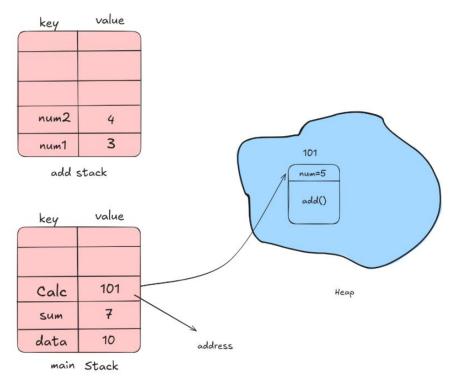
ç

* Number of arguments, type of arguments, type of return type: depending upon these, method overloading can be done.

> Stack and Heap

- △ Inside JVM, there are 2 types of memory.
 - Stack (Last-In-First-Out)
 - Heap (open space)





- Each method takes its own stack like main method, add method (consider previous example)
- For the stack is having 2 partitions: left side is for key and right side is for value.

- Whenever you create an object out of a class, it is created inside the Heap.
 - * In the heap, inside the memory block that the object acquires, is having 2 parts.
 - " One is for **properties** (instance variables)
 - One is for method definitions
- When you call the method using the object, the method gets loaded inside the Stack, create its own local variables and gets executed.
- Note: the instance variables inside a class will be staying inside the heap only.

```
class Calculator {
   int num = 5; // instance variable

  public int add(int a, int b) { // local variable
      System.out.println(num);
      return a + b;
  }
}
```

- Instance variables are specific to objects, not class. Means, each objects will have independent instance variables.
 - * Because, each objects will be having different memory blocks inside the heap.
- For The reference of the object inside heap, is stored inside the stack.
- In Java, everything, which is an object, gets created inside Heap.
 - △ Ex: Array,
- Array
 - int arr[] and int[] arr
 - For These both are exactly same
 - But, int[] arr is preferable; as it shows arr is of int[] type.
 - First one i.e. int arr[] is derived from C/C++ style; which is 100% correct in Java.

```
int[] nums1 = { 1, 2, 3, 4 }; // array literal
int[] nums2 = new int[4]; // array declaration
nums2[0] = 1;
nums2[1] = 2;
nums2[2] = 3;
nums2[3] = 4;
System.out.println(x:"Nums-1 values:");
for (int val : nums1)
    System.err.println(val);

System.out.println(x:"Nums-2 values:");
for (int val : nums2)
    System.err.println(val);
```

- F These are 2 types of Array declaration.
- Both are fixed sized only.
- An non-initialized array's values will be 0.
- △ 2D Array:

- Arrays are not having dynamic sized (for dynamic size, ArrayList is used)
- But in case of 2D array, we can create an Array having different sized rows.

```
int[][] arr = new int[3][];
arr[0] = new int[2];
arr[1] = new int[3];
arr[2] = new int[4];
```

- * Just don't mention the column size while creating a 2D array and after that initialize the rows.
- * It is called <mark>jagged</mark> array.

```
int[] a;
a = new int[5];
```

- " It's just like this.
- We are creating an array of sized 3 (new int[3][]) where each value is of type int[]. After that we are initializing those.
- → Array of Objects:

```
class Student {
    int rollno;
    String name;
    int marks;
public class Demo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Student s1 = new Student();
        s1.rollno = 101;
        s1.name = "Alice";
        s1.marks = 95;
        Student s2 = new Student();
        s2.rollno = 102;
        s2.name = "Bob";
        s2.marks = 85;
        Student s3 = new Student();
        s3.rollno = 103;
        s3.name = "Charlie";
        s3.marks = 75;
        Student[] students = { s1, s2, s3 };
        for (int i = 0; i < students.length; i++) {</pre>
            Student s = students[i];
            System.out.println("Student " + s.rollno + ": " + s.name + ", " + s.marks);
```

→ Drawbacks of Array:

- You can't change the size of the array.
- \circ O(n) for searching.

Strings

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // you can define like this
    String str1 = new String(original:"Hello");
    System.out.println(str1);
    // or this; in backend it'll do the object creation
    String str2 = "World";
    System.out.println(str2);
}
```

- → When you create a string variable, one object of type String will be created in
 heap and your variable will store the reference of that object.
- One part is there inside Heap called as String Constant Pool,

Whenever you assign one string value to a variable, one <u>constant string literal</u> will get created inside that String Constant Pool and reference of that will be stored in a variable.

Lets you create String variables having same value, then both the variable will be storing the reference of same string literal as in side the String Constant Pool, all the strings stored are unique.

```
String str1 = "Hello";
String str2 = "Hello";
System.out.println(str1 == str2); // true
```

- Whenever you assign one string literal to a variable, it first checks inside the String Constant Pool;
 - if that particular literal is not present then it creates one and store its reference inside the variable.
 - * If present, if just store the reference of existing string literal in the variable.
 - For concatenation: there are the following cases:

```
String a = "hello";
// doesn't put into SCP automatically, it's stored in the heap (normal object).
String b = a + " world"; // heap object; bcs its run-time
String c = "hello world"; // SCP object
String d = "hello" + " world"; // SCP object; bcs its compile-time

System.out.println(b == c); // false
System.out.println(b == d); // false
System.out.println(c == d); // true
// b.intern() puts the string into SCP and returns the reference
System.out.println(b.intern() == c); // true
```

△ Mutable Strings:

• StringBuffer is used to create mutable strings.

```
StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();
System.out.println(sb.capacity()); // default 16
System.out.println(sb.length()); // 0

sb.append(str:"Hello");
System.out.println(sb.capacity()); // 16 (bcs length < capacity)
System.out.println(sb.length()); // 5

sb.append(str:" Welcome to Java programming"); // newCapacity = (oldCapacity*2)+2
System.out.println(sb.capacity()); // (16*2)+2 = 34 (bcs length(33) > capacity(16))
System.out.println(sb.length()); // 33

sb.append(str:" another"); // newCapacity = (oldCapacity*2)+2
System.out.println(sb.capacity()); // (34*2)+2 = 70 (bcs length(41) > capacity(34))
System.out.println(sb.length()); // 41
```

- * By default, the capacity is 16.
- If the string size exceeds the capacity, then the capacity will be increased with the formula: New Capacity = (Old Capacity) * 2 + 2
- NOTE Inside a non-static method, use of this keyword to access the instance variables is optional. (this is required in case of naming conflict; constructor is example here)

```
class Test {
    int a, b;
    static int count = 0;
    Test(int a, int b) {
        this.a = a;
        this.b = b;
        count++;
    }
    void display() {
        // both are correct below
        System.out.println("a = " + a + ", b = " + b);
        System.out.println("a = " + this.a + ", b = " + this.b);
    }
}
```

> static keyword:

- Static variables is shared among all the objects.
- Static variables are stored in the <u>Method Area</u> (a part of JVM memory), not on the Heap.
- You can call access the static variables using objects as well; but it is not preferable.
- You should access the static variables using class only
 - c ClassName.StaticVariableName

```
class Test {
    int a, b;
    static int count = 0;
    Test(int a, int b) {
        this.a = a;
        this.b = b;
        count++;
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run|Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        System.out.println("Count: " + Test.count); // 0

        Test t1 = new Test(a:5, b:10);
        System.out.println("t1: a = " + t1.a + ", b = " + t1.b); // 5, 10
        System.out.println("Count: " + Test.count); // 1

        Test t2 = new Test(a:15, b:20);
        System.out.println("t2: a = " + t2.a + ", b = " + t2.b); // 15, 20
        System.out.println("Count: " + Test.count); // 2
}
```

Example of Static Variable.

- From a static method, you can't access the instance variables. Because instance variables are specific to the objects but static method is specific to class; not objects.
 - If you want to access the instance variables, then you can pass the object as an argument to the **static method**.

```
class Test {
  int a, b;
  static int count = 0;

static void display() {
    System.out.println("Count = " + count); // correct

    // Error: non-static variable a cannot be referenced from a static context
    System.out.println("a = " + a + ", b = " + b); // wrong
}
```

class Test {
 int a, b;
 static int count = 0;

 static void display(Test t) {
 System.out.println("Count = " + count); // correct

 System.out.println("a = " + t.a + ", b = " + t.b); // correct
}

- Now it is correct.
- If you create any variable inside a static method, then after the method is executed then the variable will be gone.

> Static Block

- Whenever you instantiate a object with a class, then first the class gets loaded then the object will be created.
 - If you are instantiating more than one object with a single class, then loading of class will happen only once.
 - * When the first object will be created, class will be loaded;
 - after that when 2^{nd} object will be created, it sees the class is already loaded; so now only object creation will happen.
 - There is a static block, where you can assign values to the static variables.
 This block gets called when the class is loaded.
 - It means, even if you are creating **n** number of objects **(or)** you call any static method of that class **n** times, **static block** will be executed only once.

* If there is no object getting created, then static block will not be executed.

```
class Test {
   int a;
   static int count;
   static {
      count = 5;
      System.out.println(x:"Static block called");
   }

public Test(int a) {
      this.a = a;
      System.out.println(x:"Constructor called");
   }

public static void statMethod() {
      System.out.println(x:"Static method called");
   }
}
```

* This is the class having static block.

```
public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Test t1 = new Test(a:10);
        Test t2 = new Test(a:20);
    }
}
alokr@Alok MINGW64

$ java Demo
Static block called
Constructor called
Constructor called
```

* Because, class was loaded only once.

Because, as no object was created; so class loading didn't happen.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   Test.statMethod();
   Test.statMethod();
   Test.statMethod();
}

Test.statMethod();

Test.statMethod();

Test.statMethod();

Test.statMethod();

Static method called
```

Because, only during the first static method call, class was loaded.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   Test.statMethod();
   Test t1 = new Test(a:5);
   Test t2 = new Test(a:10);
}

alokr@Alok MINGW64 /
$ java Demo
Static block called
Static method called
Constructor called
Constructor called
```

- * When static method got called, class was loaded; so while instantiating objects, it didn't require to load the class.
- If you want to load the class even if no static method got called or no object got instantiated; then you can use Class.forName
 - * It load the class to the memory using class loader.

Encapsulation:

```
class Test {
    private int age = 21;
    private String name = "Alok";

    public void setAge(int age) {
        this.age = age;
    }

    public void setName(String name) {
        this.name = name;
    }

    public int getAge() {
        return age;
    }

    public String getName() {
        return name;
    }
}
```

- You can set the access parameters of the variables and add getter and setter methods for those.
- If you don't specify any access modifier, then by default it'll be package-private.

 (neither private nor public not protected) (its valid for class, method, variables inside class).

Constructor

- △ 2 types of constructors are there:
 - Default constructor
 - Paremeterized constructor
- △ You can define more than one constructors;
- constructor name will be same as the name of class; it'll not have any return type.
- All the constructor you define will come under the method overloading concept.

```
class Test {
   private int age;
   private String name;
   // default/normal constructor
   public Test() {
       this.age = 12;
       this.name = "Alok";
   public Test(int age) {
       this.age = age;
       this.name = "Alok";
   public Test(String name) {
       this.age = 12;
       this.name = name;
   public Test(int age, String name) {
       this.age = age;
       this.name = name;
```

Naming Conventions

△ Class, Interfaces : Pascal case (MyClass)

△ Variables, Methods: Camel case (myVar)

△ Constants : All capital (MY_CONST)

Anonymous Object

△ It is just creating a object but not assigning it to any variable.

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    // these are anonymous objects
    new Test().display();
    new Test(age:15).display();
}
```

> Inheritance

△ Single Level Inheritance:

```
public class Calc {{
    public int add(int a, int b) {
        return a + b;
    }

    public int sub(int a, int b) {
        return a - b;
    }
}
```

public class AdvCalc extends Calc {
 public int mul(int a, int b) {
 return a * b;
 }
 public int div(int a, int b) {
 return a / b;
 }
}

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   AdvCalc obj = new AdvCalc();
   int r1 = obj.add(a:10, b:20);
   int r2 = obj.sub(a:20, b:10);
   int r3 = obj.mul(a:10, b:20);
   int r4 = obj.div(a:20, b:10);

   System.out.println("Addition: " + r1);
   System.out.println("Subtraction: " + r2);
   System.out.println("Multiplication: " + r3);
   System.out.println("Division: " + r4);
}
```

alokr@Alok MINGW64 , \$ java Demo Addition: 30 Subtraction: 10 Multiplication: 200 Division: 2

Multi Level Inheritance

```
public class VeryAdvCalc extends AdvCalc {
    public double power(int a, int b) {
        return Math.pow(a, b);
    }
}
```

- Now: VeryAdvCalc >> AdvCalc >> Calc
- △ Multiple Inheritance
 - Java doesn't support multiple inheritance.

> super method

- super is nothing but the alias of parent class's constructor.
 - When you write **super()**, it'll call the parent class's default (non-parameterized) constructor.

A When a class inherits another class, even if you don't write **super()** inside the constructor of the child class, java executes **super()** by default.

```
class A {
    public A() {
        System.out.println(x:"in A.");
    }
}

class B extends A {
    public B() {
        System.out.println(x:"in B.");
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B obj = new B();
    }
}
alokr@Alok MIN
$ java Demo
in A.
in B.
```

```
class A {
   public A() {
       System.out.println(x:"in A.");
   }
}

class B extends A {
   public B() {
       super(); // it is there by default
       System.out.println(x:"in B.");
   }
}

public class Demo {
   Run | Debug
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       B obj = new B();
   }
}

alokr@Alok M
$ java Demo
in A.
in B.
```

- Both the above cases are same.
- Even if you don't call super() it'll be called by default.
- If there is only a parameterized constructor in the parent class, and if you don't write super(arg), then it'll give error.
 - Because, by default Java will call the parent's constructor as super() only i.e. it'll call only the default constructor (non-parameterized).

As there is only one constructor present in parent class, which is parameterized; calling super() in the child class will give error.

```
class A {
    public A(int n) {
        System.out.println("in A int" + n);
    }
}

class B extends A {
    public B() {
        // here by default super() will be called
        System.out.println(x:"in B.");
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B obj = new B();
    }
}

alokr@Alok MINGW64 /c/my
$ javac Demo.java
Demo.java:8: error: cons
    public B() {
        required: int
        found: no arguments
        reason: actual and for
1 error
```

In this case, you need to call the parent's parameterized constructor explicitly.

> this method

this refers to the current object instance; when you call this() it'll call the current class's constructor.

```
class A {
   public A() {
       System.out.println(x:"in A");
   }

   public A(int n) {
       System.out.println("in A int: " + n);
   }
}

public class Demo {
   Run | Debug
   public static void main(String[] args) {
       A obj = new A(n:5);
   }
}
alokr@Alok {
   $ java Demo in A int: 5
```

Here, by default the parameterized constructor got called as we passed one argument while instantiating the object.

م

```
class A {
    public A() {
        System.out.println(x:"in A");
    }

    public A(int n) {
        this(); // call default constructor of A
        System.out.println("in A int: " + n);
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new A(n:5);
    }
}
alokr@Alok M
$ java Demo
in A
in A int: 5
```

Now, as we called this() inside the parameterized constructor, so its calling the default constructor inside the class.

> Method Overriding

- When child class implements same method which is present in the parent's class as well; its called Method Overriding.
- Same name, same type of arguments, same number of arguments, same return

 type; just different definition. (unlike method overloading: name/type/number of args/return type => one or more of these should be different)

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In A's show");
    }
}

class B extends A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In B's show");
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new A();
        B b = new B();
        a.show(); // Calls A's show
        b.show(); // Calls B's show
    }
}

alokr@Alok N
    $ java Demo
    In A's show
    In B's show
```

For Its simple only; B's show function is overriding A's show function.

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In A's show");
class B extends A {
    public void show() {
        super.show(); // Calls A's show
        System.out.println(x:"In B's show");
public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A = new A();
        B b = new B();
                                               alokr@Alok M
        a.show();
                                                 java Demo
        System.out.println(x:"----");
        b.show();
                                               In A's show
                                                 B's show
```

- In here, I tried to implement some extra functionality inside the show() method. Not completely overriding A's show method.
- Whenever you call a method, it'll search that method in the current class first; if it doesn't get that then it'll go to the parent class.

> Packages

Some related files should be separated and kept inside a folder. This folder will be treated as a package; but you need to mention the package name inside the files.

```
practical
Demo.java
tools
AdvCalc.java
Calc.java
```

 It is my current directory structure; I kept Calculator related stuffs inside the tools directory

```
J Calc.java U J AdvCalc.java U X J Demo.

tools > J AdvCalc.java > {} tools

package tools; // gave package name

public class AdvCalc extends Calc {

public int mul(int a. int b) {
```

Gave the package name as tools in both Calc.java and AdvCalc.java

Now, we can't use the classes (i.e. Calc and AdvCalc) inside the main method inside Demo class directly as both are now inside different folders.

```
Demo.java M X

Demo.java > ② Demo > ② main(String[])

import tools.Calc;

import tools.AdvCalc;

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args

Calc calc = new Calc();

AdvCalc advCalc = new AdvCalc();
```

Instead of importing the modules one by one; we can import all the modules present inside that package directly using *

Now lets see nested package structure:

I transferred AdvCalc.java inside a new directory adv.

```
AdvCalc.java U X

ols > adv > J AdvCalc.java > ...

1  package tools.adv; // gave package name

2  import tools.Calc; // required as Calc is in different package

4  public class AdvCalc extends Calc {
```

Now we need to import Calc as well as it is in different package now.

```
J Demo.java 2, M X

J Demo.java > ...

import tools.*;

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug

public static void main(String[] args) {
    Calc calc = new Calc();
    AdvCalc advCalc = new AdvCalc();
}
```

- Here you can see, I have imported tools.* still getting error in AdvCalc.
- * It is because, packageName.* only imports the files present inside that package; in our case inside tools one more package is present which is adv.
- So here, tools.* is only importing the Calc file. Its not importing tools/adv/AdvCalc file.

```
Demo.java M X

Demo.java > ...

import tools.*;

import tools.adv.*;;

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug

public static void main(String[] args) {
    Calc calc = new Calc();

AdvCalc advCalc = new AdvCalc();
```

- Now it'll work properly.
- You can't give different package names to the files which are siblings to each other i.e. present inside the same folder.

> Access Modifiers

When you don't give any access modifiers, it'll be default which is packageprivate i.e. only the files present in same package can access those.

```
-practical
Demo.java
pkg
A.java
B.java
```

(This is my file structure for now)

```
emo.java 2, M J A.java U J B.java U X

> J B.java > ...

package pkg;

public class B {

int bval = 5;
}
```

* (practical/pkg/B.java)

```
package pkg;

public class A {
    int aval = 10;

    public void random() {
        B b = new B();
        System.out.println("B's value: " + b.bval);
    }
}
```

- * (practical/pkg/A.java)
- You can see here, there is no error while accessing the variable of class B.

```
import pkg.*;

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new A();
        B b = new B();
        System.out.println("A's value: " + a.aval);
        System.out.println("B's value: " + b.bval);
}
```

- * (practical/Demo.java)
- * Here, error is coming as Demo.java is not inside the package of A and B.

→ Public

• It is accessible in everywhere; Within the class, Child class, Classes present inside same package, Classes present in different package etc etc.

→ Private

For It is accessible only within the class. No where else it is accessible.

△ Protected (IMPORTANT)

- Within the same package (just like default/package-private).
- From subclasses in other packages (extra power over default).

```
J B.java > ...
package pkg;

public class B {
    protected int bval = 5;
}
```

" (practical/pkg/B.java)

```
package pkg;

public class A {
   int aval = 10;

   public void random() {
        B b = new B();
        System.out.println("B's value: " + b.bval);
   }
}
```

- * (practical/pkg/A.java)
- * No error because A and B are inside the same package.

```
import pkg.*;

class C extends B {
    void show() {
        System.out.println("B's value from C: " + bval);
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new A();
        B b = new B();
        System.out.println("A's value: " + a.aval);
        System.out.println("B's value: " + b.bval);
    }
}
```

- * (practical/Demo.java)
- * Class C doesn't give any error as it is inheriting Class B
- But, inside Class Demo it is giving error because neither it is inheriting those classes not it is present inside the same package where A and B are present.
- Protected and Package-Default varies in a single case which is:

- In case of **Protected**, class X present outside of the package, if inheriting the class Y then it can access that protected variable of class Y.
- In case of Package-Private, even if the class X is inheriting class Y but not present inside the package of Y, then it can't access the variabled of Y.
- We can't have 2 public classes in a same file.

Polymorphism

- △ 2 types of polymorphism:
 - c Compile time (Method Overloading)
 - Run time (Method Overriding)

Dynamic Method Dispatch

Assigning a object of child class to a variable of type parent class (vice-versa is not true).

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"A show");
class B extends A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"B show");
public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new A();
        obj.show();
                                                alokr@Alok M
        obj = new B();
                                                 java Demo
        obj.show();
                                                 show
                                                 show
```

- · Here, the variable is of type A (parent class).
- During the compile time, it is not sure that which show method will be called. It'll be decided during the run time only.

The method, that will be called, depends upon the type of object, not type of variable. (it is only for overriding; for more check Upcasting and Downcasting)

Final Keyword

- Its used to create a constant variable.
- A Can be used to create variable, method, class

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
    final int num = 10;
    num = 9; // error: cannot assign a value to final variable num
}
```

- م class
 - When you make your class final, means you are stopping further inheritance.

```
final class A {
   public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In A's show");
   }
}
class B extends A { // error: class A is final and cannot be extended
}
```


When you make the method final, means this method cannot be overridden.

```
class A {
    final public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"In A's show");
    }
}

class B extends A {
    public void show() { // error: cannot override final method
        System.out.println(x:"In B's show");
    }
}
```

> By default, every classes inherits the class **Object**.

```
// class A {
// }
class A extends Object {
}
```

For These both are same only.

Some methods inside Object Class (toString, equals, hashcode)

```
class Test {
    String name = "Alok";
    int age = 23;
}

public class Demo {
    Run|Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Test obj = new Test();
        System.out.println(obj);
    }

}

alokr@Alok MIN
$ java Demo
Test@28a418fc
```

When I printed this object of class Test, it gave some output like this.

```
public String toString() {
    return getClass().getName() + "@" + Integer.toHexString(hashCode());
}
```

- Factorized That output is because of this method present inside the class Object
- We can modify that.

```
class Test extends Object {
    String name = "Alok";
    int age = 23;

    public String toString() {
        return "Name: " + name + ", Age: " + age;
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Test obj = new Test();
        System.out.println(obj);
    }
}
alokr@Alok MINGW64

$ java Demo
Name: Alok, Age: 23
```

```
class Test extends Object {
   String name = "Alok";
   int age = 23;

   public String toString() {
      return "Name: " + name + ", Age: " + age;
   }
}

public class Demo {
   Run | Debug
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      Test obj1 = new Test();
      Test obj2 = new Test();
      System.out.println(obj1 == obj2);
   }
}

alokr@Alok M
$ java Demo
false
```

 Now, it is giving false; it is because of the method equals present inside the class Object

```
public boolean equals(Object obj) {
    return (this == obj);
}

class Test {
    String name = "Alok";
    int age = 23;

    public boolean equals(Test that) {
        return this.name.equals(that.name) && this.age == that.age;
    }
}

public class Demo {
    Run|Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Test obj1 = new Test();
        Test obj2 = new Test();
        System.out.println(obj1.equals(obj2));
    }
}

alokr@Alogs

java Demonstration

alokr@Alogs

alokr@Alogs

java Demonstration

alokr@Alogs

al
```

Upcasting and Downcasting

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class A");
    public void showA() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class A - showA");
class B extends A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class B");
    public void showB() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class B - showB");
public class Demo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new B(); // Upcasting
        // A obj = (A) new B(); // Explicit Upcasting - same as above
        obj.show(); // Calls B's show method
        obj.showB(); // Compile-time error: method not found in A
```

- In here, even if the object is of type B, still you cannot call the method showB as the variable where it is getting stored is of type A.
- In case of overriding, the method was present on A as well, so it just got overridden; but **showB** was not inside A; it is a completely new method for A; so it cannot be called.
- It is **Upcasting**; assigning object of type Child to the variable of type Parent.

```
class A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class A");
    public void showA() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class A - showA");
class B extends A {
    public void show() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class B");
    public void showB() {
        System.out.println(x:"Inside class B - showB");
public class Demo {
    Run | Debug
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A obj = new B(); // Upcasting
        // A obj = (A) new B(); // Explicit Upcasting - same as above
        obj.show(); // Calls B's show method
        B obj1 = (B) obj; // Downcasting
        obj1.showA(); // Calls A's showA method
        obj1.showB(); // Calls B's showB method
```

- F It'll work fine.
- We assigned the **obj** (which was of type **A**) to a variable of type **B**, but you need to explicitly **Downcast** this otherwise it'll give error.
- As **B** is the child class, so it can access both **showA** and **showB**.

Wrapper Class

- For all primitive type, there is a **Object** wrapper present in java.
- △ For example: Integer, Double ..etc

```
public class Demo {
   Run|Debug
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      int num1 = 7;

      Integer num2 = 9;
      // Autoboxing: converting primitive to wrapper class directly

      int num3 = num2.intValue();
      // Unboxing: getting the int value from Integer object

      int num4 = num2;
      // auto-unboxing: converting wrapper class to primitive directly

      String str = "123";
      int num5 = Integer.parseInt(str);
      System.out.println(num5);
   }
}
```