

Module 61CSE215: Object-oriented Programming with Java

4. Object – Class – Method

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Content

- Class
- Object
- Method

Object

- An **entity** that has state and behavior is known as an object
- It can be **physical** (tangible) or **logical** (intangible).
 - Examples of tangible objects are person, chair, bike, marker, table.
 - An example of an intangible object is the banking system.

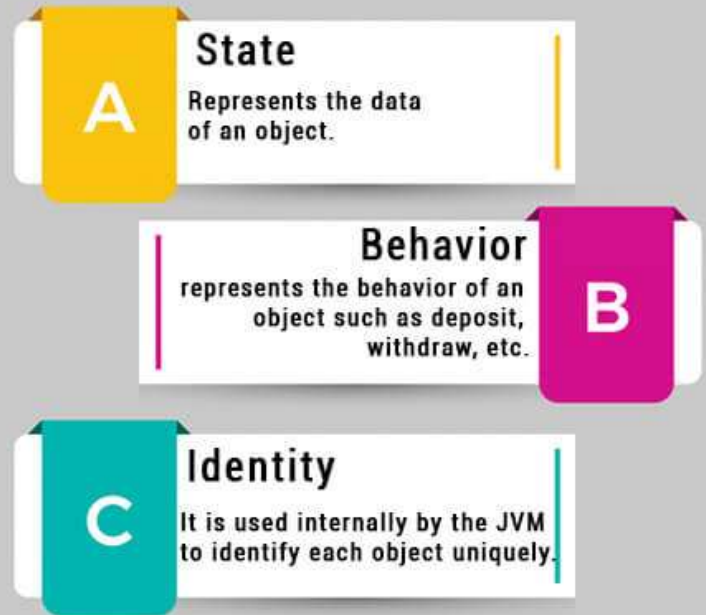
Object

- An object has three characteristics: **state**, **behavior** and **identity**.
- E.g., dog is an object.



- **States:** Dog has **name** Pie, her **breed** is Corgi, her **size** is small, her **color** is red and white and she is 1 year old.
- **Behaviors:** eat, sleep, sit, run.

Characteristics of Object



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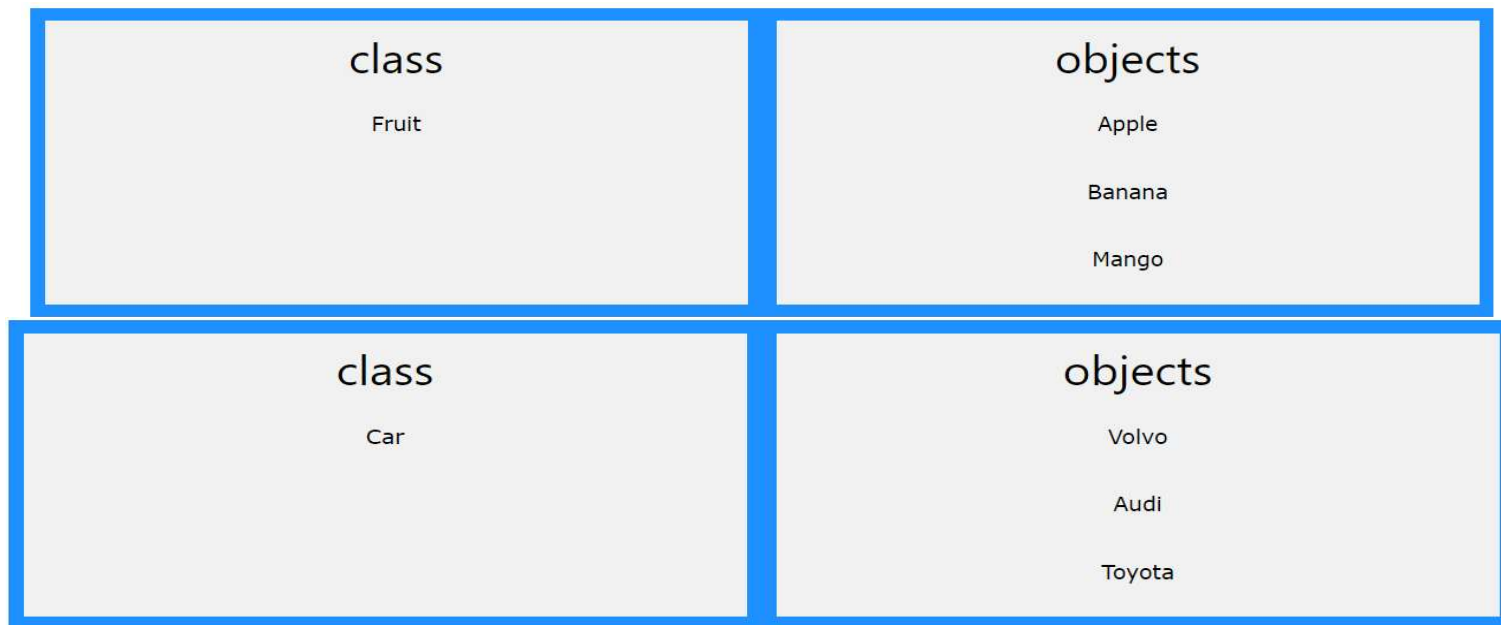
Class

- A **class** is a template or blueprint from which objects are created.
- **Class** is a basic concept of OOP which revolve around the real-life entities.
- **Class** in Java determines how an object will behave and what the object will contain.
- Syntax

```
class <class_name>{  
    fields;  
    methods;  
}
```

Class vs Object

- A class is a template for objects, and an object is an instance of a class. Or, a class is a logical construct; an object has physical reality.
- When the individual objects are created, they inherit all the variables and methods from the class.



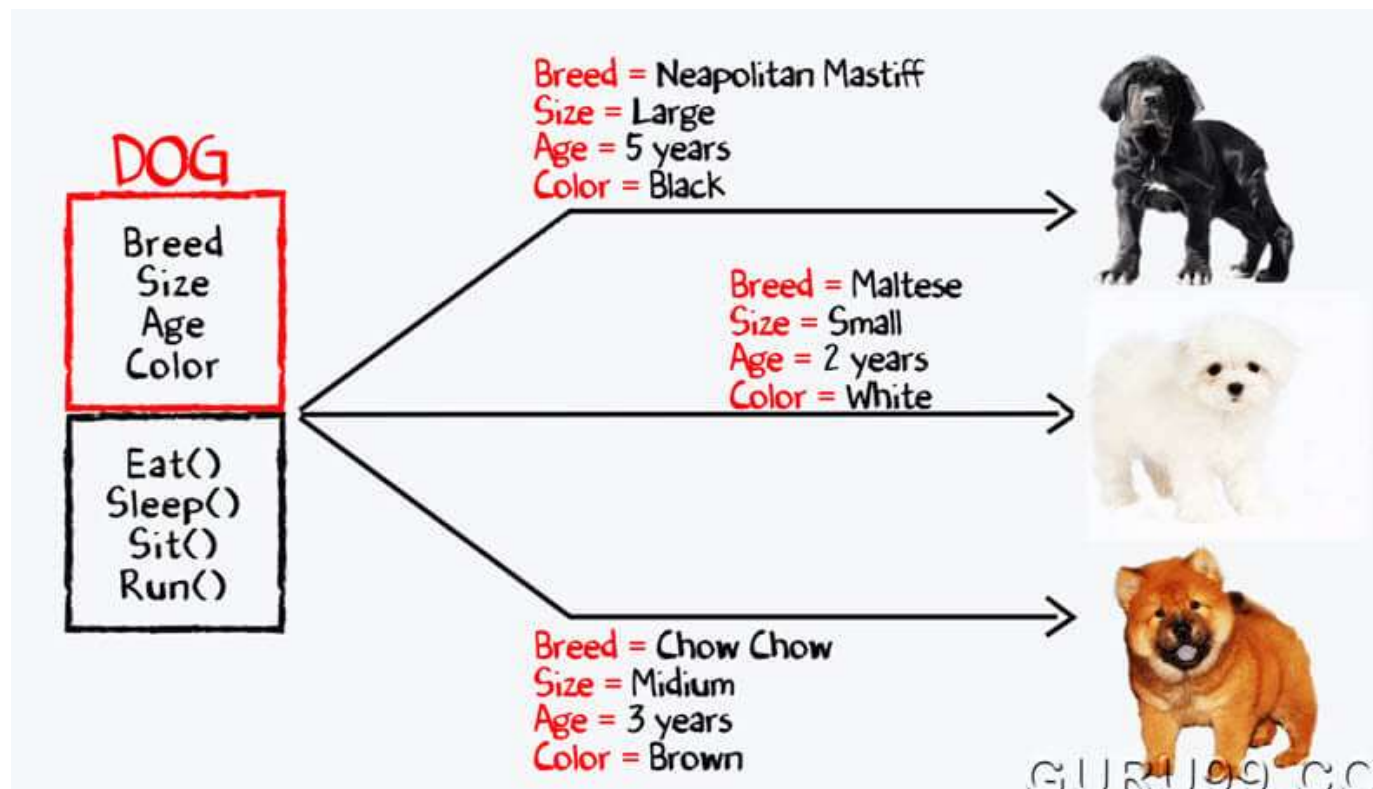
Class vs Object

- **Object** is an instance of a class.
- Syntax to declare an object.

ClassName *ReferenceVariable* = *new* *ClassName*();

- To create an object:
 - Defining a **class** describing the common features of all objects in the same classification of the requested object.
 - Declaring the **object** with the defined class.

Example



Class

- The class is the logical construct upon which the entire Java language is built because it defines the shape and nature of an object.
- The class forms the basis for object-oriented programming in Java.
- Any concept you wish to implement in a Java program must be encapsulated within a class.

Class & Object

- **Class** defines a **new data type**.
- These new types can be used to create **objects** of that type.
- A **class** is a **template** for an **object**, and an object is an **instance** of a class.
- As **an object is an instance of a class**, you will often see the two words **object** and **instance** used interchangeably.

General Form of a Class

- To define a **class**, specifying the **data** (attributes/variables) and the **code** (methods/functions) that operates on that data.
- Some simple classes contain code **or** data, most real-world classes contain **both**.
- As you will see, a class' **code** defines the **interface** to its **data**.

Class

- The **data**, or **variables**, defined within a class are called **instance variables**.
 - **Data** for one **object** is separate and unique from the data for another.
- The **code** is contained within **methods**.

```

class classname {
    type instance-variable1;
    type instance-variable2;
    // ...
    type instance-variableN;

    type methodname1(parameter-list) {
        // body of method
    }
    type methodname2(parameter-list) {
        // body of method
    }
    // ...
    type methodnameN(parameter-list) {
        // body of method
    }
}

```

Class

- The **methods** and **variables** defined within a **class** are called **members** of the class.
- The **instance variables** are acted upon and accessed by the **methods** defined for that class.
- **Data** for one **object** is separate and unique from the data for another.
- Most **methods** will not be specified as **static** or **public**.

A Simple Class

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
}
```

- A **class** defines a **new type of data** called **Box**.
- Use this name to declare **objects** of type **Box**.

```
public class BoxDemo {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Box mybox = new Box();  
    }  
}
```

Declaring Objects

- To obtain **objects** of a **class** is a two-step process.
 - First, you must declare a variable of the class type.
 - Second, you must acquire an actual, physical copy of the object and assign it to that variable, using the **new** operator.
 - E.g.:

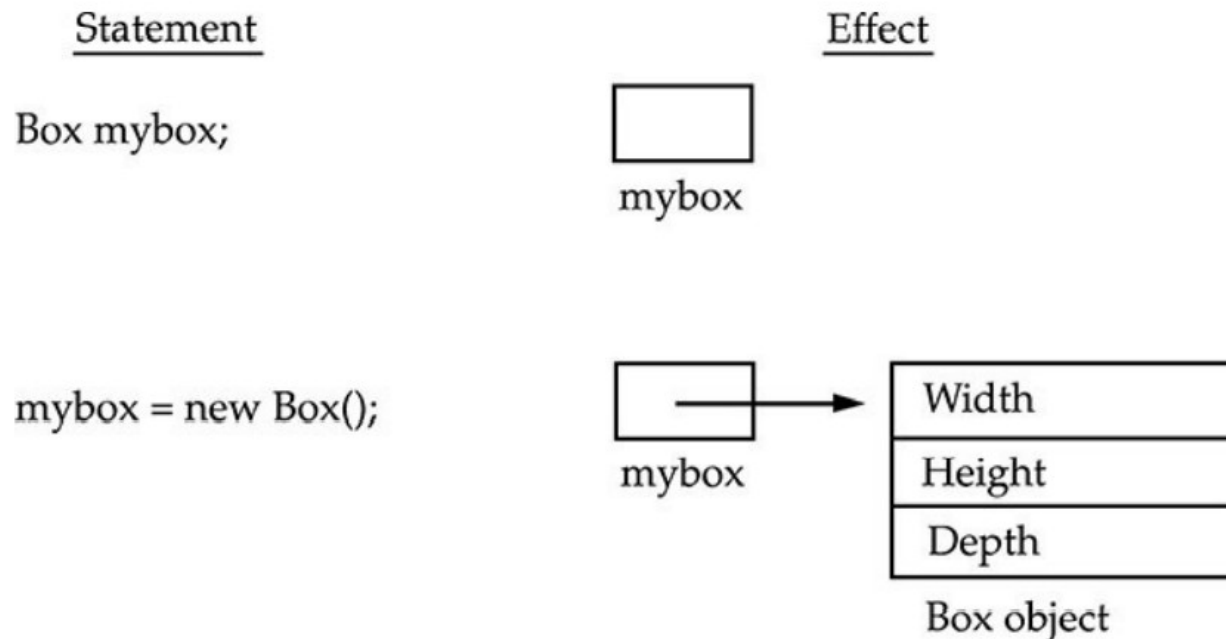
```
Box mybox = new Box();
```

Or

```
Box mybox; // declare reference to object  
mybox = new Box(); // allocate a Box object
```

Declaring Objects

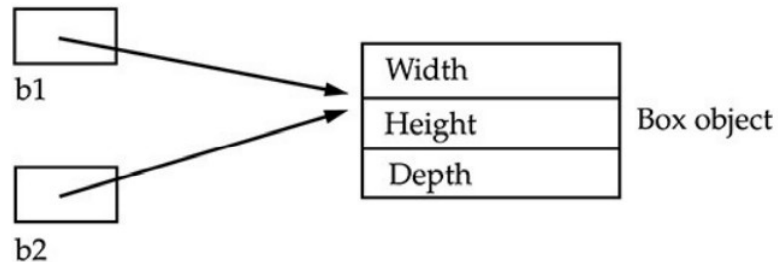
- The **new** operator dynamically allocates memory for an object and returns a reference to it. This reference is the address in memory of the object. This reference is then stored in the variable.



Assigning Object Reference Variables

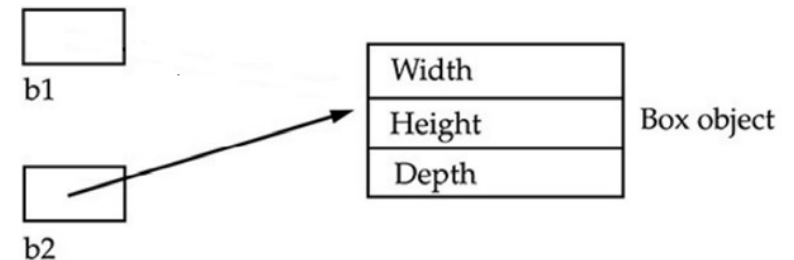
```
Box b1 = new Box();  
Box b2 = b1;
```

- b1 and b2 will both refer to the same object.



```
Box b1 = new Box();  
Box b2 = b1;  
b1 = null;
```

- b1 has been set to null, but b2 still points to the original object.



Variable/Method Access

- Every **Box** object contains its own copies of the instance variables **width**, **height**, and **depth**.
- To access these variables or methods, use the dot (.) operator. The operator '.' links the name of the object with the name of an instance variable/method.
- E.g., `mybox.width = 10;` // to assign the width variable of mybox the value 100

Class BoxDemo

```
//This class declares an object of type Box
public class BoxDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Box mybox = new Box();
        double vol;

        mybox.width = 10;
        mybox.height = 20;
        mybox.depth = 15;

        vol = mybox.width * mybox.height * mybox.depth;

        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
    }
}
```

Class

- **Remarks**

- Call the file that contains this program `BoxDemo.java`, because the `main()` method is in the class `BoxDemo` (not the class called `Box`).
- When compiling this program, you will find that two `.class` files have been created, one for `Box` and one for `BoxDemo`.
- The Java compiler automatically puts each class into its own `.class` file. It is not necessary for both the `Box` and the `BoxDemo` class to be in the same source file. Each class is in different file, called `Box.java` and `BoxDemo.java`.
- To run this program, you must execute `BoxDemo.class`.

Output: Volume is 3000.0

Class BoxDemo2

- `mybox1`'s data is completely separate from the data contained in `mybox2`

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
Volume is 3000.0
Volume is 162.0
```

```
/**
 * This program declares two Box objects.
 */
public class BoxDemo2 {

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Box mybox1 = new Box();
        Box mybox2 = new Box();
        double vol;

        mybox1.width = 10;
        mybox1.height = 20;
        mybox1.depth = 15;

        mybox2.width = 3;
        mybox2.height = 6;
        mybox2.depth = 9;

        vol = mybox1.width * mybox1.height * mybox1.depth;
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

        vol = mybox2.width * mybox2.height * mybox2.depth;
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
    }
}
```

Methods

- Use methods to access the instance variables defined by the **class**.
- General form of a method:

```
type name(parameter-list) {  
    // body of method  
    type value;  
    //...  
    return value; //void method doesn't have this  
}
```

- **type** specifies the type of data returned by the method.
- This can be any valid type, including **class** types that you create.
- If the method does not return a value, its return type must be **void**.

Returning a Value

```

class Box {
    double width;
    double height;
    double depth;

    void volume() {
        System.out.print("Volume is ");
        System.out.println(width * height *
            depth);
    }
}

/* This program includes a method inside
the box class.
*/
public class BoxDemo3 {

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Box mybox1 = new Box();
        Box mybox2 = new Box();

        mybox1.width = 10;
        mybox1.height = 20;
        mybox1.depth = 15;

        mybox2.width = 3;
        mybox2.height = 6;
        mybox2.depth = 9;

        mybox1.volume();

        mybox2.volume();
    }
}

```

Returning a Value

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
  
    double computeVolume() {  
        return width * height * depth;  
    }  
}
```

```
public class BoxDemo4 {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Box mybox1 = new Box();  
        Box mybox2 = new Box();  
        double vol;  
  
        mybox1.width = 10;  
        mybox1.height = 20;  
        mybox1.depth = 15;  
  
        mybox2.width = 3;  
        mybox2.height = 6;  
        mybox2.depth = 9;  
  
        vol = mybox1.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
  
        vol = mybox2.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
    }  
}
```


Returning a Value

- The **type** of data returned by a method **must be compatible** with the **return type** specified by the method.
 - E.g., if the return type of some method is **boolean**, you could not return an **integer**.
- The **variable** receiving the value returned by a method must also be compatible with the **return type** specified for the method.

Returning a Value

- The underlined statement in slide 19 can be rewritten more efficiently without the `vol` variable:

```
System.out.println("Volume is" + mybox1.volume());
```

Adding a Method That Takes Parameters

```
int square() {  
    return 10 * 10;  
}
```

- Parameters allow a method to be generalized.

```
int square(int i) {  
    return i * i;  
}
```

- From `main()`

```
int x, y;  
x = square(5); // x equals 25  
x = square(9); // x equals 81  
y = 2;  
x = square(y); // x equals 4
```

- A **parameter** is a variable defined by a method that receives a value when the method is called. E.g., in `square()`, `i` is a parameter.
- An **argument** is a value that is passed to a method when it is invoked. E.g., `square(100)` passes `100` as an argument

Parameterized Method

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
  
    double computeVolume() {  
        return width * height * depth;  
    }  
  
    void setDim(double w, double h, double d) {  
        width = w;  
        height = h;  
        depth = d;  
    }  
}
```

```
public class BoxDemo5 {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Box mybox1 = new Box();  
        Box mybox2 = new Box();  
        double vol;  
  
        mybox1.setDim(10, 20, 15);  
        mybox2.setDim(3, 6, 9);  
  
        vol = mybox1.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
  
        vol = mybox2.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
    }  
}
```

Constructors

- A constructor initializes an object immediately upon creation.
- It **has the same name as the class** in which it resides and is syntactically similar to a method.
- Once defined, the constructor is automatically called when the object is created, before the new operator completes.
- Constructors have **no return type**, not even void. This is because the implicit return type of a class' constructor is the class type itself.
- Its job is to **initialize the internal state of an object** so that the code creating an instance will have a fully initialized, usable object immediately.

Constructors

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
  
    Box() {  
        System.out.println("Constructing Box");  
        width = 10;  
        height = 10;  
        depth = 10;  
    }  
  
    double computeVolume() {  
        return width * height * depth;  
    }  
}
```

Parameterized Constructors

- The `Box()` constructor initializes all boxes with the **same predetermined** dimensions.
 - ➔ Each object can be initialized by specifying in the parameters to its constructor.
- E.g.: to construct `Box` objects of various dimensions, we set the parameters in the input of the constructor.

Parameterized Constructors

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
  
    Box() {  
        System.out.println("Constructing Box");  
        width = 10;  
        height = 10;  
        depth = 10;  
    }  
}
```

```
Box(double w, double h, double d) {  
    width = w;  
    height = h;  
    depth = d;  
}
```

```
double computeVolume() {  
    return width * height * depth;  
}
```


Parameterized Constructors

```
/*
 * Box uses a parameterized constructor to initialize the dimensions of a box.
 */
public class BoxDemo7 {

    public static void main(String[] args) {

        Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);
        Box mybox2 = new Box(3, 6, 9);

        double vol;

        vol = mybox1.computeVolume();
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);

        vol = mybox2.computeVolume();
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
    }
}
```

Parameterized Constructors

```
/*  
 * Box uses a parameterized constructor to initialize the dimensions of a box.  
 */  
public class BoxDemo7 {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
  
        Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);  
        Box mybox2 = new Box(3, 6, 9);  
  
        double vol;  
  
        vol = mybox1.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
  
        vol = mybox2.computeVolume();  
        System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);  
    }  
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
Volume is 3000.0  
Volume is 162.0
```

The `this` Keyword

- `this` can be used inside any method to refer to the current object on which the method was invoked.

```
Box(double width, double height, double depth) {  
    this.width = width;  
    this.height = height;  
    this.depth = depth;  
}
```

- The use of `this` is redundant but correct.

The `this` Keyword

Instance Variable Hiding

- It is **illegal** in Java to declare **two** local variables with the same name **inside the same or enclosing scopes**.
- A local variable has the same name as an instance variable, the local variable **hides** the instance variable.
- In example (slide 29), the function **Box()** uses width, height, and depth for **parameter names**, and uses **this** to access the **instance variables** by the same name.

Garbage Collection

- In C++, dynamically allocated objects must be **manually** released by use of a `delete` operator.
- Java takes a different approach; it handles deallocation for you **automatically**.
 - The Java runtime environment has a **garbage collector** that periodically frees the memory used by objects that are no longer referenced.

A Stack Class

- Is an example of encapsulation.
- A stack stores data using first-in, last-out ordering.
- Implements a stack for up to ten integers:

A Stack Class

```
class Stack {
    int stck[] = new int[10];
    int tos; //top of stack

    Stack() {
        tos = -1;
    }

    void push(int item) {
        if (tos == 9) {
            System.out.println("Stack is full.");
        } else {
            stck[++tos] = item;
        }
    }

    int pop() {
        if (tos < 0) {
            System.out.println("Stack underflow.");
            return 0;
        } else {
            return stck[tos--];
        }
    }
}
```

A Stack Class

```
public class TestStack {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Stack mystack1 = new Stack();  
        Stack mystack2 = new Stack();  
  
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
            mystack1.push(i);  
        for (int i = 10; i < 20; i++)  
            mystack2.push(i);  
  
        System.out.println("Stack in mystack1:");  
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
            System.out.println(mystack1.pop());  
  
        System.out.println("Stack in mystack2:");  
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
            System.out.println(mystack2.pop());  
    }  
}
```


A Stack Class

```
public class TestStack {
```

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

```
        Stack mystack1 = new Stack(10);
```

```
        Stack mystack2 = new Stack(10);
```

```
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```

```
            mystack1.push(i);
```

```
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```

```
            mystack2.push(i);
```

```
        System.out.println("Stack in mystack1:");
```

```
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```

```
            System.out.print(mystack1.pop() + " ");
```

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

```
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```

```
            System.out.print(mystack2.pop() + " ");
```

```
    }
```

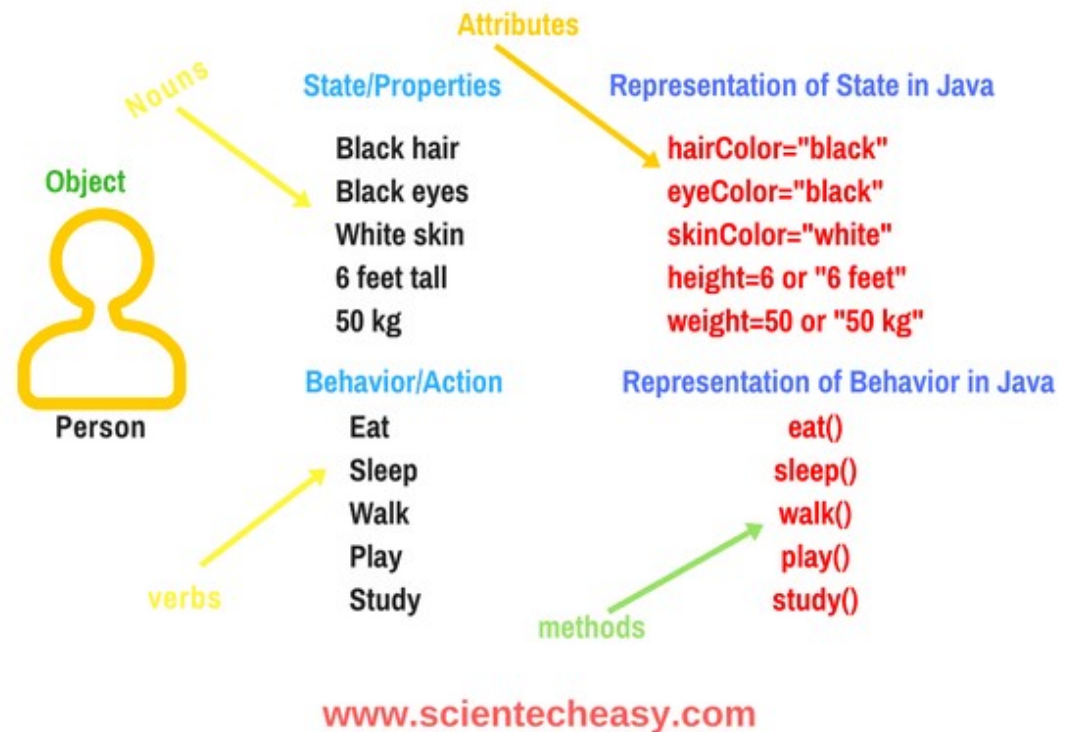
```
}
```

This program generates the following output:

Stack in mystack1:	Stack in mystack2:
9	19
8	18
7	17
6	16
5	15
4	14
3	13
2	12
1	11
0	10

Exercise

See the figure below and create class `Person` and declare 4 objects which describe your 4 colleagues.



Take a close look at Methods and Classes...

Overloading Methods

- 2 or more methods within the same class that share the same name, as long as their parameter declarations are different.
- Method overloading is one of the ways that Java supports polymorphism.
- Overloaded methods must differ in the type and/or number of their parameters.
- While overloaded methods may have different return types, the return type alone is insufficient to distinguish two versions of a method.
- When Java encounters a call to an overloaded method, it simply executes the version of the method whose parameters match the arguments used in the call. Java uses the type and/or number of arguments as its guide to determine which version of the overloaded method to actually call.

Overloading Methods

```
class OverloadDemo {  
    void test() {  
        System.out.println("No parameters");  
    }  
  
    void test(int a) {  
        System.out.println("a: " + a);  
    }  
  
    void test(int a, int b) {  
        System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);  
    }  
  
    double test(double a) {  
        System.out.println("double a: " + a);  
        return a * a;  
    }  
}
```

Overloading Methods

```

class OverloadDemo {
    void test() {
        System.out.println("No param");
    }

    void test(int a) {
        System.out.println("a: " + a);
    }

    void test(int a, int b) {
        System.out.println("a and b");
    }

    double test(double a) {
        System.out.println("double a");
        return a * a;
    }
}

```

```

/**
 * Demonstrate method overloading.
 */
public class Overload {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        OverloadDemo ob = new OverloadDemo();
        double result;

        ob.test();
        ob.test(10);
        ob.test(10, 20);
        result = ob.test(123.25);
        System.out.println("Result of
ob.test(123.25): " + result);
    }
}

```

Overloading Methods

```

class OverloadDemo {
    void test() {
        System.out.println("No parameters");
    }

    void test(int a) {
        System.out.println("a: " + a);
    }

    void test(int a, int b) {
        System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);
    }

    double test(double a) {
        System.out.println("double a: " + a);
        return a * a;
    }
}

```

This program generates the following output:

```

/**
 * Demo of method overloading
 */
public class OverloadDemo {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Ob ob = new Ob();
        ob.test();
        ob.test(10);
        ob.test(10, 20);
        double result = ob.test(123.25);
        System.out.println("Result of ob.test(123.25): " + result);
    }
}

```

No parameters
 a: 10
 a and b: 10 20
 double a: 123.25
 Result of ob.test(123.25): 15190.5625

Overloading Methods

- Java will employ its **automatic type conversions only if no exact match is found.**

```
class OverloadDemo {  
    void test() {  
        System.out.println("No parameters");  
    }  
  
    void test(int a, int b) {  
        System.out.println("a: " + a);  
    }  
  
    double test(double a) {  
        System.out.println("Inside test (double) a: " + a);  
        return a * a;  
    }  
}
```


Overloading Methods

```
class OverloadDemo {  
    void test() {  
        System.out.println("No parameters");  
    }  
  
    void test(int a, int b) {  
        System.out.println("a:  
    }  
  
    double test(double a) {  
        System.out.println("Ins  
        return a * a;  
    }  
}
```

```
public class Overload {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        OverloadDemo ob = new OverloadDemo();  
        int i = 88;  
  
        ob.test();  
        ob.test(10, 20);  
        ob.test(i);  
        ob.test(123.2);  
    }  
}
```

Overloading Method

```
class OverloadDemo {
    void test() {
        System.out.println("No pa
    }

    void test(int a, int b) {
        System.out.println("a:
    }

    double test(double a) {
        System.out.println("Ins
        return a * a;
    }
}
```

This program generates the following output:

```
No parameters
a and b: 10 20
Inside test(double) a: 88
Inside test(double) a: 123.2
```

```
public class Overload {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        OverloadDemo ob = new OverloadDemo();
        int i = 88;

        ob.test();
        ob.test(10, 20);
        ob.test(i);
        ob.test(123.2);
    }
}
```

Overloading Constructors

```
class Box {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;  
  
    //constructor used when all dimension  
    specified  
    Box(double w, double h, double d) {  
        width = w;  
        height = h;  
        depth = d;  
    }  
  
    //constructor used when no dimensions  
    specified  
    Box() {  
        width = -1;  
        height = -1;  
        depth = -1;  
    }  
}
```

```
//constructor used when cube is created  
Box(double len) {  
    width = height = depth = len;  
}  
  
//compute and return volume  
double volume(){  
    return width*height*depth;  
}
```

Overloading Constructors

```
public class OverloadCons {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);  
        Box mybox2 = new Box();  
        Box mycube = new Box(7);  
  
        double vol;  
        //get volume of first box  
        vol = mybox1.volume();  
        System.out.println("Volume of mybox1 is " + vol);  
        //get volume of secondbox  
        vol = mybox2.volume();  
        System.out.println("Volume of mybox2 is " + vol);  
        //get volume of cube  
        vol = mycube.volume();  
        System.out.println("Volume of mycube is " + vol);  
    }  
}
```

Overloading Constructors

```
public class OverloadCons {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Box mybox1 = new Box(10, 20, 15);
        Box mybox2 = new Box();
```

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
Volume of mybox1 is 3000.0
Volume of mybox2 is -1.0
Volume of mycube is 343.0
```

```
vol);
```

```
vol = mybox2.volume();
System.out.println("Volume of mybox2 is " + vol);
```

```
vol = mycube.volume();
System.out.println("Volume of mycube is " + vol);
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

Using Objects as Parameters

//Box allows one object to initialize another.

```
class Box2 {  
    double width;  
    double height;  
    double depth;
```

```
Box2 (Box2 ob) { //pass object to constructor  
    width = ob.width;  
    height = ob.height;  
    depth = ob.depth;  
}
```

```
Box2 (double w, double h, double d) {  
    width = w;  
    height = h;  
    depth = d;  
}
```

```
Box2 () {  
    width = -1;  
    height = -1;  
    depth = -1;  
}
```

```
Box2 (double len) {  
    width = height = depth = len;  
}
```

```
double volume() {  
    return width * height * depth;  
}
```

Using Objects as Parameters

```
public class OverloadCons {
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Box2 mybox1 = new Box2(10, 20, 15);
        Box2 mybox2 = new Box2();
        Box2 mycube = new Box2(7);
        //create copy of mybox1
        Box2 myclone = new Box2(mybox1);

        double vol;
        //get volume of first box
        vol = mybox1.volume();
        System.out.println("Volume of
mybox1 is " + vol);
        //get volume of secondbox
        vol = mybox2.volume();
        System.out.println("Volume of
mybox2 is " + vol);
    }
}
```

```
//get volume of cube
        vol = mycube.volume();
        System.out.println("Volume of
mycube is " + vol);
        //get volume of clone
        vol = myclone.volume();
        System.out.println("Volume of
mycube is " + vol);
    }
}
```

Argument Passing

- 2 ways that a computer language can pass an argument to a subroutine:
 1. **call-by-value:**
 - copies **the value** of **an argument** into the **formal parameter of the subroutine**
 - changes made to the **parameter of the subroutine** have **no effect on the argument**
 2. **call-by-reference:**
 - is a reference to an argument (not the value of the argument) is passed to the parameter.
 - changes made to the **parameter** will affect the **argument** used to call the subroutine.

Argument Passing

- In Java:
 - When a **primitive type** is passed to a method, it is **passed by value**.
 - When **objects** are passed to a method, it is **passed by reference**.

call-by-value

```
// Primitive types are passed by value.
class Test {
    void meth(int i, int j) {
        i *= 2;
        j /= 2;
    }
}
```

The output from this program is shown here:

```
a and b before call: 15 20
a and b after call: 15 20
```

```
class CallByValue {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Test ob = new Test();

        int a = 15, b = 20;

        System.out.println("a and b before call: " +
                            a + " " + b);

        ob.meth(a, b);

        System.out.println("a and b after call: " +
                            a + " " + b);
    }
}
```

the operations that occur inside `meth()` have no effect on the values of `a` and `b` used in the call; their values here did not change to `30` and `10`.

call-by-reference

```

class Test {
    int a, b;

    Test(int i, int j) {
        a = i;
        b = j;
    }

    // pass an object
    void meth(Test o) {
        o.a *= 2;
        o.b /= 2;
    }
}

class PassObjRef {
    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Test ob = new Test(15, 20);
        System.out.println("ob.a and ob.b before call: " +
            ob.a + " " + ob.b);

        ob.meth(ob);

        System.out.println("ob.a and ob.b after call: " +
            ob.a + " " + ob.b);
    }
}

```

This program generates the following output:

```

ob.a and ob.b before call: 15 20
ob.a and ob.b after call: 30 10

```

the actions inside meth() have affected the object used as an argument.

Returning Objects

- A method can return any type of data, including class types.

```
class Test {  
    int a;  
  
    Test(int i) {  
        a = i;  
    }  
  
    Test incrByTen() {  
        Test temp = new Test(a+10);  
        return temp;  
    }  
}
```

```
class RetOb {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Test ob1 = new Test(2);  
        Test ob2;  
  
        ob2 = ob1.incrByTen();  
        System.out.println("ob1.a: " + ob1.a);  
        System.out.println("ob2.a: " + ob2.a);  
  
        ob2 = ob2.incrByTen();  
        System.out.println("ob2.a after second increase: "  
                           + ob2.a);  
    }  
}
```

Returning Objects

- A method can return any type of data, including class types.

```
class Test {  
    int a;  
  
    Test(int i) {  
        a = i;  
    }  
  
    Test incrByTen() {  
        Test temp = new Test(a+10);  
        return temp;  
    }  
}
```

```
class RetOb {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        Test ob1 = new Test(2);  
        Test ob2;  
  
        ob2 = ob1.incrByTen();  
        System.out.println("ob1.a: " + ob1.a);  
        System.out.println("ob2.a: " + ob2.a);  
  
        ob2 = ob2.incrByTen();  
        System.out.println("ob2.a after second increase: "  
                           + ob2.a);  
    }  
}
```

The output generated by this program is shown here:

```
ob1.a: 2  
ob2.a: 12  
ob2.a after second increase: 22
```

Access Control

- Encapsulation links data with the code that manipulates it.
- Encapsulation provides another important attribute: access control.
- Through encapsulation, you can control what parts of a program can access the members of a class.
- By controlling access, you can prevent misuse.
 - E.g., allowing access to data only through a well-defined set of methods.
 - When correctly implemented, a class creates a “**black box**” which may be used, but the inner workings of which are not open to tampering.

Access Control

- How a member can be accessed is determined by the access **modifier** attached to its declaration, i.e., **public**, **private**, and **protected**.

Visibility	Public	Protected	Default	Private
From the same class	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
From any class in the same package	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
From a subclass in the same package	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
From a subclass outside the same package	Yes	Yes, <i>through inheritance</i>	No	No
From any non-subclass class outside the package	Yes	No	No	No

Access Control

- How a member can be accessed is determined by the access modifier attached to its declaration, i.e., public, private, and protected.

why *main()* has always been preceded by the **public** modifier?

As *main()* is called by code that is outside the program

Access Control

//This program demonstrates the difference between public and private.

```
class Test5 {
    int a; //default access
    public int b; // public access
    private int c; // private access

    //method to access c
    void setc(int i) { //set c's value
        c = i;
    }

    int getc() { //get c's value
        return c;
    }
}
```

```
public class AccessTest {

    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Test5 ob = new Test5();
        //These are OK, a and b may be accessed
        directly
        ob.a = 10;
        ob.b = 20;
        //This is not OK and will cause an error
        // ob.c = 100; // Error!
        // You must access c through its methods
        ob.setc(100);
        System.out.println("a, b, and c: "
+ ob.a + " " + ob.b + " " + ob.getc());
    }
}
```

static

- **Instance variables** declared as `static` are `global` variables.
- All instances of the `class` share the same `static` variable.
- A `static` block that gets **executed exactly once**, when the class is **first** loaded.
- **Methods** declared as `static` have **restrictions**:
 - They can only directly call other static methods of their class.
 - They can only directly access static variables of their class.
 - They **cannot** refer to `this` or `super` in any way.

static

```
//Demonstrate static variables, methods, and blocks.
```

```
public class UseStatic {  
    static int a = 3;  
    static int b;  
  
    static void meth(int x) {  
        System.out.println("x = " + x);  
        System.out.println("a = " + a);  
        System.out.println("b = " + b);  
    }  
}
```

```
static { //static block  
    System.out.println("Static block initialized.");  
    b = a * 4;  
}
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) {  
    meth(42);  
}
```

Here is the output of the program:

```
Static block initialized.  
x = 42  
a = 3  
b = 12
```

static

```
class Student{
    int rollno;
    String name;
    static String college = "CSE";

    static void change(){
        college = "BBDIT";
    }

    Student(int r, String n){
        rollno = r;
        name = n;
    }
    void display(){
        System.out.println(rollno+" "+name+"
        "+college);
    }
}
```

```
public class TestStaticMethod{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {

        Student.change();

        Student s1 = new Student(111,"Karan");

        Student s2 = new Student(222,"Aryan");

        Student s3 = new Student(333,"Sonoo");

        s1.display();
        s2.display();
        s3.display();
    }
}
```

static

```
class Student{
    int rollno;
    String name;
    static String college = "CSE";

    static void change(){
        college = "BBDIT";
    }

    Student(int r, String n){
        rollno = r;
        name = n;
    }
    void display(){
        System.out.println(rollno+" "+name+"
        "+college);
    }
}
```

What are displayed at the console after running this program?

```
Output:111 Karan BBDIT
        222 Aryan BBDIT
        333 Sonoo BBDIT
```

```
class TestStaticMethod{
    public static void main(String
    args[]){
        Student.change();

        Student s1 = new Student(111, "
        Karan");
        Student s2 = new Student(222, "
        Aryan");
        Student s3 = new Student(333, "
        Sonoo");

        s1.display();
        s2.display();
        s3.display();
    }
}
```

static

- Outside of the class in which they are defined, static methods and variables can be used **independently** of any object.
- To do so, only specify the name of their class followed by the dot operator.

```
classname.method( )
```

where `classname` is the name of the class in which the static method is declared.

static

- A static variable can be accessed by the following syntax

`classname.variable`

```
class StaticDemo {  
    static int a = 42;  
    static int b = 99;  
  
    static void callme() {  
        System.out.println("a = " + a);  
    }  
}  
  
public class StaticByName {  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        StaticDemo.callme();  
        System.out.println("b = " + StaticDemo.b);  
    }  
}
```

Here is the output of this program:

```
a = 42  
b = 99
```

final

- Prevents its contents from being modified, making it, essentially, **a constant**.
- This means that you must initialize a final field when it is declared.
 1. Give it a value when it is declared (this approach is probably the most common).
 - E.g.

```
final int FILE_NEW = 1;  
final int FILE_OPEN = 2;  
final int FILE_SAVE = 3;  
final int FILE_SAVEAS = 4;  
final int FILE_QUIT = 5;
```
 2. Assign it a value within a constructor.

final

- Comments on the example at slide 79
 - Subsequent parts of your program can now use `FILE_OPEN`, etc., as if they were `constants`, without fear that a value has been changed.
 - It is a common coding convention to choose all `uppercase identifiers` for `final` fields.
- `Method parameters` and `local variables` can be declared `final` as well.
 - Declaring a `parameter final` prevents it from being changed within the method.
 - Declaring a `local variable final` prevents it from being assigned a value more than once.
- The keyword `final` can also be applied to `methods`, but its meaning is substantially different than when it is applied to variables.
 - **Final class cannot be inherited**

final

- What is the output of running the following code?

```
class Bike9{
    final int speedlimit = 90; //final variable
    void run() {
        speedlimit = 400;
    }
    public static void main(String args[]){
        Bike9 obj = new Bike9();
        obj.run();
    }
} //end of class
```

final

- What is the output of running the following code?

```
class Bike{
    final void run() {System.out.println("running");}
}

class Honda extends Bike{
    void run() {
        System.out.println("running safely with 100kmph");
    }

    public static void main(String args[]) {
        Honda honda= new Honda();
        honda.run();
    }
}
```

final

- Final class cannot be inherited.
- E.g., What is the output of running the following code?

```
final class Bike{}

class Honda1 extends Bike{
    void run(){
        System.out.println("running safely with 100kmph");
    }

    public static void main(String args[]){
        Honda1 honda = new Honda1();
        honda.run();
    }
}
```

Arrays Revisited

- Arrays are implemented as objects.
- The **size** of an array is found in its **length** instance variable.

```
//This program demonstrates the length array member.
```

```
public class Length {
```

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

```
        int a1[] = new int[10];
```

```
        int a2[] = { 3, 5, 7, 1, 8, 99, 44, -10 };
```

```
        int a3[] = { 4, 3, 2, 1 };
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a1 is " + a1.length);
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a2 is " + a2.length);
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a3 is " + a3.length);
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

Arrays Revisited

- Arrays are implemented as objects
- The **size** of an array is found in

This program displays the following output:

```
length of a1 is 10  
length of a2 is 8  
length of a3 is 4
```

```
//This program demonstrates the length array member.
```

```
public class Length {
```

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

```
        int a1[] = new int[10];
```

```
        int a2[] = { 3, 5, 7, 1, 8, 99, 44, -10 };
```

```
        int a3[] = { 4, 3, 2, 1 };
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a1 is " + a1.length);
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a2 is " + a2.length);
```

```
        System.out.println("length of a3 is " + a3.length);
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

Nested and Inner Classes

- A class is defined within another class; such classes are known as **nested classes**.
- The **scope** of a nested class is **bounded** by the scope of its **enclosing** class.
 - E.g., if class B is defined within class A, then B does not exist independently of A.
- A nested class has access to the members, including **private** members, of the class in which it is nested.
- The enclosing class does **not** have access directly to the members of the nested class.
- A nested class that is declared **directly within** its enclosing class scope is a **member** of its enclosing class.
- It is also possible to declare a nested class that is local to a block, i.e., inside an if statement block.

Nested and Inner Classes

```
class Outer {
    int outer_x = 100;

    void test() {
        Inner inner = new Inner();
        inner.display();
    }
    //this is an inner class
    class Inner {
        int y = 10;

        void display() {
            System.out.println("display: outer_x
= " + outer_x);
        }
    }
}
```

Output from this application is shown here:

```
display: outer_x = 100
```

```
void showy() {
    // System.out.println(y);
    Inner inner = new Inner();
    Systemt.out.println(inner.y);
}

public class InnerClassDemo {

    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Outer outer = new Outer();
        outer.test();
    }
}
```


Nested and Inner Classes

- There are **two types of nested classes**: `static` and `non-static`.
- A `static` nested class:
 - has the `static` modifier applied.
 - must access the `non-static` members of its `enclosing` class through an `object`.
 - cannot refer to `non-static` members of its enclosing class directly.
Because of this restriction, static nested classes are seldom used.

Nested and Inner Classes

```
class Outer {
    int outer_x = 100;

    void test() {
        Inner inner = new Inner();
        inner.display();
    }
}
//this is an inner class
class Inner {
    int y = 10; //y is local to
inner

    void display() {
        System.out.println("display: outer_x
= " + outer_x);
    }
}
```

```
void showy() {
    System.out.println(y); //Error, y
not known here
}

public class InnerClassDemo {

    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        Outer outer = new Outer();
        outer.test();
    }
}
```

Nested and Inner Classes

//Define an inner class within a for loop.

```
class Outer2 {
    int outer_x = 100;

    void test() {
        for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
            class Inner2 {
                void display() {
                    System.out.println("display: outer_x = " +
                        outer_x);
                }
            }
            Inner2 inner = new Inner2();
            inner.display();
        }
    }
}
```

```
public class InnerClassDemo2 {

    public static void
    main(String[] args) {
        Outer2 outer = new
        Outer2();
        outer.test();
    }
}
```

Nested and Inner Classes

//Define an inner class within a for loop.

```
class Outer2 {
    int outer_x = 1
```

```
    void test() {
        for (int i
```

```
        class I
        void
```

```
        System.out.println(
            outer_x);
    }
}
```

```
        Inner2 inner = new Inner2();
        inner.display();
    }
}
```

The output from this version of the program is shown here:

```
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
display: outer_x = 100
```

```
class InnerClassDemo2 {
```

```
    static void
```

```
    main(String[] args) {
```

```
        Outer2 outer = new
```

```
        outer.test();
    }
```

Nested and Inner Classes

```
class OuterClass {
    int x = 10;

    class InnerClass {
        public int myInnerMethod() {
            return x;
        }
    }
}

public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        OuterClass myOuter = new OuterClass();
        OuterClass.InnerClass myInner = myOuter.new InnerClass();
        System.out.println(myInner.myInnerMethod());
    }
}

// Outputs 10
```

Private Member Access

- Within the definition of a method of the outer class
 - It is legal to refer to a private instance variable of the inner class on an object of the inner class
 - It is legal to invoke a (nonstatic) method of the inner class as long as an object of the inner class is used as a calling object
- Within the definition of the inner or outer classes, the modifiers `public` and `private` are equivalent

Overloading Methods?

If a method is invoked in an inner class

- If the inner class **has no** such method, then it is assumed to be an invocation of the method of that name in the **outer** class
- If **both** the inner and outer class **have** a method with the same name, then it is assumed to be an invocation of the method in the **inner** class
- If **both** the inner and outer class have a method with the same name, and the intent is to invoke the method in the outer class, then the following invocation must be used:

```
OuterClassName.this.methodName () ;
```

References

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5. Richard L. Halterman, “Object-oriented Programming In Java”, 2008.
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Project Exercise

1. With your selected project topic, list objects and their behaviors and states.
2. List classes from generalizing the above objects.
3. Write variables and methods for each classes.
4. Add constructors for classes in your project.