

Chapter 6: Introducing Classes

Welcome to the world of **Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)**! In this chapter, we will explore the backbone of OOP — **Classes** and **Objects**. Think of a class as a blueprint and objects as the real-world instances created from that blueprint.

1. The General Form of a Class

A **class** is a blueprint for creating objects. It combines **data** (variables) and **methods** (functions) to define an entity's state and behavior. Here's the general syntax:

```
class ClassName {  
    // Instance variables  
    type var1;  
    type var2;  
  
    // Methods  
    returnType methodName(parameters) {  
        // Method body  
    }  
}
```

Key Points:

- **Instance variables:** Represent the data (state) of an object.
 - **Methods:** Define the behavior (actions) of an object.
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2. A Simple Class

Let's look at a basic example:

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

This class defines a **Box** with three dimensions but no behaviors yet. It's like defining a data container.

3. Declaring Objects

Objects are created using the **new** keyword. Here's how we create an object from a class:

```
Box myBox = new Box();
```

- `Box` is the class name.
 - `myBox` is the reference variable (object).
 - `new Box()` creates a new object in memory.
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4. A Closer Look at `new`

The `new` keyword does two things:

1. Allocates memory for a new object.
2. Calls the **constructor** to initialize the object.

Without `new`, you'd only have a reference, not an actual object.

5. Assigning Object Reference Variables

Object reference variables store the address of the object in memory. When you assign one object reference to another, both variables point to the same object.

```
Box box1 = new Box();  
Box box2 = box1; // Now, box2 and box1 refer to the same object  
Changes made through box2 will also reflect in box1.
```

6. Introducing Methods

Methods define the behavior of a class. They perform operations, often on the data stored in instance variables.

Example:

```
class Box {  
    double width, height, depth;  
  
    void displayVolume() {  
        System.out.println("Volume: " + (width * height * depth));  
    }  
}
```

Here, `displayVolume()` is a method that calculates and displays the volume of the box.

7. Adding a Method to the Box Class

Let's enhance our `Box` class by adding functionality:

```
void volume() {  
    System.out.println("Volume: " + (width * height * depth));  
}
```

Now, every `Box` object can call this method to calculate its volume.

8. Returning a Value

Methods can return values to the caller. For example:

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

This method returns the calculated volume, which can be stored or used elsewhere:

```
double vol = myBox.volume();
```

9. Adding a Method That Takes Parameters

We can create methods that accept parameters to perform operations with different values:

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

This allows us to set dimensions dynamically for any `Box` object.

10. Constructors

A **constructor** is a special method called when an object is created. It has the same name as the class and **no return type**.

```
class Box {  
    double width, height, depth;  
  
    Box() { // Default constructor  
        width = height = depth = 0;  
    }  
}
```

When you create an object with `new Box();`, the default constructor initializes the object.

11. Parameterized Constructor

A constructor can accept parameters to initialize objects with specific values:

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

```
    depth = d;  
}
```

Now, when you create a `Box` object, you can pass values:

```
Box myBox = new Box(10, 20, 30);
```

12. The `this` Keyword

The `this` keyword refers to the current instance of the class. It is used to resolve conflicts between instance variables and parameters with the same name:

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

Here, `this.width` refers to the instance variable, while `width` refers to the parameter.

13. Instance Variable Hiding

Instance variables can be hidden by local variables or method parameters with the same name. The `this` keyword helps access the hidden instance variables.

14. Garbage Collection

Java provides **automatic memory management** through **Garbage Collection**. Objects that are no longer referenced are automatically destroyed, freeing up memory.

You can request garbage collection manually using:

```
System.gc();
```

However, this is not guaranteed to run immediately.

15. A Stack Class

To understand the practical application of classes and methods, let's implement a **Stack** data structure:

```
class Stack {  
    int[] stack = new int[10];  
    int top;  
  
    Stack() {  
        top = -1;  
    }  
}
```

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

int pop() {
    if (top < 0) {
        System.out.println("Stack is empty");
        return 0;
    } else {
        return stack[top--];
    }
}
```

Explanation:

- **push()** adds an item to the stack.
 - **pop()** removes the last item.
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Summary

- **Classes** encapsulate data and methods, forming the foundation of OOP.
- **Objects** are instances of classes.
- **Constructors** initialize objects automatically.
- **Garbage Collection** helps manage memory efficiently.
- Methods can return values, accept parameters, and define behavior.
- The **this** keyword resolves conflicts between local and instance variables.

By mastering these concepts, you'll have a solid foundation in OOP principles.