

Module 2

Title: Methods and Classes

Subtitle: Overloading Methods, Objects as Parameters, Argument Passing, Returning Objects, Recursion, Access Control, Understanding static, Introducing final, Introducing Nested and Inner Classes.



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Content

- ▶ Method Overloading
- ▶ Objects as Parameters
- ▶ Argument Passing
- ▶ Returning Objects
- ▶ Recursion
- ▶ Access Control
- ▶ static Keyword
- ▶ final Keyword
- ▶ Nested & Inner Classes



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Method Overloading

Method Overloading allows a class to have multiple methods with the same name but different parameters, enabling compile-time (static) polymorphism.

Rules:

- ✓ Same method name
- ✓ Different number or type of parameters
- ✗ Return type alone cannot differentiate methods



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EXAMPLE:

```
void test()  
{}
```

```
void test(int a)  
{}
```

```
double test(double a)  
{ return a * a; }
```



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Why Use Method Overloading?

Improved Code Readability and Maintainability

- Avoids creating multiple method names for similar operations (e.g., `addInts`, `addDoubles`, `addThreeNumbers`).
- Enables use of a single, meaningful method name like `add`.
- Reduces cognitive load by minimizing the number of method names developers need to remember.

Flexibility and Convenience

- Allows calling the same method name with different parameter types or counts.
- Compiler automatically selects the correct method based on arguments.
- Makes client code simpler and more intuitive when interacting with the class.



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Achieving **Compile-time (Static) Polymorphism**

Overloaded methods enable polymorphic behavior determined at compile time.

- Method selection is based on the method signature (name + parameter list).
- Provides early binding, improving execution efficiency.

Handling Different Data Types

- Supports operations on various data types under a single method name.
- Enables specialized implementations for each parameter type.
- Maintains a consistent and uniform interface for users of the class.



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Benefits:

- Improves **code clarity**
- Allows **same behavior for different data inputs**
- Helps in **polymorphic programming**

Practical Example: `println()` is overloaded in Java.



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Objects as Parameters

Objects can be passed to methods like primitive values.

- Java uses **pass-by-value**, but its effect differs for **primitive types** and **reference types**.
- When passing **primitive types**, the method receives a **copy of the value**, so changes inside the method do **not affect the original variable**.
- When passing **objects**, Java passes the **value of the reference** (not the actual object), creating behavior similar to **call-by-reference**.
- The parameter itself **cannot be replaced**, but the method can modify the **object's internal state** by calling its methods.



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- Creating a class-type variable only creates a **reference** to an object, not the object itself.
- If this reference is passed to a method, both the original variable and the method parameter **refer to the same object**.
- As a result, **changes made to the object inside the method are visible** outside the method.
- Therefore, for objects, Java behaves **as if using call-by-reference**, despite technically being pass-by-value.

```
boolean equalTo(Test obj) {  
    return (obj.a == a && obj.b == b);  
}
```

Use Cases:

- Comparison of objects
- Copying object state in constructors
- Data transfer between methods



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Argument Passing in Java

Let us assume that a function B() is called from another function A(). In this case A is called the "caller function" and B is called the "called function or callee function". Also, the arguments which A sends to B are called actual arguments and the parameters of B are called formal arguments.

Type	Passed As
Primitive Data Types	Pass-by-Value
Objects	Value of object reference is passed

Primitive Example:

```
void method1(int i, int j) { i*=2; j/=2; }
```

Object Example:

```
void meth(Test obj) { obj.a*=2; obj.b/=2; }
```



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Returning Objects

```
Test incrByTen() {  
    return new Test(a + 10);  
}
```

Usage:

```
Test result = obj.incrByTen();
```



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```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;
class Example {
public:
    int a;

    // This function will take
    // an object as an argument
    void add(Example E)
    {
        a = a + E.a;
    }
};
```



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```
// Driver Code
int main()
{
    // Create objects
    Example E1, E2;

    // Values are initialized for both objects
    E1.a = 50;
    E2.a = 100;

    cout << "Initial Values \n";
    cout << "Value of object 1: " << E1.a
        << "\n& object 2: " << E2.a
        << "\n\n";

    // Passing object as an argument
    // to function add()
    E2.add(E1);

    // Changed values after passing
    // object as argument
    cout << "New values \n";
    cout << "Value of object 1: " << E1.a
        << "\n& object 2: " << E2.a
        << "\n\n";

    return 0;
}
```



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Recursion

The process in which a function calls itself directly or indirectly is called recursion and the corresponding function is called a recursive function.

- A recursive algorithm takes one step toward solution and then recursively call itself to further move. The algorithm stops once we reach the solution.
- Since called function may further call itself, this process might continue forever. So it is essential to provide a base case to terminate this recursion process.



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Recursion Example:

```
int fact(int n) {  
    if(n == 1) return 1;  
    return n * fact(n-1);  
}
```



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Access Control (Access Modifiers)

```
public int a;  
private int c;
```

Modifier	Access Scope
public	Accessible from everywhere
private	Within same class only
default (no modifier)	Same package only
protected	Same package + subclasses



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static Keyword

- Shared among all objects.
- Can be called using class name.

```
static int a;  
ClassName.a;
```



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final Keyword

- Used to create **constants**.

```
final int MAX = 100;
```



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Nested & Inner Classes

- Class inside another class
- Inner class can access **outer class members**

```
class Outer {  
    class Inner { ... }  
}
```



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Thank you