

**G.PULLAIAH COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY**

**Kurnool – 518002**

**DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING**

**Lecture notes of**

**OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING USING THROUGH JAVA**

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## Unit -2

### OPERATORS

Arithmetic operators are used in mathematical expressions in the same way that they are used in algebra. The following table lists the arithmetic operators:

Operator	Result
+	Addition
-	Subtraction (also unary minus)
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulus
++	Increment
+=	Addition assignment
-=	Subtraction assignment
*=	Multiplication assignment
/=	Division assignment
%=	Modulus assignment
--	Decrement

The operands of the arithmetic operators must be of a numeric type. You cannot use them on **boolean** types, but you can use them on **char** types, since the **char** type in Java is, essentially, a subset of **int**.

**The Bitwise Operators:** Java defines several *bitwise operators* which can be applied to the integer types, **long**, **int**, **short**, **char**, and **byte**. These operators act upon the individual bits of their operands. They are summarized in the following table:

Operator	Result
~	Bitwise unary NOT
&	Bitwise AND
	Bitwise OR
^	Bitwise exclusive OR
>>	Shift right
>>>	Shift right zero fill
<<	Shift left
&=	Bitwise AND assignment
=	Bitwise OR assignment
^=	Bitwise exclusive OR assignment
>>=	Shift right assignment
>>>=	Shift right zero fill assignment
<<=	Shift left assignment

### Relational Operators

The *relational operators* determine the relationship that one operand has to the other. Specifically, they determine equality and ordering. The relational operators are shown here:

== Equal to

!= Not equal to  
> Greater than  
< Less than  
>= Greater than or equal to  
<= Less than or equal to

The outcome of these operations is a **boolean** value. The relational operators are most frequently used in the expressions that control the **if** statement and the various loop statements.

### The Assignment Operator

The *assignment operator* is the single equal sign, =. The assignment operator works in Java much as it does in any other computer language. It has this general form:

```
var = expression;
```

Here, the type of *var* must be compatible with the type of *expression*. The assignment operator does have one interesting attribute that you may not be familiar with: it allows you to create a chain of assignments. For example, consider this fragment:

```
int x, y, z;  
x = y = z = 100; // set x, y, and z to 100
```

This fragment sets the variables **x**, **y**, and **z** to 100 using a single statement. This works because the = is an operator that yields the value of the right-hand expression. Thus, the value of **z = 100** is 100, which is then assigned to **y**, which in turn is assigned to **x**. Using a —chain of assignment is an easy way to set a group of variables to a common value.

### The ? Operator

Java includes a special *ternary* (three-way) *operator* that can replace certain types of if-then-else statements. This operator is the ?, and it works in Java much like it does in C, C++, and C#. It can seem somewhat confusing at first, but the ? can be used very effectively once mastered. The ? has this general form:

```
expression1 ? expression2 : expression3
```

Here, *expression1* can be any expression that evaluates to a **boolean** value. If *expression1* is **true**, then *expression2* is evaluated; otherwise, *expression3* is evaluated. The result of the ? operation is that of the expression evaluated. Both *expression2* and *expression3* are required to return the same type, which can't be **void**.

## CONTROL STATEMENTS

### if

The **if** statement is Java's conditional branch statement. It can be used to route program execution through two different paths. Here is the general form of the **if** statement:

```
if (condition)  
    statement1;  
else  
    statement2;
```

Here, each *statement* may be a single statement or a compound statement enclosed in curly braces (that is, a *block*). The *condition* is any expression that returns a **boolean** value. The **else** clause is optional.

```
int a, b;  
// ...  
if(a < b) a = 0;  
else b = 0;
```

### The if-else-if Ladder

A common programming construct that is based upon a sequence of nested **ifs** is the *if-else-if ladder*. It looks like this:

```
if(condition)  
  statement;  
else if(condition)  
  statement;  
else if(condition)  
  statement;  
...  
else  
  statement;
```

### switch

The **switch** statement is Java's multiway branch statement. It provides an easy way to dispatch execution to different parts of your code based on the value of an expression. As such, it often provides a better alternative than a large series of **if-else-if** statements. Here is the general form of a **switch** statement:

```
switch (expression)  
{  
  case value1:  
    // statement sequence  
    break;  
  case value2:  
    // statement sequence  
    break;  
  ...  
  case valueN:  
    // statement sequence  
    break;  
  default:  
    // default statement sequence  
}
```

The *expression* must be of type **byte**, **short**, **int**, or **char**; each of the *values* specified in the **case** statements must be of a type compatible with the expression. Each **case** value must be a unique literal (that is, it must be a constant, not a variable). Duplicate **case** values are not allowed.

## Iteration Statements

Java's iteration statements are **for**, **while**, and **do-while**. These statements create what we commonly call *loops*. As you probably know, a loop repeatedly executes the same set of instructions until a termination condition is met. As you will see, Java has a loop to fit any programming need.

### While

The **while** loop is Java's most fundamental looping statement. It repeats a statement or block while its controlling expression is true. Here is its general form:

```
While (condition) {  
// body of loop  
}
```

The *condition* can be any Boolean expression. The body of the loop will be executed as long as the conditional expression is true. When *condition* becomes false, control passes to the next line of code immediately following the loop. The curly braces are unnecessary if only a single statement is being repeated.

### do-while

As you just saw, if the conditional expression controlling a **while** loop is initially false, then the body of the loop will not be executed at all. However, sometimes it is desirable to execute the body of a **while** loop at least once, even if the conditional expression is false to begin with.

Syntax:

```
do {  
// body of loop  
} while (condition);
```

Each iteration of the **do-while** loop first executes the body of the loop and then evaluates the conditional expression. If this expression is true, the loop will repeat. Otherwise, the loop terminates.

// Demonstrate the do-while loop.

```
class DoWhile {  
public static void main(String args[]) {  
int n = 10;  
do {  
System.out.println("tick " + n);  
n--;  
} while(n > 0);  
}  
}
```

### For

Here is the general form of the **for** statement:

```
for(initialization; condition; iteration) {  
// body
```

```
}
```

If only one statement is being repeated, there is no need for the curly braces. The **for** loop operates as follows. When the loop first starts, the *initialization* portion of the loop is executed. Generally, this is an expression that sets the value of the *loopcontrol variable*, which acts as a counter that controls the loop. Next, *condition* is evaluated. This must be a Boolean expression. It usually tests the loop control variable against a target value. If this expression is true, then the body of the loop is executed. If it is false, the loop terminates. Next, the *iteration* portion of the loop is executed. This is usually an expression that increments or decrements the loop control variable.

```
// Demonstrate the for loop.
class ForTick {
public static void main(String args[]) {
int n;
for(n=10; n>0; n--)
System.out.println("tick " + n);
}
}
```

### Using break

In Java, the **break** statement has three uses. First, as you have seen, it terminates a statement sequence in a **switch** statement. Second, it can be used to exit a loop. Third, it can be used as a —civilized|| form of goto. The last two uses are explained here.

### Return

The last control statement is **return**. The **return** statement is used to explicitly return from a method. That is, it causes program control to transfer back to the caller of the method. As such, it is categorized as a jump statement.

### Class Fundamentals

The classes created in the preceding chapters primarily exist simply to encapsulate the **main( )** method, which has been used to demonstrate the basics of the Java syntax. As you will see, classes are substantially more powerful than the limited ones presented so far. Perhaps the most important thing to understand about a class is that it defines a new data type. Once defined, this new type can be used to create objects of that type. Thus, a class is a *template* for an object, and an object is an *instance* of a class. Because an object is an instance of a class, you will often see the two words *object* and *instance* used interchangeably.

### The General Form of a Class

When you define a class, you declare its exact form and nature. You do this by specifying the data that it contains and the code that operates on that data. While very simple classes may contain only code or only data, most real-world classes contain both. As you will see, a class' code defines the interface to its data. A class is declared by use of the **class** keyword. The classes that have been used up to this point are actually very limited examples of its complete form. Classes can (and usually do) get much more complex. A simplified general form of a **class** definition is shown here:

```
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
}
}

```

The data, or variables, defined within a **class** are called *instance variables*. The code is contained within *methods*. Collectively, the methods and variables defined within a class are called *members* of the class. In most classes, the instance variables are acted upon and accessed by the methods defined for that class. Thus, as a general rule, it is the methods that determine how a class' data can be used. Variables defined within a class are called instance variables because each instance of the class (that is, each object of the class) contains its own copy of these variables. Thus, the data for one object is separate and unique from the data for another. We will come back to this point shortly, but it is an important concept to learn early.

All methods have the same general form as **main( )**, which we have been using thus far. However, most methods will not be specified as **static** or **public**. Notice that the general form of a class does not specify a **main( )** method. Java classes do not need to have a **main( )** method. You only specify one if that class is the starting point for your program. Further, applets don't require a **main( )** method at all.

### A Simple Class

Let's begin our study of the class with a simple example. Here is a class called **Box** that defines three instance variables: **width**, **height**, and **depth**. Currently, **Box** does not contain any methods.

```

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

```

As stated, a class defines a new type of data. In this case, the new data type is called **Box**. You will use this name to declare objects of type **Box**. It is important to remember that a **class** declaration only creates a template; it does not create an actual object. Thus, the preceding code does not cause any objects of type **Box** to come into existence. To actually create a **Box** object, you will use a statement like the following:

```

Box mybox = new Box(); // create a Box object called mybox

```

After this statement executes, **mybox** will be an instance of **Box**. Thus, it will have “physical” reality. For the moment, don’t worry about the details of this statement. As mentioned earlier, each time you create an instance of a class, you are creating an object that contains its own copy of each instance variable defined by the class. Thus, every **Box** object will contain its own copies of the instance variables **width**, **height**, and **depth**. To access these variables, you will use the *dot* (.) operator. The dot operator links the name of the object with the name of an instance variable. For example, to assign the **width** variable of **mybox** the value 100, you would use the following statement:

```
mybox.width = 100;
```

This statement tells the compiler to assign the copy of **width** that is contained within the **mybox** object the value of 100. In general, you use the dot operator to access both the instance variables and the methods within an object.

Here is a complete program that uses the **Box** class:

```
/* A program that uses the Box class.
Call this file BoxDemo.java
*/
class Box {
double width;
double height;
double depth;
}
// This class declares an object of type Box.
class BoxDemo {
public static void main(String args[]) {
Box mybox = new Box();
double vol;
// assign values to mybox's instance variables
mybox.width = 10;
mybox.height = 20;
mybox.depth = 15;
// compute volume of box
vol = mybox.width * mybox.height * mybox.depth;
System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
```

You should call the file that contains this program **BoxDemo.java**, because the **main()** method is in the class called **BoxDemo**, not the class called **Box**. When you compile 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 actually be in the same source file. You could put each class in its own file, called **Box.java** and **BoxDemo.java**, respectively. To run this program, you must execute **BoxDemo.class**. When you do, you will see the following output:

```
Volume is 3000.0
```

As stated earlier, each object has its own copies of the instance variables. This means that if you have two **Box** objects, each has its own copy of **depth**, **width**, and **height**. It is important to understand that changes to the instance variables of one object have no effect on the instance variables of another. For example, the following program declares two **Box** objects:

```
// This program declares two Box objects.
class Box {
double width;
double height;
double depth;
}
class BoxDemo2 {
public static void main(String args[]) {
Box mybox1 = new Box();
Box mybox2 = new Box();
double vol;
// assign values to mybox1's instance variables
mybox1.width = 10;
mybox1.height = 20;
mybox1.depth = 15;
/* assign different values to mybox2's
instance variables */
mybox2.width = 3;
mybox2.height = 6;
mybox2.depth = 9;
// compute volume of first box
vol = mybox1.width * mybox1.height * mybox1.depth;
System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
// compute volume of second box
vol = mybox2.width * mybox2.height * mybox2.depth;
System.out.println("Volume is " + vol);
}
}
```

The output produced by this program is shown here:

```
Volume is 3000.0
```

```
Volume is 162.0
```

As you can see, **mybox1**'s data is completely separate from the data contained in **mybox2**.

## Declaring Objects

When you create a class, you are creating a new data type. You can use this type to declare objects of that type. However, obtaining objects of a class is a two-step process. First, you must declare a variable of the class type. This variable does not define an object. Instead, it is simply a variable that can *refer* to an object. Second, you must acquire an actual, physical copy of the object and assign it to that variable. You can do this using the **new** operator. The **new** operator dynamically allocates (that is, allocates at run time) memory for an object and returns a reference to it. This reference is, more or less, the address in memory of the object allocated by **new**. This reference is then stored in the variable. Thus, in Java, all class objects must be dynamically

allocated. Let's look at the details of this procedure. In the preceding sample programs, a line similar to the following is used to declare an object of type **Box**:

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

This statement combines the two steps just described. It can be rewritten like this to show each step more clearly:

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

The first line declares **mybox** as a reference to an object of type **Box**. After this line executes, **mybox** contains the value **null**, which indicates that it does not yet point to an actual object. Any attempt to use **mybox** at this point will result in a compile-time error. The next line allocates an actual object and assigns a reference to it to **mybox**. After the second line executes, you can use **mybox** as if it were a **Box** object. But in reality, **mybox** simply holds the memory address of the actual **Box** object. The effect of these two lines of code is depicted in Figure.

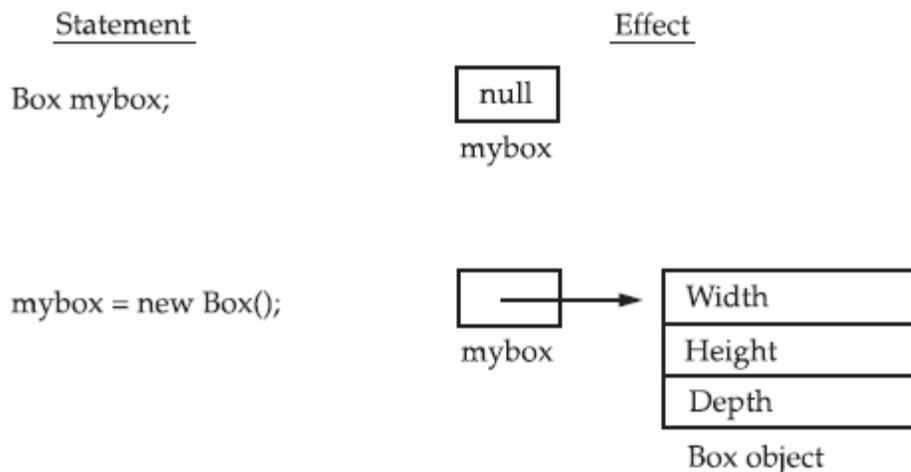


FIGURE: Declaring an object of type Box

### A Closer Look at new

As just explained, the **new** operator dynamically allocates memory for an object. It has this general form:

```
class-var = new classname( );
```

Here, *class-var* is a variable of the class type being created. The *classname* is the name of the class that is being instantiated. The class name followed by parentheses specifies the *constructor* for the class. A constructor defines what occurs when an object of a class is created. Constructors are an important part of all classes and have many significant attributes. Most real-world classes explicitly define their own constructors within their class definition. However, if no explicit

constructor is specified, then Java will automatically supply a default constructor. This is the case with **Box**. For now, we will use the default constructor.

At this point, you might be wondering why you do not need to use **new** for such things as integers or characters. The answer is that Java's primitive types are not implemented as objects. Rather, they are implemented as "normal" variables. This is done in the interest of efficiency. As you will see, objects have many features and attributes that require Java to treat them differently than it treats the primitive types. By not applying the same overhead to the primitive types that applies to objects, Java can implement the primitive types more efficiently. Later, you will see object versions of the primitive types that are available for your use in those situations in which complete objects of these types are needed.

It is important to understand that **new** allocates memory for an object during run time. The advantage of this approach is that your program can create as many or as few objects as it needs during the execution of your program. However, since memory is finite, it is possible that **new** will not be able to allocate memory for an object because insufficient memory exists. If this happens, a run-time exception will occur.

Let's once again review the distinction between a class and an object. A class creates a new data type that can be used to create objects. That is, a class creates a logical framework that defines the relationship between its members. When you declare an object of a class, you are creating an instance of that class. Thus, a class is a logical construct. An object has physical reality. (That is, an object occupies space in memory.) It is important to keep this distinction clearly in mind.

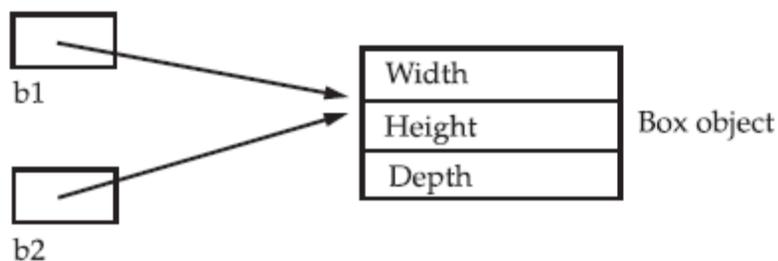
### Assigning Object Reference Variables

Object reference variables act differently than you might expect when an assignment takes place. For example,

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

You might think that **b2** is being assigned a reference to a copy of the object referred to by **b1**. That is, you might think that **b1** and **b2** refer to separate and distinct objects. However, this would be wrong. Instead, after this fragment executes, **b1** and **b2** will both refer to the *same* object. The assignment of **b1** to **b2** did not allocate any memory or copy any part of the original object. It simply makes **b2** refer to the same object as does **b1**. Thus, any changes made to the object through **b2** will affect the object to which **b1** is referring, since they are the same object.

This situation is depicted here:



Although **b1** and **b2** both refer to the same object, they are not linked in any other way. For example, a subsequent assignment to **b1** will simply *unhook* **b1** from the original object without affecting the object or affecting **b2**. For example:

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

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

## Introducing Methods

As mentioned, classes usually consist of two things: instance variables and methods. The topic of methods is a large one because Java gives them so much power and flexibility. In fact, much of the next chapter is devoted to methods. However, there are some fundamentals that you need to learn now so that you can begin to add methods to your classes.

This is the general form of a method:

```
type name(parameter-list) {
// body of method
}
```

Here, *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**. The name of the method is specified by *name*. This can be any legal identifier other than those already used by other items within the current scope. The *parameter-list* is a sequence of type and identifier pairs separated by commas. Parameters are essentially variables that receive the value of the *arguments* passed to the method when it is called. If the method has no parameters, then the parameter list will be empty. Methods that have a return type other than **void** return a value to the calling routine using the following form of the **return** statement:

```
return value;
```

Here, *value* is the value returned.

## Adding a Method That Takes Parameters

While some methods don't need parameters, most do. Parameters allow a method to be generalized. That is, a parameterized method can operate on a variety of data and/or be used in a number of slightly different situations. To illustrate this point, let's use a very simple example. Here is a method that returns the square of the number 10:

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

While this method does, indeed, return the value of 10 squared, its use is very limited. However, if you modify the method so that it takes a parameter as shown next, then you can make **square()** much more useful.

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

## Constructors

It can be tedious to initialize all of the variables in a class each time an instance is created. Even when you add convenience functions like **setDim()**, it would be simpler and more concise to

have all of the setup done at the time the object is first created. Because the requirement for initialization is so common, Java allows objects to initialize themselves when they are created. This automatic initialization is performed through the use of a constructor.

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 immediately after the object is created, before the **new** operator completes. Constructors look a little strange because they have no return type, not even **void**. This is because the implicit return type of a class' constructor is the class type itself. It is the constructor's job to initialize the internal state of an object so that the code creating an instance will have a fully initialized, usable object immediately.

You can rework the **Box** example so that the dimensions of a box are automatically initialized when an object is constructed. To do so, replace **setDim( )** with a constructor. Let's begin by defining a simple constructor that simply sets the dimensions of each box to the same values. This version is shown here:

```
/* Here, Box uses a constructor to initialize the
dimensions of a box.
```

```
*/
class Box {
double width;
double height;
double depth;
// This is the constructor for Box.
Box() {
System.out.println("Constructing Box");
width = 10;
height = 10;
depth = 10;
}
// compute and return volume
double volume() {
return width * height * depth;
}
}
```

As you know, when you allocate an object, you use the following general form:

```
class-var = new classname( );
```

Now you can understand why the parentheses are needed after the class name. What is actually happening is that the constructor for the class is being called. Thus, in the line

```
Box mybox1 = new Box();
```

**new Box( )** is calling the **Box( )** constructor. When you do not explicitly define a constructor for a class, then Java creates a default constructor for the class. This is why the preceding line of code worked in earlier versions of **Box** that did not define a constructor. The default constructor automatically initializes all instance variables to zero. The default constructor is often sufficient for simple classes, but it usually won't do for more sophisticated ones. Once you define your own constructor, the default constructor is no longer used.

## The **this** Keyword

Sometimes a method will need to refer to the object that invoked it. To allow this, Java defines the **this** keyword. **this** can be used inside any method to refer to the *current* object. That is, **this** is always a reference to the object on which the method was invoked. You can use **this** anywhere a reference to an object of the current class' type is permitted. To better understand what **this** refers to, consider the following version of **Box( )**:

```
// A redundant use of this.
Box(double w, double h, double d) {
    this.width = w;
    this.height = h;
    this.depth = d;
}
```

This version of **Box( )** operates exactly like the earlier version. The use of **this** is redundant, but perfectly correct. Inside **Box( )**, **this** will always refer to the invoking object. While it is redundant in this case, **this** is useful in other contexts, one of which is explained in the next section.

## Instance Variable Hiding

As you know, it is illegal in Java to declare two local variables with the same name inside the same or enclosing scopes. Interestingly, you can have local variables, including formal parameters to methods, which overlap with the names of the class' instance variables. However, when a local variable has the same name as an instance variable, the local variable *hides* the instance variable. This is why **width**, **height**, and **depth** were not used as the names of the parameters to the **Box( )** constructor inside the **Box** class. If they had been, then **width** would have referred to the formal parameter, hiding the instance variable **width**. While it is usually easier to simply use different names, there is another way around this situation. Because **this** lets you refer directly to the object, you can use it to resolve any name space collisions that might occur between instance variables and local variables. For example, here is another version of **Box( )**, which uses **width**, **height**, and **depth** for parameter names and then uses **this** to access the instance variables by the same name:

```
// Use this to resolve name-space collisions.
Box(double width, double height, double depth) {
    this.width = width;
    this.height = height;
    this.depth = depth;
}
```

## Garbage Collection

Since objects are dynamically allocated by using the **new** operator, you might be wondering how such objects are destroyed and their memory released for later reallocation. In some languages, such as 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 technique that accomplishes this is called *garbage collection*. It works like this: when no references to an object exist, that object is assumed to be no longer needed, and the memory occupied by the object can be reclaimed. There is no explicit need to destroy objects as in C++. Garbage collection only occurs sporadically (if at all) during the execution of your program. It will not occur simply because one or more objects exist that are no longer used. Furthermore,

different Java run-time implementations will take varying approaches to garbage collection, but for the most part, you should not have to think about it while writing your programs.

### The **finalize( )** Method

Sometimes an object will need to perform some action when it is destroyed. For example, if an object is holding some non-Java resource such as a file handle or character font, then you might want to make sure these resources are freed before an object is destroyed. To handle such situations, Java provides a mechanism called *finalization*. By using finalization, you can define specific actions that will occur when an object is just about to be reclaimed by the garbage collector.

To add a finalizer to a class, you simply define the **finalize( )** method. The Java run time calls that method whenever it is about to recycle an object of that class. Inside the **finalize( )** method, you will specify those actions that must be performed before an object is destroyed. The garbage collector runs periodically, checking for objects that are no longer referenced by any running state or indirectly through other referenced objects. Right before an asset is freed, the Java run time calls the **finalize( )** method on the object. The **finalize( )** method has this general form:

```
protected void finalize( )
{
// finalization code here
}
```

Here, the keyword **protected** is a specifier that prevents access to **finalize( )** by code defined outside its class. It is important to understand that **finalize( )** is only called just prior to garbage collection. It is not called when an object goes out-of-scope, for example. This means that you cannot know when—or even if—**finalize( )** will be executed. Therefore, your program should provide other means of releasing system resources, etc., used by the object. It must not rely on **finalize( )** for normal program operation.

### Access Modifiers

Access to a **private** member of a class is granted only to other members of that class. Packages add another dimension to access control. As you will see, Java provides many levels of protection to allow fine-grained control over the visibility of variables and methods within classes, subclasses, and packages. Classes and packages are both means of encapsulating and containing the name space and scope of variables and methods. Packages act as containers for classes and other subordinate packages. Classes act as containers for data and code. The class is Java's smallest unit of abstraction. Because of the interplay between classes and packages, Java addresses four categories of visibility for class members:

- Subclasses in the same package
- Non-subclasses in the same package
- Subclasses in different packages
- Classes that are neither in the same package nor subclasses

The three access specifiers, **private**, **public**, and **protected**, provide a variety of ways to produce the many levels of access required by these categories. Table sums up the interactions. While Java's access control mechanism may seem complicated, we can simplify it as follows. Anything

declared **public** can be accessed from anywhere. Anything declared **private** cannot be seen outside of its class. When a member does not have an explicit access specification, it is visible to

	<b>Private</b>	<b>No Modifier</b>	<b>Protected</b>	<b>Public</b>
Same class	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Same package non-subclass	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Different package subclass	No	No	Yes	Yes
Different package non-subclass	No	No	No	Yes

subclasses as well as to other classes in the same package. This is the default access. If you want to allow an element to be seen outside your current package, but only to classes that subclass your class directly, then declare that element **protected**. Table applies only to members of classes. A non-nested class has only two possible access levels: default and public. When a class is declared as **public**, it is accessible by any other code. If a class has default access, then it can only be accessed by other code within its same package. When a class is public, it must be the only public class declared in the file, and the file must have the same name as the class. The inclusion of generics gives rise to a new type of error that you must guard against: *ambiguity*. Ambiguity errors occur when erasure causes two seemingly distinct generic declarations to resolve to the same erased type, causing a conflict. Here is an example that involves method overloading:

```
// Ambiguity caused by erasure on
// overloaded methods.
class MyGenClass<T, V> {
    T ob1;
    V ob2;
    // ...
    // These two overloaded methods are ambiguous
    // and will not compile.
    void set(T o) {
        ob1 = o;
    }
    void set(V o) {
        ob2 = o;
    }
}
```

Notice that **MyGenClass** declares two generic types: **T** and **V**. Inside **MyGenClass**, an attempt is made to overload **set()** based on parameters of type **T** and **V**. This looks reasonable because **T** and **V** appear to be different types. However, there are two ambiguity problems here.

First, as **MyGenClass** is written, there is no requirement that **T** and **V** actually be different types. For example, it is perfectly correct (in principle) to construct a **MyGenClass** object as shown here:

```
MyGenClass<String, String> obj = new MyGenClass<String, String>()
```

In this case, both **T** and **V** will be replaced by **String**. This makes both versions of **set()** identical, which is, of course, an error.

The second and more fundamental problem is that the type erasure of **set()** reduces both versions to the following:

```
void set(Object o) { // ...
```

Thus, the overloading of **set()** as attempted in **MyGenClass** is inherently ambiguous.

Ambiguity errors can be tricky to fix. For example, if you know that **V** will always be some type of **String**, you might try to fix **MyGenClass** by rewriting its declaration as shown here:

```
class MyGenClass<T, V extends String> { // almost OK!
```

This change causes **MyGenClass** to compile, and you can even instantiate objects like the one shown here:

```
MyGenClass<Integer, String> x = new MyGenClass<Integer, String>();
```

This works because Java can accurately determine which method to call. However, ambiguity returns when you try this line:

```
MyGenClass<String, String> x = new MyGenClass<String, String>();
```

In this case, since both **T** and **V** are **String**, which version of **set()** is to be called? Frankly, in the preceding example, it would be much better to use two separate method names, rather than trying to overload **set()**. Often, the solution to ambiguity involves the restructuring of the code, because ambiguity often means that you have a conceptual error in your design.

## Overloading Methods

In Java it is possible to define two or more methods within the same class that share the same name, as long as their parameter declarations are different. When this is the case, the methods are said to be *overloaded*, and the process is referred to as *method overloading*. Method overloading is one of the ways that Java supports polymorphism. If you have never used a language that allows the overloading of methods, then the concept may seem strange at first. But as you will see, method overloading is one of Java's most exciting and useful features.

When an overloaded method is invoked, Java uses the type and/or number of arguments as its guide to determine which version of the overloaded method to actually call. Thus, 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.

Here is a simple example that illustrates method overloading:

```
// Demonstrate method overloading.
class OverloadDemo {
    void test() {
        System.out.println("No parameters");
    }
}
```

```

}
// Overload test for one integer parameter.
void test(int a) {
System.out.println("a: " + a);
}

// Overload test for two integer parameters.
void test(int a, int b) {
System.out.println("a and b: " + a + " " + b);
}
// overload test for a double parameter
double test(double a) {
System.out.println("double a: " + a);
return a*a;
}
}
}
class Overload {
public static void main(String args[]) {
OverloadDemo ob = new OverloadDemo();
double result;
// call all versions of test()
ob.test();
ob.test(10);
ob.test(10, 20);
result = ob.test(123.25);
System.out.println("Result of ob.test(123.25): " + result);
}
}
}

```

This program generates the following output:

No parameters

a: 10

a and b: 10 20

double a: 123.25

Result of ob.test(123.25): 15190.5625

### Introducing Nested and Inner Classes

It is possible to define a class 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. Thus, 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. However, the enclosing class does not have access 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.

There are two types of nested classes: *static* and *non-static*. A static nested class is one that has the **static** modifier applied. Because it is static, it must access the members of its enclosing class through an object. That is, it cannot refer to members of its enclosing class directly. Because of this restriction, static nested classes are seldom used. The most important type of nested class is

the *inner* class. An inner class is a non-static nested class. It has access to all of the variables and methods of its outer class and may refer to them directly in the same way that other non-static members of the outer class do. The following program illustrates how to define and use an inner class. The class named **Outer** has one instance variable named **outer\_x**, one instance method named **test( )**, and defines one inner class called **Inner**.

```
// Demonstrate an inner class.
class Outer {
int outer_x = 100;
void test() {
Inner inner = new Inner();
inner.display();
}
// this is an inner class

class Inner {
void display() {
System.out.println("display: outer_x = " + outer_x);
}
}
}
class InnerClassDemo {
public static void main(String args[]) {
Outer outer = new Outer();
outer.test();
}
}
```

Output from this application is shown here:

```
display: outer_x = 100
```

In the program, an inner class named **Inner** is defined within the scope of class **Outer**. Therefore, any code in class **Inner** can directly access the variable **outer\_x**. An instance method named **display( )** is defined inside **Inner**. This method displays **outer\_x** on the standard output stream. The **main( )** method of **InnerClassDemo** creates an instance of class **Outer** and invokes its **test( )** method. That method creates an instance of class **Inner** and the **display( )** method is called.

It is important to realize that an instance of **Inner** can be created only within the scope of class **Outer**. The Java compiler generates an error message if any code outside of class **Outer** attempts to instantiate class **Inner**. (In general, an inner class instance must be created by an enclosing scope.) You can, however, create an instance of **Inner** outside of **Outer** by qualifying its name with **Outer**, as in **Outer.Inner**.