# Overview

## Setting up the environment in Java

Java is a general-purpose computer programming language that is concurrent, class-based,

Object-oriented etc.

Java applications are typically compiled to **bytecode** that can run on any Java virtual machine (JVM) regardless of computer architecture. The latest version is **Java 8**.

Below are the environment settings for both Linux and Windows. JVM, JRE and JDK all three are platform dependent because configuration of each Operating System is different. But, Java is platform independent.

There are few things which must be clear before setting up the environment

1. **JDK** (Java Development Kit): JDK is intended for software developers and includes development tools such as the Java compiler, Javadoc, Jar, and a debugger.
2. **JRE** (Java Runtime Environment): JRE contains the parts of the Java libraries required to run Java programs and is intended for end users. JRE can be view as a subset of JDK.
3. **JVM:** JVM (Java Virtual Machine) is an abstract machine. It is a specification that provides runtime environment in which java bytecode can be executed. JVMs are available for many hardware and software platforms.

## Beginning Java programming with Hello World Example

The process of Java programming can be simplified in three steps:

* Create the program by typing it into a text editor and saving it to a file – HelloWorld.java.
* Compile it by typing “javac HelloWorld.java” in the terminal window.
* Execute (or run) it by typing “java HelloWorld” in the terminal window.

Below given program is the simplest program of Java printing “Hello World” to the screen. Let us try to understand every bit of code step by step.

|  |
| --- |
| /\* This is a simple Java program.     FileName : "HelloWorld.java". \*/  class HelloWorld  {      // Your program begins with a call to main().      // Prints "Hello, World" to the terminal window.      public static void main(String args[])      {          System.out.println("Hello World");      }  } |

Output:

Hello World

The “Hello World!” program consists of three primary components: the HelloWorld class definition, the main method and source code comments. Following explanation will provide you with a basic understanding of the code:

1. **Class definition:** This line uses the keyword **class**to declare that a new class is being defined.

class HelloWorld

**HelloWorld** is an identifier that is the name of the class. The entire class definition, including all of its members, will be between the opening curly brace {and the closing curly brace**}**.

1. **main method:**In Java programming language, every application must contain a main method whose signature is:

public static void main(String[] args)

**public**: So that [JVM](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/jvm-works-jvm-architecture/) can execute the method from anywhere.

**static**: Main method is to be called without object.

The modifiers public and static can be written in either order.

**void**: The main method doesn't return anything.

**main()**: Name configured in the [JVM](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/jvm-works-jvm-architecture/).

**String[]**: The main method accepts a single argument: an array of elements of type String.

Like in C/C++, main method is the entry point for your application and will subsequently invoke all the other methods required by your program.

1. The next line of code is shown here. Notice that it occurs inside main( ).

System.out.println("Hello World");

This line outputs the string “Hello World” followed by a new line on the screen. Output is actually accomplished by the built-in println( ) method. **System** is a predefined class that provides access to the system, and **out** is the variable of type output stream that is connected to the console.

1. Comments: They can either be multi-line or single line comments.

/\* this is a simple Java program.

Call this file "HelloWorld.java". \*/

This is a multiline comment. This type of comment must begin with /\* and end with \*/. For single line you may directly use // as in C/C++.

**Important Points:**

* The name of the class defined by the program is HelloWorld, which is same as name of file (HelloWorld.java). This is not a coincidence. In Java, all codes must reside inside a class and there is at most one public class which contain main() method.
* By convention, the name of the main class (class which contain main method) should match the name of the file that holds the program.

**Compiling the program:**

* After successfully [setting up the environment](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/setting-environment-java/), we can open terminal in both Windows/Unix and can go to directory where the file – HelloWorld.java is present.
* Now, to compile the HelloWorld program, execute the compiler – javac , specifying the name of the **source** file on the command line, as shown:
* javac HelloWorld.java
* The compiler creates a file called HelloWorld.class (in present working directory) that contains the bytecode version of the program. Now, to execute our program, [**JVM**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/jvm-works-jvm-architecture/)(Java Virtual Machine) needs to be called using java, specifying the name of the **class** file on the command line, as shown:
* java HelloWorld

This will print “Hello, World” to the terminal screen.

## How JVM Works – JVM Architecture?

JVM (Java Virtual Machine) acts as a run-time engine to run Java applications. JVM is the one that actually calls the **main** method present in a java code. JVM is a part of JRE (Java Run Environment).

Java applications are called WORA (Write Once Run Everywhere). This means a programmer can develop Java code on one system and can expect it to run on any other Java enabled system without any adjustment. This is all possible because of JVM.

When we compile a *.java* file, a *.class* file (contains byte-code) with the same filename is generated by the Java compiler. This *.class* file goes into various steps when we run it. These steps together describe the whole JVM.

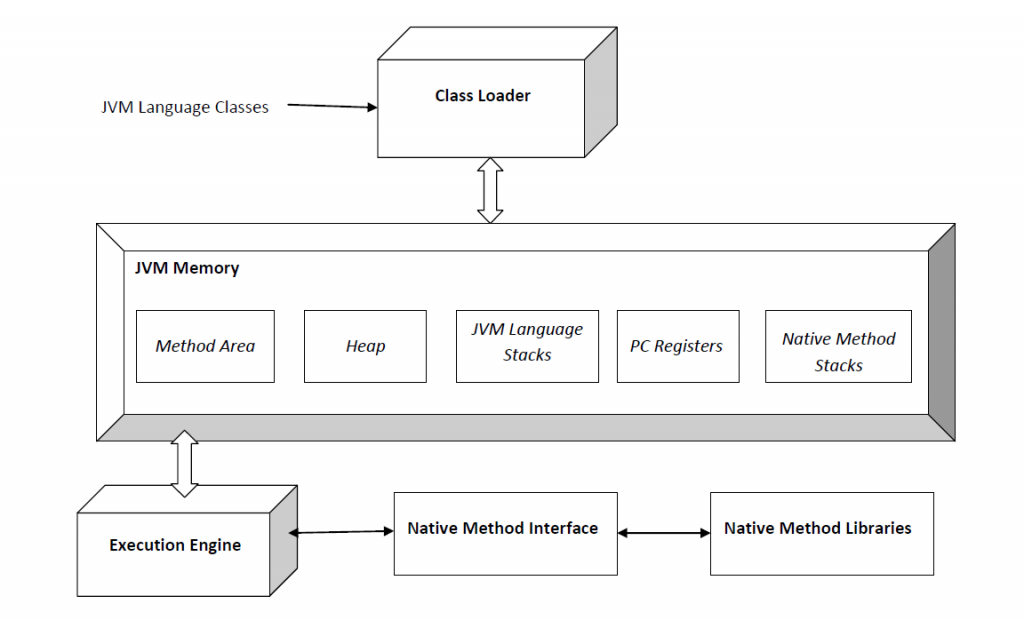
[](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/JVM.png)

Image Source: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Java_virtual_machine>

**Class Loader Subsystem**

It is mainly responsible for three activities.

* Loading
* Linking
* Initialization

**Loading:** The Class loader reads the *.class* file, generate the corresponding binary data and save it in method area. For each *.class* file, JVM stores following information in method area.

* Fully qualified name of the loaded class and its immediate parent class.
* Whether *.class* file is related to Class or Interface or Enum.
* Modifier, Variables and Method information etc.

After loading *.class* file, JVM creates an object of type Class to represent this file in the heap memory. Please note that this object is of type Class predefined in *java.lang* package. This Class object can be used by the programmer for getting class level information like name of class, parent name, methods and variable information etc. To get this object reference we can use *getClass()*method of [Object](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/object-class-in-java/) class.

|  |
| --- |
| // A Java program to demonstrate working of a Class type  // object created by JVM to represent .class file in  // memory.  import java.lang.reflect.Field;  import java.lang.reflect.Method;    // Java code to demonstrate use of Class object  // created by JVM  public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          Student s1 = new Student();            // Getting hold of Class object created          // by JVM.          Class c1 = s1.getClass();            // Printing type of object using c1.          System.out.println(c1.getName());            // getting all methods in an array          Method m[] = c1.getDeclaredMethods();          for (Method method : m)              System.out.println(method.getName());            // getting all fields in an array          Field f[] = c1.getDeclaredFields();          for (Field field : f)              System.out.println(field.getName());      }  }    // A sample class whose information is fetched above using  // its Class object.  class Student  {      private String name;      private int roll\_No;        public String getName()  {  return name;   }      public void setName(String name) { this.name = name; }      public int getRoll\_no()  { return roll\_No;  }      public void setRoll\_no(int roll\_no) {          this.roll\_No = roll\_no;      }  } |

Run on IDE

Output:

Student

getName

setName

getRoll\_no

setRoll\_no

name

roll\_No

**Note:** For every loaded *.class* file, only **one** object of Class is created.

Student s2 = new Student();

// c2 will point to same object where

// c1 is pointing

Class c2 = s2.getClass();

System.out.println(c1==c2); // true

**Linking:** Performs verification, preparation, and (optionally) resolution.

* *Verification*: It ensures the correctness of *.class* file i.e. it check whether this file is properly formatted and generated by valid compiler or not. If verification fails, we get run-time exception *java.lang.VerifyError*.
* *Preparation*: JVM allocates memory for class variables and initializing the memory to default values.
* *Resolution*: It is the process of replacing symbolic references from the type with direct references. It is done by searching into method area to locate the referenced entity.

**Initialization:** In this phase, all static variables are assigned with their values defined in the code and static block (if any). This is executed from top to bottom in a class and from parent to child in class hierarchy.  
In general there are three class loaders:

* *Bootstrap class loader*: Every JVM implementation must have a bootstrap class loader, capable of loading trusted classes. It loads core java API classes present in *JAVA\_HOME/jre/lib*directory. This path is popularly known as bootstrap path. It is implemented in native languages like C, C++.
* *Extension class loader*: It is child of bootstrap class loader. It loads the classes present in the extensions directories *JAVA\_HOME/jre/lib/ext*(Extension path) or any other directory specified by the java.ext.dirs system property. It is implemented in java by the *sun.misc.Launcher$ExtClassLoader* class.
* *System/Application class loader*: It is child of extension class loader. It is responsible to load classes from application class path. It internally uses Environment Variable which mapped to java.class.path. It is also implemented in Java by the *sun.misc.Launcher$AppClassLoader*class.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java code to demonstrate Class Loader subsystem  public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          // String class is loaded by bootstrap loader, and          // bootstrap loader is not Java object, hence null          System.out.println(String.class.getClassLoader());            // Test class is loaded by Application loader          System.out.println(Test.class.getClassLoader());      }  } |

Run on IDE

Output:

null

sun.misc.Launcher$AppClassLoader@73d16e93

**Note:**JVM follow Delegation-Hierarchy principle to load classes. System class loader delegate load request to extension class loader and extension class loader delegate request to boot-strap class loader. If class found in boot-strap path, class is loaded otherwise request again transfers to extension class loader and then to system class loader. At last if system class loader fails to load class, then we get run-time exception *java.lang.ClassNotFoundException*.

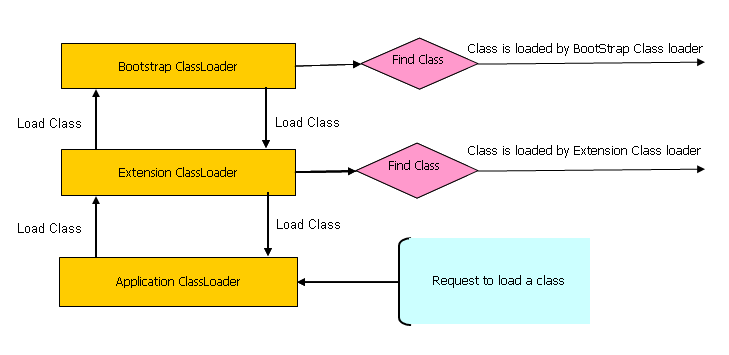
[](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/JVM1.png)

Image Source: <http://javarevisited.blogspot.in/2012/12/how-classloader-works-in-java.html>

**JVM Memory**

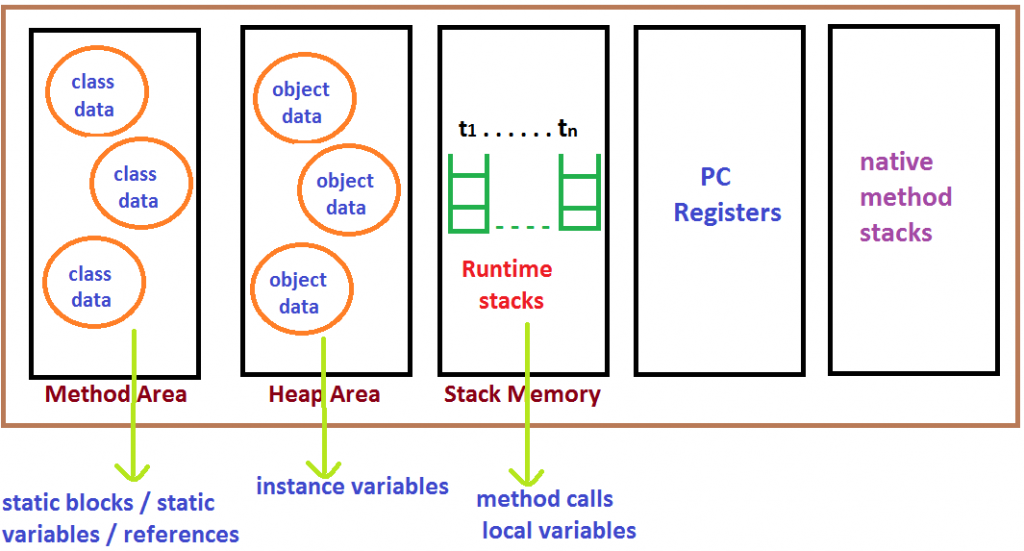
**Method area: In** method area, all class level information like class name, immediate parent class name, methods and variables information etc. are stored, including static variables. There is only one method area per JVM, and it is a shared resource.

**Heap area: Information** of all objects is stored in heap area. There is also one Heap Area per JVM. It is also a shared resource.

**Stack area: For** every thread, JVM create one run-time stack which is stored here. Every block of this stack is called activation record/stack frame which store methods calls. All local variables of that method are stored in their corresponding frame. After a thread terminate, it’s run-time stack will be destroyed by JVM. It is not a shared resource.

**PC Registers: Store** address of current execution instruction of a thread. Obviously each thread has separate PC Registers.

**Native method stacks: For** every thread, separate native stack is created. It stores native method information.

[](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/JVM2.png)  
Image Source: <http://java.scjp.jobs4times.com/fund/fund2.png>

**Execution Engine**

Execution engine execute the *.class* (bytecode). It reads the byte-code line by line, use data and information present in various memory area and execute instructions. It can be classified in three parts:-

* **Interpreter:** It interprets the bytecode line by line and then executes. The disadvantage here is that when one method is called multiple times, every time interpretation is required.
* **Just-In-Time Compiler (JIT):** It is used to increase efficiency of interpreter. It compiles the entire bytecode and changes it to native code so whenever interpreter see repeated method calls, JIT provide direct native code for that part so re-interpretation is not required, thus efficiency is improved.
* **Garbage Collector:** It destroy un-referenced objects. For more on Garbage Collector, refer [Garbage Collector](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/garbage-collection-java/).

**Java Native Interface (JNI):**

It is a interface which interacts with the Native Method Libraries and provides the native libraries(C, C++) required for the execution. It enables JVM to call C/C++ libraries and to be called by C/C++ libraries which may be specific to hardware.

**Native Method Libraries:**

It is a collection of the Native Libraries(C, C++) which are required by the Execution Engine.

## Differences between JDK, JRE and JVM

**JAVA DEVELOPMENT KIT**

The Java Development Kit (JDK) is a software development environment used for developing Java applications and applets. It includes the Java Runtime Environment (JRE), an interpreter/loader (Java), a compiler (javac), an archiver (jar), a documentation generator (Javadoc) and other tools needed in Java development.

**JAVA RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT**

**JRE** stands for **“Java Runtime Environment”** and may also be written as **“Java RTE.”** The Java Runtime Environment provides the minimum requirements for executing a Java application; it consists of the *Java Virtual Machine (JVM), core classes*, and *supporting files*.

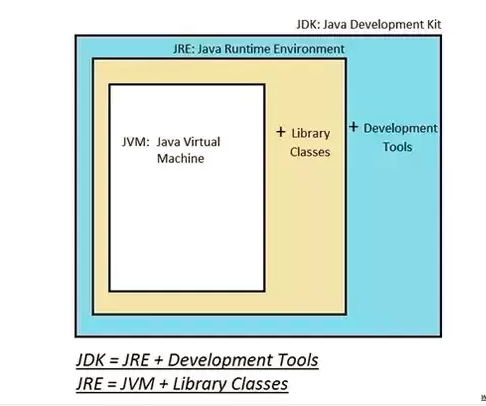
[**JAVA VIRTUAL MACHINE**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/jvm-works-jvm-architecture/)

It is:

* A **specification** where working of Java Virtual Machine is specified. But implementation provider is independent to choose the algorithm. Its implementation has been provided by Sun and other companies.
* An **implementation** is a computer program that meets the requirements of the JVM specification
* **Runtime Instance** Whenever you write java command on the command prompt to run the java class, an instance of JVM is created.

**Difference betweem JDK, JRE and JVM**

To understand the difference between these three, let us consider the following diagram.



* **JDK** – **Java Development Kit** (in short JDK) is Kit which provides the environment to **develop and execute (run)** the Java program. JDK is a kit(or package) which includes two things
  + 1. Development Tools(to provide an environment to develop your java programs)
    2. JRE (to execute your java program).

**Note:**JDK is only used by Java Developers.

* **JRE** – **Java Runtime Environment** (to say JRE) is an installation package which provides environment to **only run (not develop)** the java program (or application) onto your machine. JRE is only used by them who only wants to run the Java Programs i.e. end users of your system.
* **JVM** – **Java Virtual machine** (JVM) is a very important part of both JDK and JRE because it is contained or inbuilt in both. Whatever Java program you run using JRE or JDK goes into JVM and JVM is responsible for **executing the java program line by line** hence it is also known as interpreter.

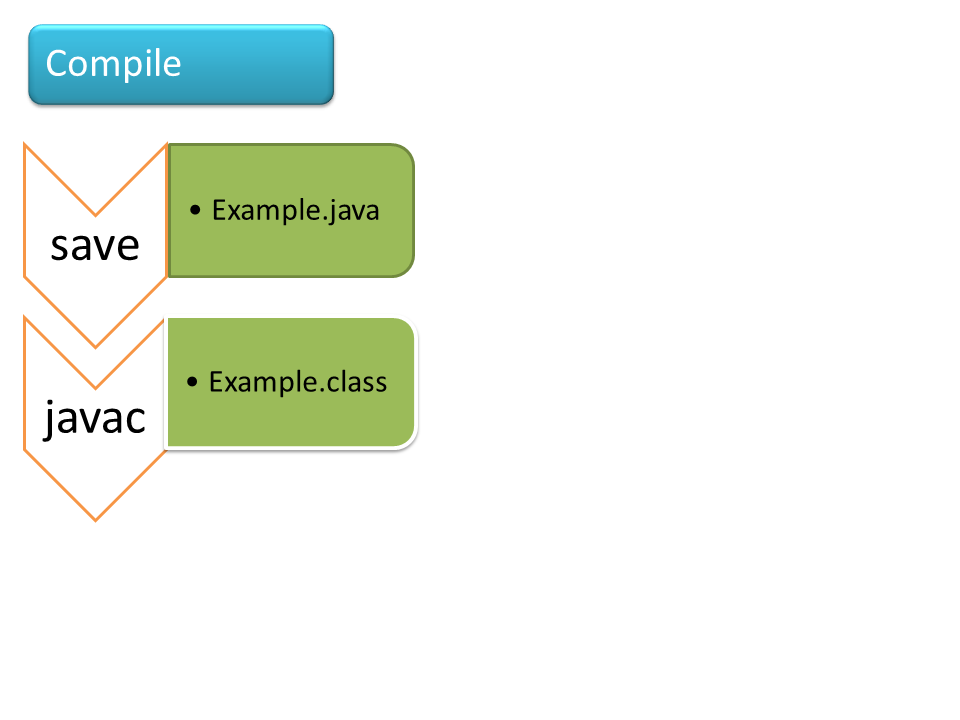
**How does JRE and JDK works?**

**What does JRE consists of?**

JRE consists of the following components:

* **Deployment technologies**, including deployment, Java Web Start and Java Plug-in.
* **User interface toolkits**, including *Abstract Window Toolkit (AWT), Swing, Java 2D, Accessibility, Image I/O, Print Service, Sound, drag and drop (DnD)* and *input methods*.
* **Integration libraries**, including *Interface Definition Language (IDL), Java Database Connectivity (JDBC), Java Naming and Directory Interface (JNDI), Remote Method Invocation (RMI), Remote Method Invocation Over Internet Inter-Orb Protocol (RMI-IIOP)* and *scripting*.
* **Other base libraries**, including *international support, input/output (I/O), extension mechanism, Beans, Java Management Extensions (JMX), Java Native Interface (JNI), Math, Networking, Override Mechanism, Security, Serialization* and *Java for XML Processing (XML JAXP)*.
* **Lang and util base libraries**, including *lang and util, management, versioning, zip, instrument, reflection, Collections, Concurrency Utilities, Java Archive (JAR), Logging, Preferences API, Ref Objects* and *Regular Expressions*.
* **Java Virtual Machine (JVM)**, including *Java HotSpot Client* and *Server Virtual Machines*.

**How does JRE works?**

To understand how the JRE works let us consider a Java source file saved as *Example.java*. The file is compiled into a set of Byte Code that is stored in a “*.class*” file. Here it will be “*Example.class*“.  
  
The following diagram depicts what is done at compile time.

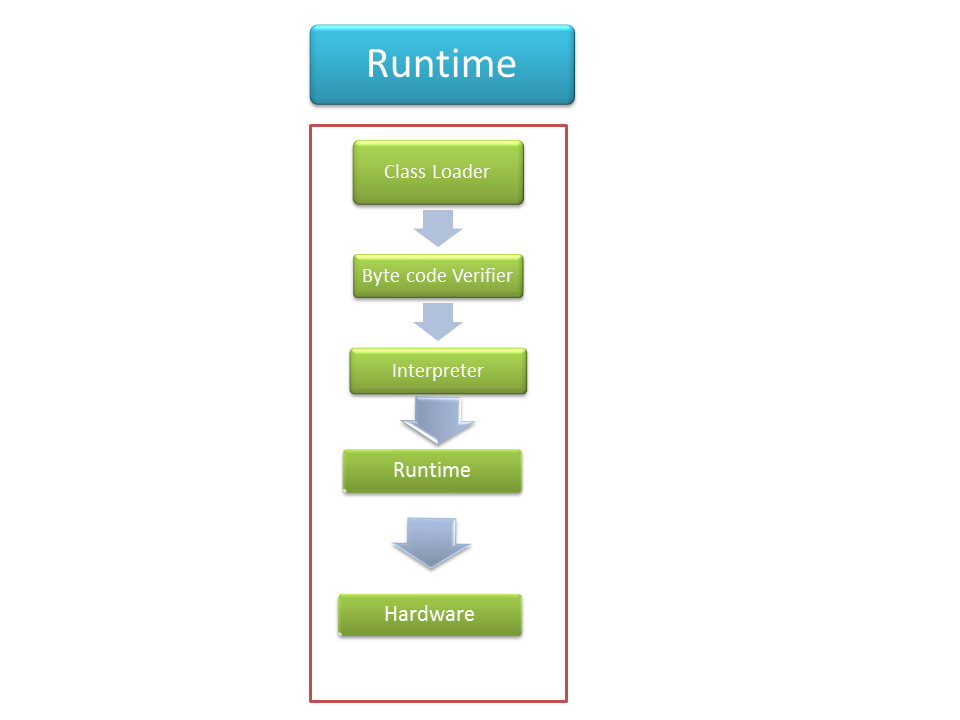
The following actions occur at runtime.

* **Class Loader**

The Class Loader loads all necessary classes needed for the execution of a program. It provides security by separating the namespaces of the local file system from that imported through the network. These files are loaded either from a hard disk, a network or from other sources.

* **Byte Code Verifier**

The JVM puts the code through the Byte Code Verifier that checks the format and checks for an illegal code. Illegal code, for example, is code that violates access rights on objects or violates the implementation of pointers.

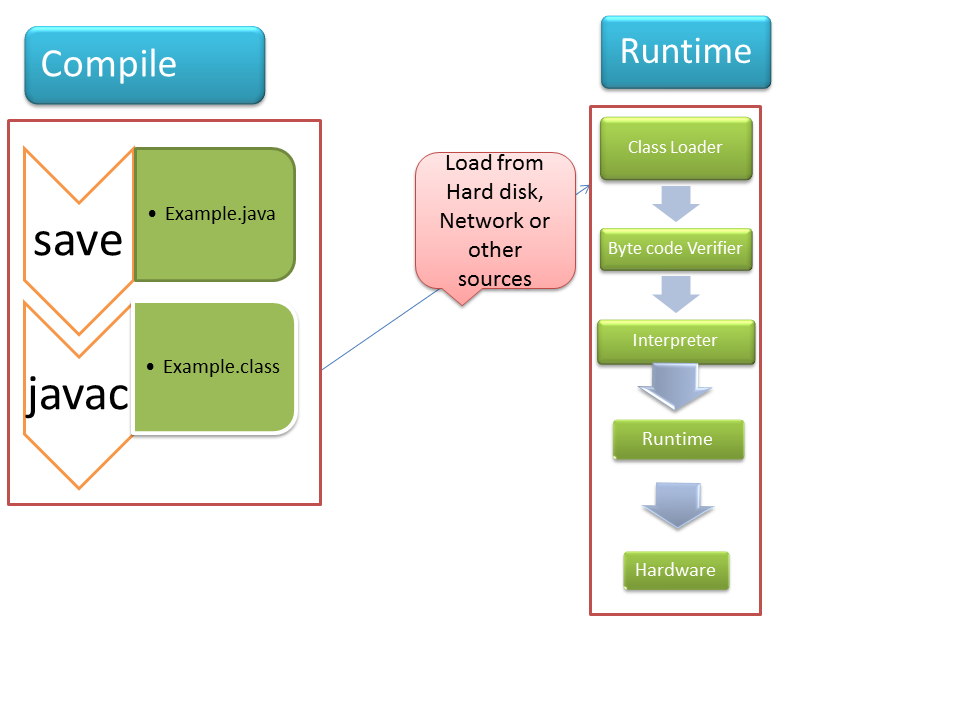
The Byte Code verifier ensures that the code adheres to the JVM specification and does not violate system integrity.  


* **Intrepreter**

At runtime the Byte Code is loaded, checked and run by the interpreter. The interpreter has the following two functions:

* + Execute the Byte Code
  + Make appropriate calls to the underlying hardware

Both operations can be shown as:

  
To understand the interactions between JDK and JRE consider the following diagram.



**How does JVM works?**

JVM becomes an instance of JRE at runtime of a Java program. It is widely known as a runtime interpreter.

JVM largely helps in the abstraction of inner implementation from the programmers who make use of libraries for their programmes from JDK.

## Does JVM create object of Main class (the class with main ())?

Consider following program.

|  |
| --- |
| class Main {      public static void main(String args[])      {          System.out.println("Hello");      }  } |

Output:

Hello

Does JVM create an object of class Main?

The answer is “No”. We have studied that the reason for main() static in Java is to make sure that the main() can be called without any instance. To justify the same, we can see that the following program compiles and runs fine.

|  |
| --- |
| // Not Main is abstract  abstract class Main {      public static void main(String args[])      {          System.out.println("Hello");      }  } |

Output:

Hello

Since we can’t create object of [abstract classes in Java](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/abstract-classes-in-java/), it is guaranteed that object of class with main() is not created by JVM.

## Is main method compulsory in Java?

The answer to this question depends on version of java you are using. Prior to JDK 5, main method was not mandatory in a java program.

* You could write your full code under [static block](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/g-fact-79/) and it ran normally.
  + The static block is first executed as soon as the class is loaded before the main(); method is invoked and therefore before the main() is called. main is usually declared as static method and hence [Java doesn’t need an object to call main method.](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/jvm-create-object-main-class-class-contains-main/)

However, From JDK6 main method is mandatory. If your program doesn’t contain main method, then you will get a run-time error “main method not found in the class”. Note that your program will successfully compile in this case, but at run-time, it will throw error.

|  |
| --- |
| // This program will successfully run  // prior to JDK 5  public class Test  {      // static block      static      {          System.out.println("program is running without main() method");      }  } |

Output:

* If run prior to JDK 5

program is running without main() method

* If run on JDK 6,7,8

Error: Main method not found in class Test, please define the main method as: public static void main(String[] args)

# Basics

## Widening Primitive Conversion in Java

Here is a small code snippet given. Try to guess the output

|  |
| --- |
| public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          System.out.print("Y" + "O");          System.out.print('L' + 'O');      }  } |

At first glance, we expect “YOLO” to be printed.

Actual Output:

“YO155”.

Explanation:  
When we use double quotes, the text is treated as a string and “YO” is printed, but when we use single quotes, the characters ‘L’ and ‘O’ are converted to int. This is called widening primitive conversion. After conversion to integer, the numbers are added (‘L’ is 76 and ‘O’ is 79) and 155 is printed.

Now try to guess the output of following:

|  |
| --- |
| public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          System.out.print("Y" + "O");          System.out.print('L');          System.out.print('O');      }  } |

Output: YOLO

Explanation: This will now print “YOLO” instead of “YO7679”. It is because the widening primitive conversion happens only when ‘+’ operator is present.

Widening primitive conversion is applied to convert either or both operands as specified by the following rules. The result of adding Java chars, shorts or bytes is an int:

* If either operand is of type double, the other is converted to double.
* Otherwise, if either operand is of type float, the other is converted to float.
* Otherwise, if either operand is of type long, the other is converted to long.
* Otherwise, both operands are converted to type int

## Interesting facts about null in Java

Almost all the programming languages are bonded with null. There is hardly a programmer, who is not troubled by null.

In Java, null is associated java.lang.NullPointerException. As it is a class in java.lang package, it is called when we try to perform some operations with or without null and sometimes we don’t even know where it has happened.

Below are some important points about null in java which every Java programmer should know:

**1. null is Case sensitive:** null is literal in Java and because keywords are **case-sensitive** in java, we can’t write NULL or 0 as in C language.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| public class Test  {      public static void main (String[] args) throws java.lang.Exception      {          // compile-time error : can't find symbol 'NULL'          Object obj = NULL;          //runs successfully          Object obj1 = null;      }  }  Output:  5: error: cannot find symbol  can't find symbol 'NULL'  ^  variable NULL  class Test  1 error  **2. Reference Variable value:**Any reference variable in Java has default value null.   |  | | --- | | public class Test  {      private static Object obj;      public static void main(String args[])      {          // it will print null;          System.out.println("Value of object obj is : " + obj);      }  } |   **Output:**  Value of object obj is : null  **3. Type of null**: Unlike common misconception, null is not Object or neither a type. It’s just a special value, which can be assigned to any reference type and you can type cast null to any type.  **Examples:**  // null can be assigned to String  String str = null;  // you can assign null to Integer also  Integer itr = null;  // null can also be assigned to Double  Double dbl = null;  // null can be type cast to String  String myStr = (String) null;  // it can also be type casted to Integer  Integer myItr = (Integer) null;  // yes it's possible, no error  Double myDbl = (Double) null;    **4. Autoboxing and unboxing:** During auto-boxing and unboxing operations, compiler simply throws Nullpointer exception error if a null value is assigned to primitive boxed data type.   |  | | --- | | public class Test  {      public static void main (String[] args) throws java.lang.Exception      {              //An integer can be null, so this is fine              Integer i = null;                //Unboxing null to integer throws NullpointerException              int a = i;      }  } |   Output:  Exception in thread "main" java.lang.NullPointerException  at Test.main(Test.java:6)  **5. instanceof operator:**The java instanceof operator is used to test whether the object is an instance of the specified type (class or subclass or interface). At run time, the result of the instanceof operator is true if the value of the Expression is not null.  This is an important property of instanceof operation which makes it useful for type casting checks.   |  | | --- | | public class Test  {      public static void main (String[] args) throws java.lang.Exception      {          Integer i = null;          Integer j = 10;            //prints false          System.out.println(i instanceof Integer);            //Compiles successfully          System.out.println(j instanceof Integer);      }  } |   Output:  false  true  **6. Static vs Non static Methods:**We cannot call a non-static method on a reference variable with null value, it will throw NullPointerException, but we can call static method with reference variables with null values. Since static methods are bonded using static binding, they won’t throw Null pointer Exception.   |  | | --- | | public class Test  {      public static void main(String args[])      {          Test obj= null;          obj.staticMethod();          obj.nonStaticMethod();      }        private static void staticMethod()      {          //Can be called by null reference          System.out.println("static method, can be called by null reference");        }        private void nonStaticMethod()      {          //Cannot be called by null reference          System.out.print(" Non-static method- ");          System.out.println("cannot be called by null reference");        }    } |   Output:  static method, can be called by null referenceException in thread "main"  java.lang.NullPointerException  at Test.main(Test.java:5)  **7. == and !=**The comparision and not equal to operators are allowed with null in Java. This can made useful in checking of null with objects in java.   |  | | --- | | public class Test  {      public static void main(String args[])      {        //return true;      System.out.println(null==null);        //return false;      System.out.println(null!=null);        }  } |   Output:  true  false |

# OOP Concepts

## How are Java objects stored in memory?

In Java, all objects are dynamically allocated on Heap. This is different from C++ where objects can be allocated memory either on Stack or on Heap. In C++, when we allocate abject using new(), the abject is allocated on Heap, otherwise on Stack if not global or static.

In Java, when we only declare a variable of a class type, only a reference is created (memory is not allocated for the object). To allocate memory to an object, we must use new(). So the object is always allocated memory on heap (See [this](https://docs.oracle.com/cd/E13150_01/jrockit_jvm/jrockit/geninfo/diagnos/garbage_collect.html) for more details).

For example, following program fails in compilation. Compiler gives error “Error here because t is not initiated”.

|  |
| --- |
| class Test {      // class contents      void show() {          System.out.println("Test::show() called");      }  }    public class Main {      public static void main(String[] args) {          Test t;          t.show(); // Error here because t is not initialed      }  } |

Allocating memory using new() makes above program work.

|  |
| --- |
| class Test {      // class contents      void show() {          System.out.println("Test::show() called");      }  }    public class Main {      public static void main(String[] args) {          Test t = new Test(); //all objects are dynamically allocated          t.show(); // No error      }  } |

## Different ways to create objects in Java

As you all know, in Java, a class provides the blueprint for objects, you create an object from a class. There are many different ways to create objects in Java.

**Following are some ways in which you can create objects in Java:**

**1) Using new Keyword :** Using new keyword is the most basic way to create an object. This is the most common way to create an object in java. Almost 99% of objects are created in this way. By using this method we can call any constructor we want to call (no argument or parameterized constructors).

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate creation of Object  // using new keyword  public class NewKeywordExample  {      String name = "GeeksForGeeks";      public static void main(String[] args)      {          // Here we are creating Object of          // NewKeywordExample using new keyword          NewKeywordExample obj = new NewKeywordExample();          System.out.println(obj.name);      }  } |

Output:

GeeksForGeeks

**2) Using**[**New Instance**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/new-operator-vs-newinstance-method-java/)**:**If we know the name of the class & if it has a public default constructor we can create an object –**Class.forName**. We can use it to create the Object of a Class. Class.forName actually loads the Class in Java but doesn’t create any Object. To Create an Object of the Class you have to use the new Instance Method of the Class.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate creation of Object  // using new Instance  public class NewInstanceExample  {      String name = "GeeksForGeeks";      public static void main(String[] args)      {          try          {              Class cls = Class.forName("NewInstanceExample");              NewInstanceExample obj =                      (NewInstanceExample) cls.newInstance();              System.out.println(obj.name);          }          catch (ClassNotFoundException e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }          catch (InstantiationException e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }          catch (IllegalAccessException e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }      }  } |

Output:

GeeksForGeeks

**3) Using**[**clone() method:**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/clone-method-in-java-2/) Whenever clone() is called on any object, the JVM actually creates a new object and copies all content of the previous object into it. Creating an object using the clone method does not invoke any constructor.  
To use clone() method on an object we need to implement **Cloneable** and define the clone() method in it.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate creation of Object  // using clone() method  public class CloneExample implements Cloneable  {      @Override      protected Object clone() throws CloneNotSupportedException      {          return super.clone();      }      String name = "GeeksForGeeks";        public static void main(String[] args)      {          CloneExample obj1 = new CloneExample();          try          {              CloneExample obj2 = (CloneExample) obj1.clone();              System.out.println(obj2.name);          }          catch (CloneNotSupportedException e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }      }  } |

Output:

GeeksForGeeks

**Note :**

* Here we are creating the clone of an existing Object and not any new Object.
* Class need to implement Cloneable Interface otherwise it will throw **CloneNotSupportedException**.

**4) Using**[**deserialization**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/serialization-in-java/)**:** Whenever we serialize and then deserialize an object, JVM creates a separate object. In **deserialization**, JVM doesn’t use any constructor to create the object.

To deserialize an object we need to implement the Serializable interface in the class.

**Serializing an Object :**

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate Serializing  // an Object.  import java.io.\*;    class DeserializationExample implements Serializable  {      private String name;      DeserializationExample(String name)      {          this.name = name;      }        public static void main(String[] args)      {          try          {              DeserializationExample d =                      new DeserializationExample("GeeksForGeeks");              FileOutputStream f = new FileOutputStream("file.txt");              ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(f);              oos.writeObject(d);              oos.close();              f.close();          }          catch (Exception e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }      }  } |

Object of DeserializationExample class is serialized using writeObject() method and written to file.txt file.

**Deserialization of Object :**

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate creation of Object  // using Deserialization.  import java.io.\*;    public class DeserializationExample  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          try          {              DeserializationExample d;              FileInputStream f = new FileInputStream("file.txt");              ObjectOutputStream oos = new ObjectOutputStream(f);              d = (DeserializationExample)oos.readObject();          }          catch (Exception e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }          System.out.println(d.name);      }  } |

Output:

GeeksForGeeks

**5) Using newInstance() method of Constructor class :** This is similar to the newInstance() method of a class. There is one newInstance() method in the **java.lang.reflect.Constructor**class which we can use to create objects. It can also call parameterized constructor, and private constructor by using this newInstance() method.

Both newInstance() methods are known as reflective ways to create objects. In fact newInstance() method of Class internally uses newInstance() method of Constructor class.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate creation of Object  // using newInstance() method of Constructor class  import java.lang.reflect.\*;    public class ReflectionExample  {      private String name;      ReflectionExample()      {      }      public void setName(String name)      {          this.name = name;      }      public static void main(String[] args)      {          try          {              Constructor<ReflectionExample> constructor                  = ReflectionExample.class.getDeclaredConstructor();              ReflectionExample r = constructor.newInstance();              r.setName("GeeksForGeeks");              System.out.println(r.name);          }          catch (Exception e)          {              e.printStackTrace();          }      }  } |

Output:

GeeksForGeeks

## Shadowing of static functions in Java [(Also called Method Hiding)](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/g-fact-63/)

In Java, if name of a derived class static function is same as base class static function then the derived class static function shadows (or conceals) the base class static function. For example, the following Java code prints “A.fun()”

|  |
| --- |
| // file name: Main.java  class A {     static void fun() {        System.out.println("A.fun()");     }  }    class B extends A {     static void fun() {        System.out.println("B.fun()");     }  }    public class Main {     public static void main(String args[]) {        A a = new B();        a.fun();  // prints A.fun()     }  } |

If we make both A.fun() and B.fun() as non-static then the above program would print “B.fun()”.

## Runtime Polymorphism with Data Members

In Java, we can override methods only, not the variables (data members), so runtime polymorphism cannot be achieved by data members.

 For example:

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate the fact that  // runtime polymorphism cannot be achieved  // by data members    // class A  class A  {      int x = 10;  }    // class B  class B extends A  {      int x = 20;  }    // Driver class  public class Test  {      public static void main(String args[])      {          A a = new B(); // object of type B            // Data member of class A will be accessed          System.out.println(a.x);      }  } |

Output:

10

**Explanation**: In above program, both the class A(super class) and B(sub class) have a common variable ‘x’. Now we make object of class B, referred by ‘a’ which is of type of class A. Since variables are not overridden, so the statement “a.x” will always refer to data member of super class.

**Advantages of Dynamic Method Dispatch**

1. Dynamic method dispatch allow Java to support [overriding of methods](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/overriding-in-java/) which is central for run-time polymorphism.
2. It allows a class to specify methods that will be common to all of its derivatives, while allowing subclasses to define the specific implementation of some or all of those methods.
3. It also allow subclasses to add its specific methods subclasses to define the specific implementation of some.

[**Static vs Dynamic binding**](http://www.geeksforgeeks.org/static-vs-dynamic-binding-in-java/)

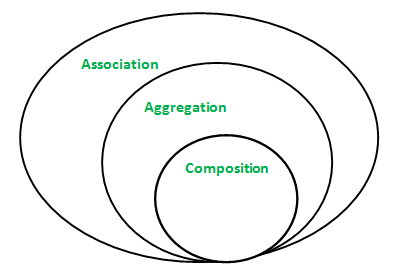
* Static binding is done during compile-time while dynamic binding is done during run-time.
* private, final and static methods and variables uses static binding and bonded by compiler while overridden methods are bonded during runtime based upon type of runtime object

## Association, Composition and Aggregation in Java

**Association**

Association is relation between two separate classes which establishes through their Objects. Association can be one-to-one, one-to-many, many-to-one, many-to-many.

In Object-Oriented programming, an Object communicates to other Object to use functionality and services provided by that object. Composition and Aggregation are the two forms of association.

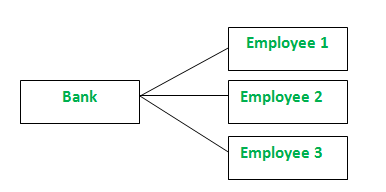
[](http://cdncontribute.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/AssociationAggregation-and-Composition.png)

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate the  // concept of Association  import java.io.\*;    // class bank  class Bank  {      private String name;        // bank name      Bank(String name)      {          this.name = name;      }        public String getBankName()      {          return this.name;      }  }    // employee class  class Employee  {      private String name;        // employee name      Employee(String name)      {          this.name = name;      }        public String getEmployeeName()      {          return this.name;      }  }    // Association between both the  // classes in main method  class Association  {      public static void main (String[] args)      {          Bank bank = new Bank("Axis");          Employee emp = new Employee("Neha");            System.out.println(emp.getEmployeeName() +                 " is employee of " + bank.getBankName());      }  } |

Output:

Neha is employee of Axis

In above example two separate classes Bank and Employee are associated through their Objects. Bank can have many employees, so it is a one-to-many relationship.

[](http://cdncontribute.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/Association-in-Java.png)

**Aggregation**

It is a special form of Association where:

* It represents Has-A relationship.
* It is a unidirectional association i.e. a one way relationship. For example, department can have students but vice versa is not possible and thus unidirectional in nature.
* In Aggregation, both the entries can survive individually which means ending one entity will not affect the other entity.

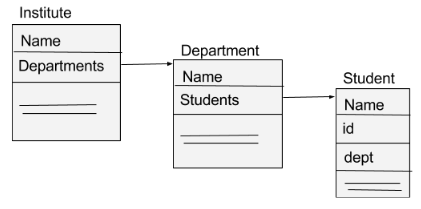
|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate  //the concept of Aggregation.  import java.io.\*;  import java.util.\*;    // student class  class Student  {      String name;      int id ;      String dept;        Student(String name, int id, String dept)      {            this.name = name;          this.id = id;          this.dept = dept;        }  }    /\* Department class contains list of student  Objects. It is associated with student  class through its Object(s). \*/  class Department  {        String name;      private List<Student> students;      Department(String name, List<Student> students)      {            this.name = name;          this.students = students;        }        public List<Student> getStudents()      {          return students;      }  }    /\* Institute class contains list of Department  Objects. It is asoociated with Department  class through its Object(s).\*/  class Institute  {        String instituteName;      private List<Department> departments;        Institute(String instituteName, List<Department> departments)      {          this.instituteName = instituteName;          this.departments = departments;      }        // count total students of all departments      // in a given institute      public int getTotalStudentsInInstitute()      {          int noOfStudents = 0;          List<Student> students;          for(Department dept : departments)          {              students = dept.getStudents();              for(Student s : students)              {                  noOfStudents++;              }          }          return noOfStudents;      }    }    // main method  class GFG  {      public static void main (String[] args)      {          Student s1 = new Student("Mia", 1, "CSE");          Student s2 = new Student("Priya", 2, "CSE");          Student s3 = new Student("John", 1, "EE");          Student s4 = new Student("Rahul", 2, "EE");            // making a List of          // CSE Students.          List <Student> cse\_students = new ArrayList<Student>();          cse\_students.add(s1);          cse\_students.add(s2);            // making a List of          // EE Students          List <Student> ee\_students = new ArrayList<Student>();          ee\_students.add(s3);          ee\_students.add(s4);            Department CSE = new Department("CSE", cse\_students);          Department EE = new Department("EE", ee\_students);            List <Department> departments = new ArrayList<Department>();          departments.add(CSE);          departments.add(EE);            // creating an instance of Institute.          Institute institute = new Institute("BITS", departments);            System.out.print("Total students in institute: ");          System.out.print(institute.getTotalStudentsInInstitute());      }  } |

Output:

Total students in institute: 4

In this example, there is an Institute which has no. of departments like CSE, EE. Every department has no. of students. So, we make a Institute class which has a reference to Object or no. of Objects (i.e. List of Objects) of the Department class. That means Institute class is associated with Department class through its Object(s). And Department class has also a reference to Object or Objects (i.e. List of Objects) of Student class means it is associated with Student class through its Object(s).

**It represents a Has-A relationship.**

[](http://cdncontribute.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/Aggregation_1.png)

When do we use Aggregation?

Code reuse is best achieved by aggregation.

**Composition**

Composition is a restricted form of Aggregation in which two entities are highly dependent on each other.

* It represents part-of relationship.
* In composition, both the entities are dependent on each other.
* When there is a composition between two entities, the composed object cannot exist without the other entity.

Let’s take example of Library.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate  // the concept of Composition  import java.io.\*;  import java.util.\*;    // class book  class Book  {        public String title;      public String author;        Book(String title, String author)      {            this.title = title;          this.author = author;      }  }    // Libary class contains  // list of books.  class Library  {        // reference to refer to list of books.      private final List<Book> books;        Library (List<Book> books)      {          this.books = books;      }        public List<Book> getTotalBooksInLibrary(){           return books;      }    }    // main method  class GFG  {      public static void main (String[] args)      {            // Creating the Objects of Book class.          Book b1 = new Book("EffectiveJ Java", "Joshua Bloch");          Book b2 = new Book("Thinking in Java", "Bruce Eckel");          Book b3 = new Book("Java: The Complete Reference", "Herbert Schildt");            // Creating the list which contains the          // no. of books.          List<Book> books = new ArrayList<Book>();          books.add(b1);          books.add(b2);          books.add(b3);            Library library = new Library(books);            List<Book> bks = library.getTotalBooksInLibrary();          for(Book bk : bks){                System.out.println("Title : " + bk.title + " and "              +" Author : " + bk.author);          }      }  } |

Output

Title : EffectiveJ Java and Author : Joshua Bloch

Title : Thinking in Java and Author : Bruce Eckel

Title : Java: The Complete Reference and Author : Herbert Schildt

In above example a library can have no. of books on same or different subjects. So, if Library gets destroyed then All books within that particular library will be destroyed. I.e. book cannot exist without library. That’s why it is composition.

**Aggregation vs Composition**

1. Dependency: Aggregation implies a relationship where the child can exist independentlyof the parent. For example, Bank and Employee, delete the Bank and the Employee still exist. whereas Composition implies a relationship where the child cannot exist independent of the parent. Example: Human and heart, heart don’t exist separate to a Human
2. Type of Relationship: Aggregation relation is “has-a” and composition is “part-of”relation.
3. Type of association: Composition is a strong Association whereas Aggregation is a weakAssociation.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to illustrate the difference between Aggregation and Composition.    import java.io.\*;    // Engine class which will be used by car. So 'Car' class will have a field of Engine type.  class Engine  {      // starting an engine.      public void work()      {           System.out.println("Engine of car has been started ");         }  }    // Engine class  final class Car  {       // For a car to move, it need to have an engine.      private final Engine engine; // Composition      //private Engine engine;     // Aggregation        Car(Engine engine)      {          this.engine = engine;      }        // car start moving by starting engine      public void move()      {        //if(engine != null)          {              engine.work();              System.out.println("Car is moving ");          }      }  }    class GFG  {      public static void main (String[] args)      {           // making an engine by creating an instance of Engine class.          Engine engine = new Engine();            // Making a car with engine. so we are passing a engine instance as an argument while          // creating instance of Car.          Car car = new Car(engine);          car.move();        }  } |

Output:

Engine of car has been started

Car is moving

In case of aggregation, the Car also performs its functions through an Engine. But the Engine is not always an internal part of the Car. An engine can be swapped out or even can be removed from the car. That’ why we make The Engine type field non-final.

**Encapsulation vs Data Abstraction**

1. [Encapsulation](http://contribute.geeksforgeeks.org/encapsulation-in-java/) is data hiding (information hiding) while Abstraction is detail hiding (implementation hiding).
2. While encapsulation groups together data and methods that act upon the data, data abstraction deals with exposing the interface to the user and hiding the details of implementation.

**Advantages of Abstraction**

1. It reduces the complexity of viewing the things.
2. Avoids code duplication and increases reusability.
3. Helps to increase security of an application or program as only important details are provided to the user.

## Covariant return types in Java

Before JDK 5.0, it was not possible to [override](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/overriding-in-java/) a method by changing the return type. When we override a parent class method, the name, argument types and return type of the overriding method in child class has to be exactly same as that of parent class method. Overriding method was said to be invariant with respect to return type.

Covariant return types

Java 5.0 onwards it is possible to have different return type for a overriding method in child class, but child’s return type should be sub-type of parent’s return type. Overriding method becomes variant with respect to return type.

Co-variant return type is based on [Liskov substitution principle](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Liskov_substitution_principle).

Below is the simple example to understand the co-variant return type with method overriding.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to demonstrate that we can have  // different return types if return type in  // overridden method is sub-type    // Two classes used for return types.  class A {}  class B extends A {}    class Base  {      A fun()      {          System.out.println("Base fun()");          return new A();      }  }    class Derived extends Base  {      B fun()      {          System.out.println("Derived fun()");          return new B();      }  }    public class Main  {      public static void main(String args[])      {         Base base = new Base();         base.fun();           Derived derived = new Derived();         derived.fun();      }  } |

Output:

Base fun()

Derived fun()

Note: If we swap return types of Base and Derived, then above program would not work. Please see [this](https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/mqAFFv) program for example.

**Advantages:**

* It helps to avoid confusing type casts present in the class hierarchy and thus making the code readable, usable and maintainable.
* We get a liberty to have more specific return types when overriding methods.
* Help in preventing run-time ClassCastExceptions on returns.

## Object class in Java

**Object** class is present in **java.lang** package. Every class in Java is directly or indirectly derived from the **Object** class. If a Class does not extend any other class then it is direct child class of **Object** and if extends other class then it is an indirectly derived. Therefore the Object class methods are available to all Java classes. Hence Object class acts as a root of inheritance hierarchy in any Java Program.

**Using Object class methods**

There are 12 methods in **Object** class:

* **toString()**: toString() provides String representation of an Object and used to convert an object to String. The default toString() method for class Object returns a string consisting of the name of the class of which the object is an instance, the at-sign character `@’, and the unsigned hexadecimal representation of the hash code of the object. In other words, it is defined as:

// Default behavior of toString() is to print class name, then

// @, then unsigned hexadecimal representation of the hash code

// of the object

public String toString()

{

return getClass().getName() + "@" + Integer.toHexString(hashCode());

}

It is always recommended to override **toString()** method to get our own String representation of Object. For more on override of toString() method refer – [Overriding toString() in Java](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/overriding-tostring-method-in-java/)

**Note :** Whenever we try to print any Object reference, then internally toString() method is called.

Student s = new Student();

// Below two statements are equivalent

System.out.println(s);

System.out.println(s.toString());

* **hashCode()**: For every object, JVM generates a unique number which is hashcode. It returns distinct integers for distinct objects. A common misconception about this method is that hashCode() method returns the address of object, which is not correct. It convert the internal address of object to an integer by using an algorithm. The hashCode() method is **native** because in Java it is impossible to find address of an object, so it uses native languages like C/C++ to find address of the object.

**Use of hashCode() method :** Returns a hash value that is used to search object in a collection. JVM (Java Virtual Machine) uses hashcode method while saving objects into hashing related data structures like HashSet, HashMap, Hashtable etc.

The main advantage of saving objects based on Hash code is that searching becomes easy.

**Note:** Override of **hashCode()** method needs to be done such that for every object we generate a unique number. For example,for a Student class we can return roll no. of student from hashCode() method as it is unique.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to demonstrate working of  // hasCode() and toString()  public class Student  {      static int last\_roll = 100;      int roll\_no;        // Constructor      Student()      {          roll\_no = last\_roll;          last\_roll++;      }        // Overriding hashCode()      @Override      public int hashCode()      {          return roll\_no;      }        // Driver code      public static void main(String args[])      {          Student s = new Student();            // Below two statements are equivalent          System.out.println(s);          System.out.println(s.toString());      }  } |

Output:

Student@64

Student@64

Note that 4\*160 + 6\*161 = 100

* **equals(Object obj)**: Compares the given object to “this” object (the object on which the method is called). It gives a generic way to compare objects for equality. It is recommended to override **equals(Object obj)** method to get our own equality condition on Objects. For more on override of equals(Object obj) method refer – [Overriding equals method in Java](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/overriding-equals-method-in-java/)

**Note :** It is generally necessary to override the **hashCode()** method whenever this method is overridden, so as to maintain the general contract for the hashCode method, which states that equal objects must have equal hash codes.

* **getClass()** : Returns the class object of “this” object and used to get actual runtime class of the object. It can also be used to get metadata of this class. The returned Class object is the object that is locked by static synchronized methods of the represented class. As it is final so we don’t override it.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to demonstrate working of getClass()  public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          Object obj = new String("GeeksForGeeks");          Class c = obj.getClass();          System.out.println("Class of Object obj is : "                             + c.getName());      }  } |

* Output:

Class of Object obj is : java.lang.String

* **Note :**After loading a .class file, JVM will create an object of the type java.lang.Class in the Heap area. We can use this class object to get Class level information. It is widely used in[Reflection](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/reflection-in-java/)
* **finalize()** method : This method is called just before an object is garbage collected. It is called by the [Garbage Collector](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/garbage-collection-java/) on an object when garbage collector determines that there are no more references to the object. We should override finalize() method to dispose system resources, perform clean-up activities and minimize memory leaks. For example before destroying Servlet objects web container, always called finalize method to perform clean-up activities of the session.  
  **Note: finalize** method is called just **once** on an object even though that object is eligible for garbage collection multiple times.

|  |
| --- |
| // Java program to demonstrate working of finalize()  public class Test  {      public static void main(String[] args)      {          Test t = new Test();          System.out.println(t.hashCode());            t = null;            // calling garbage collector          System.gc();            System.out.println("end");      }        @Override      protected void finalize()      {          System.out.println("finalize method called");      }  } |
|  |

Output:

366712642

end

finalize method called

* **clone()** : It returns a new object that is exactly the same as this object. For clone() method refer [Clone()](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/clone-method-in-java-2/).
* The remaining three methods **wait()**, **notify()** **notifyAll()** are related to Concurrency. Refer

[Inter-thread Communication in Java](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/inter-thread-communication-java/)for details.

## Overriding equals method in Java

Consider the following Java program:

|  |
| --- |
| class Complex {      private double re, im;        public Complex(double re, double im) {          this.re = re;          this.im = im;      }  }    // Driver class to test the Complex class  public class Main {      public static void main(String[] args) {          Complex c1 = new Complex(10, 15);          Complex c2 = new Complex(10, 15);          if (c1 == c2) {              System.out.println("Equal ");          } else {              System.out.println("Not Equal ");          }      }  } |

Output:

Not Equal

The reason for printing “Not Equal” is simple: when we compare c1 and c2, it is checked whether both c1 and c2 refer to same object or not ([object variables are always references in Java](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/archives/8926)). c1 and c2 refer to two different objects, hence the value (c1 == c2) is false. If we create another reference say c3 like following, then (c1 == c3) will give true.

|  |
| --- |
| Complex c3 = c1;  // (c3 == c1) will be true |

So, how do we check for equality of values inside the objects? All classes in Java inherit from the Object class, directly or indirectly (See point 1 of [this](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/archives/15055)). The [Object class](http://docs.oracle.com/javase/1.5.0/docs/api/java/lang/Object.html) has some basic methods like clone(), toString(), equals(),.. etc. We can override the equals method in our class to check whether two objects have same data or not.

|  |
| --- |
| class Complex {        private double re, im;        public Complex(double re, double im) {          this.re = re;          this.im = im;      }        // Overriding equals() to compare two Complex objects      @Override      public boolean equals(Object o) {            // If the object is compared with itself then return true          if (o == this) {              return true;          }            /\* Check if o is an instance of Complex or not            "null instanceof [type]" also returns false \*/          if (!(o instanceof Complex)) {              return false;          }            // typecast o to Complex so that we can compare data members          Complex c = (Complex) o;            // Compare the data members and return accordingly          return Double.compare(re, c.re) == 0                  && Double.compare(im, c.im) == 0;      }  }    // Driver class to test the Complex class  public class Main {        public static void main(String[] args) {          Complex c1 = new Complex(10, 15);          Complex c2 = new Complex(10, 15);          if (c1.equals(c2)) {              System.out.println("Equal ");          } else {              System.out.println("Not Equal ");          }      }  } |

Output:

Equal

As a side note, when we override equals(), it is recommended to also override the hashCode() method. If we don’t do so, equal objects may get different hash-values; and hash based collections, including HashMap, HashSet, and Hashtable do not work properly.

### Introduction

The Java super class java.lang.Object has two very important methods defined in it. They are -

* public boolean equals(Object obj)
* public int hashCode()

These methods prove very important when user classes are confronted with other Java classes, when objects of such classes are added to collections etc. These two methods have become part of Sun Certified Java Programmer 1.4 exam (SCJP 1.4) objectives. This article intends to provide the necessary information about these two methods that would help the SCJP 1.4 exam aspirants. Moreover, this article hopes to help you understand the mechanism and general contracts of these two methods; irrespective of whether you are interested in taking the SCJP 1.4 exam or not. This article should help you while implementing these two methods in your own classes.

**public boolean equals(Object obj)**

This method checks if some other object passed to it as an argument is equal to the object on which this method is invoked. The default implementation of this method in Object class simply checks if two object references x and y refer to the same object. i.e. It checks if x == y. This particular comparison is also known as "shallow comparison". However, the classes providing their own implementations of the equals method are supposed to perform a "deep comparison"; by actually comparing the relevant data members. Since Object class has no data members that define its state, it simply performs shallow comparison.  
  
This is what the JDK 1.4 API documentation says about the equals method of Object class- 

Indicates whether some other object is "equal to" this one.

The equals method implements an equivalence relation:

* It is reflexive: for any reference value x, x.equals(x) should return true.
* It is symmetric: for any reference values x and y, x.equals(y) should return true if and only if y.equals(x) returns true.
* It is transitive: for any reference values x, y, and z, if x.equals(y) returns true and y.equals(z) returns true, then x.equals(z) should return true.
* It is consistent: for any reference values x and y, multiple invocations of x.equals(y) consistently return true or consistently return false, provided no information used in equals comparisons on the object is modified.
* For any non-null reference value x, x.equals(null) should return false.

The equals method for class Object implements the most discriminating possible equivalence relation on objects; that is, for any reference values x and y, this method returns true if and only if x and y refer to the same object (x==y has the value true).  
  
Note that it is generally necessary to override the hashCode method whenever this method is overridden, so as to maintain the general contract for the hashCode method, which states that equal objects must have equal hash codes.

The contract of the equals method precisely states what it requires. Once you understand it completely, implementation becomes relatively easy, moreover it would be correct. Let's understand what each of this really means.

1. **Reflexive -** It simply means that the object must be equal to itself, which it would be at any given instance; unless you intentionally override the equals method to behave otherwise.
2. **Symmetric -** It means that if object of one class is equal to another class object, the other class object must be equal to this class object. In other words, one object can not unilaterally decide whether it is equal to another object; two objects, and consequently the classes to which they belong, must bilaterally decide if they are equal or not. They BOTH must agree.  
   Hence, it is improper and incorrect to have your own class with equals method that has comparison with an object of java.lang.String class, or with any other built-in Java class for that matter. It is very important to understand this requirement properly, because it is quite likely that a naive implementation of equals method may violate this requirement which would result in undesired consequences.
3. **Transitive -** It means that if the first object is equal to the second object and the second object is equal to the third object; then the first object is equal to the third object. In other words, if two objects agree that they are equal, and follow the symmetry principle, one of them can not decide to have a similar contract with another object of different class. All three must agree and follow symmetry principle for various permutations of these three classes.  
   Consider this example - A, B and C are three classes. A and B both implement the equals method in such a way that it provides comparison for objects of class A and class B. Now, if author of class B decides to modify its equals method such that it would also provide equality comparison with class C; he would be violating the transitivity principle. Because, no proper equals comparison mechanism would exist for class A and class C objects.
4. **Consistent -** It means that if two objects are equal, they must remain equal as long as they are not modified. Likewise, if they are not equal, they must remain non-equal as long as they are not modified. The modification may take place in any one of them or in both of them.
5. **null comparison -** It means that any instantiable class object is not equal to null, hence the equals method must return false if a null is passed to it as an argument. You have to ensure that your implementation of the equals method returns false if a null is passed to it as an argument.
6. **Equals & Hash Code relationship -** The last note from the API documentation is very important, it states the relationship requirement between these two methods. It simply means that if two objects are equal, then they must have the same hash code, however the opposite is NOT true. This is discussed in details later in this article.

The details about these two methods are interrelated and how they should be overridden correctly is discussed later in this article.

**public int hashCode()**

This method returns the hash code value for the object on which this method is invoked. This method returns the hash code value as an integer and is supported for the benefit of hashing based collection classes such as Hashtable, HashMap, HashSet etc. This method must be overridden in every class that overrides the equals method.  
  
This is what the JDK 1.4 API documentation says about the hashCode method of Object class- 

Returns a hash code value for the object. This method is supported for the benefit of hashtables such as those provided by java.util.Hashtable.

The general contract of hashCode is:

* Whenever it is invoked on the same object more than once during an execution of a Java application, the hashCode method must consistently return the same integer, provided no information used in equals comparisons on the object is modified. This integer need not remain consistent from one execution of an application to another execution of the same application.
* If two objects are equal according to the equals(Object) method, then calling the hashCode method on each of the two objects must produce the same integer result.
* It is not required that if two objects are unequal according to the equals(java.lang.Object) method, then calling the hashCode method on each of the two objects must produce distinct integer results. However, the programmer should be aware that producing distinct integer results for unequal objects may improve the performance of hashtables.

As much as is reasonably practical, the hashCode method defined by class Object does return distinct integers for distinct objects. (This is typically implemented by converting the internal address of the object into an integer, but this implementation technique is not required by the JavaTM programming language.)

As compared to the general contract specified by the equals method, the contract specified by the hashCode method is relatively simple and easy to understand. It simply states two important requirements that must be met while implementing the hashCode method. The third point of the contract, in fact is the elaboration of the second point. Let's understand what this contract really means.

1. **Consistency during same execution -** Firstly, it states that the hash code returned by the hashCode method must be consistently the same for multiple invocations during the same execution of the application as long as the object is not modified to affect the equals method.
2. **Hash Code & Equals relationship -** The second requirement of the contract is the hashCode counterpart of the requirement specified by the equals method. It simply emphasizes the same relationship - equal objects must produce the same hash code. However, the third point elaborates that unequal objects need not produce distinct hash codes.

After reviewing the general contracts of these two methods, it is clear that the relationship between these two methods can be summed up in the following statement –

**Equal objects must produce the same hash code as long as they are equal, however unequal objects need not produce distinct hash codes.**

The rest of the requirements specified in the contracts of these two methods are specific to those methods and are not directly related to the relationship between these two methods. Those specific requirements are discussed earlier. This relationship also enforces that whenever you override the equals method, you must override the hashCode method as well. Failing to comply with this requirement usually results in undetermined, undesired behavior of the class when confronted with Java collection classes or any other Java classes.

**Correct Implementation Example**

The following code exemplifies how all the requirements of equals and hashCode methods should be fulfilled so that the class behaves correctly and consistently with other Java classes. This class implements the equals method in such a way that it only provides equality comparison for the objects of the same class, similar to built-in Java classes like String and other wrapper classes.

public class Test

{

private int num;

private String data;

public boolean equals(Object obj)

{

if(this == obj)

return true;

if((obj == null) || (obj.getClass() != this.getClass()))

return false;

// object must be Test at this point

Test test = (Test)obj;

return num == test.num &&

(data == test.data || (data != null && data.equals(test.data)));

}

public int hashCode()

{

int hash = 7;

hash = 31 \* hash + num;

hash = 31 \* hash + (null == data ? 0 : data.hashCode());

return hash;

}

// other methods

}

Now, let's examine why this implementation is the correct implementation. The class Test has two member variables - num and data. These two variables define state of the object and they also participate in the equals comparison for the objects of this class. Hence, they should also be involved in calculating the hash codes of this class objects.  
  
Consider the equals method first. We can see that at line 8, the passed object reference is compared with this object itself, this approach usually saves time if both the object references are referring to the same object on the heap and if the equals comparison is expensive. Next, the if condition at line 10 first checks if the argument is null, if not, then (due to the short-circuit nature of the OR || operator) it checks if the argument is of type Test by comparing the classes of the argument and this object. This is done by invoking the getClass() method on both the references. If either of these conditions fails, then false is returned. This is done by the following code -  
if((obj == null) || (obj.getClass() != this.getClass())) return false; // prefer  
This conditional check should be preferred instead of the conditional check given by -  
if(!(obj instanceof Test)) return false; // avoid  
This is because, the first condition (code in blue) ensures that it will return false if the argument is a subclass of the class Test. However, in case of the second condition (code in red) it fails. The instanceofoperator condition fails to return false if the argument is a subclass of the class Test. Thus, it might violate the symmetry requirement of the contract. The instanceof check is correct only if the class is final, so that no subclass would exist. The first condition will work for both, final and non-final classes. Note that, both these conditions will return false if the argument is null. The instanceof operator returns false if the left hand side (LHS) operand is null, irrespective of the operand on the right hand side (RHS) as specified by [JLS 15.20.2](http://java.sun.com/docs/books/jls/second_edition/html/expressions.doc.html#80289). However, the first condition should be preferred for better type checking.  
  
This class implements the equals method in such a way that it provides equals comparison only for the objects of the same class. Note that, this is not mandatory. But, if a class decides to provide equals comparison for other class objects, then the other class (or classes) must also agree to provide the same for this class so as to fulfill the symmetry and reflexivity requirements of the contract. This particular equals method implementation does not violate both these requirements. The lines 14 and 15 actually perform the equality comparison for the data members, and return true if they are equal. Line 15 also ensures that invoking the equals method on String variable data will not result in a NullPointerException.  
While implementing the equals method, primitives can be compared directly with an equality operator (==) after performing any necessary conversions (Such as float to Float.floatToIntBits or double to Double.doubleToLongBits). Whereas, object references can be compared by invoking their equals method recursively. You also need to ensure that invoking the equals method on these object references does not result in a NullPointerException.  
  
Here are some useful guidelines for implementing the equals method correctly.

1. Use the equality == operator to check if the argument is the reference to this object, if yes. return true. This saves time when actual comparison is costly.
2. Use the following condition to check that the argument is not null and it is of the correct type, if not then return false.  
   if((obj == null) || (obj.getClass() != this.getClass())) return false;  
   Note that, correct type does not mean the same type or class as shown in the example above. It could be any class or interface that one or more classes agree to implement for providing the comparison.
3. Cast the method argument to the correct type. Again, the correct type may not be the same class. Also, since this step is done after the above type-check condition, it will not result in a ClassCastException.
4. Compare significant variables of both, the argument object and this object and check if they are equal. If \*all\* of them are equal then return true, otherwise return false. Again, as mentioned earlier, while comparing these class members/variables; primitive variables can be compared directly with an equality operator (==) after performing any necessary conversions (Such as float to Float.floatToIntBitsor double to Double.doubleToLongBits). Whereas, object references can be compared by invoking their equals method recursively. You also need to ensure that invoking equals method on these object references does not result in a NullPointerException, as shown in the example above (Line 15).  
   It is neither necessary, nor advisable to include those class members in this comparison which can be calculated from other variables, hence the word "significant variables". This certainly improves the performance of the equals method. Only you can decide which class members are significant and which are not.
5. Do not change the type of the argument of the equals method. It takes a java.lang.Object as an argument, do not use your own class instead. If you do that, you will not be overriding the equals method, but you will be overloading it instead; which would cause problems. It is a very common mistake, and since it does not result in a compile time error, it becomes quite difficult to figure out why the code is not working properly.
6. Review your equals method to verify that it fulfills all the requirements stated by the general contract of the equals method.
7. Lastly, do not forget to override the hashCode method whenever you override the equals method, that's unpardonable. ;)

Now, let's examine the hashCode method of this example. At line 20, a non-zero constant value 7 (arbitrary) is assigned to an int variable hash. Since the class members/variables num and data do participate in the equals method comparison, they should also be involved in the calculation of the hash code. Though, this is not mandatory. You can use subset of the variables that participate in the equals method comparison to improve performance of the hashCode method. Performance of the hashCode method indeed is very important. But, you have to be very careful while selecting the subset. The subset should include those variables which are most likely to have the greatest diversity of the values. Sometimes, using all the variables that participate in the equals method comparison for calculating the hash code makes more sense.  
This class uses both the variables for computing the hash code. Lines 21 and 22 calculate the hash code values based on these two variables. Line 22 also ensures that invoking hashCode method on the variable data does not result in a NullPointerException if data is null. This implementation ensures that the general contract of the hashCode method is not violated. This implementation will return consistent hash code values for different invocations and will also ensure that equal objects will have equal hash codes.  
While implementing the hashCode method, primitives can be used directly in the calculation of the hash code value after performing any necessary conversions, such as float to Float.floatToIntBits or double to Double.doubleToLongBits. Since return type of the hashCode method is int, long values must to be converted to the integer values. As for hash codes of the object references, they should be calculated by invoking their hashCode method recursively. You also need to ensure that invoking the hashCode method on these object references does not result in a NullPointerException.  
  
Writing a very good implementation of the hashCode method which calculates hash code values such that the distribution is uniform is not a trivial task and may require inputs from mathematicians and theoretical computer scientist. Nevertheless, it is possible to write a decent and correct implementation by following few simple rules.  
  
Here are some useful guidelines for implementing the hashCode method correctly.

1. Store an arbitrary non-zero constant integer value (say 7) in an int variable, called hash.
2. Involve significant variables of your object in the calculation of the hash code, all the variables that are part of equals comparison should be considered for this. Compute an individual hash code int var\_code for each variable var as follows -
   1. If the variable(var) is byte, char, short or int, then var\_code = (int)var;
   2. If the variable(var) is long, then var\_code = (int)(var ^ (var >>> 32));
   3. If the variable(var) is float, then var\_code = Float.floatToIntBits(var);
   4. If the variable(var) is double, then -  
      long bits = Double.doubleToLongBits(var);  
      var\_code = (int)(bits ^ (bits >>> 32));
   5. If the variable(var) is boolean, then var\_code = var ? 1 : 0;
   6. If the variable(var) is an object reference, then check if it is null, if yes then var\_code = 0; otherwise invoke the hashCode method recursively on this object reference to get the hash code. This can be simplified and given as -  
      var\_code = (null == var ? 0 : var.hashCode());
3. Combine this individual variable hash code var\_code in the original hash code hash as follows -   
   hash = 31 \* hash + var\_code;
4. Follow these steps for all the significant variables and in the end return the resulting integer hash.
5. Lastly, review your hashCode method and check if it is returning equal hash codes for equal objects. Also, verify that the hash codes returned for the object are consistently the same for multiple invocations during the same execution.

The guidelines provided here for implementing equals and hashCode methods are merely useful as guidelines, these are not absolute laws or rules. Nevertheless, following them while implementing these two methods will certainly give you correct and consistent results. 

**Summary & Miscellaneous Tips**

* 1. Equal objects must produce the same hash code as long as they are equal, however unequal objects need not produce distinct hash codes.
  2. The equals method provides "deep comparison" by checking if two objects are logically equal as opposed to the "shallow comparison" provided by the equality operator ==.
  3. However, the equals method in java.lang.Object class only provides "shallow comparison", same as provided by the equality operator ==.
  4. The equals method only takes Java objects as an argument, and not primitives; passing primitives will result in a compile time error.
  5. Passing objects of different types to the equals method will never result in a compile time error or runtime error.
  6. For standard Java wrapper classes and for java.lang.String, if the equals argument type (class) is different from the type of the object on which the equals method is invoked, it will return false.
  7. The class java.lang.StringBuffer does not override the equals method, and hence it inherits the implementation from java.lang.Object class.
  8. The equals method must not provide equality comparison with any built in Java class, as it would result in the violation of the symmetry requirement stated in the general contract of the equals method.
  9. If null is passed as an argument to the equals method, it will return false.
  10. Equal hash codes do not imply that the objects are equal.
  11. return 1; is a legal implementation of the hashCode method, however it is a very bad implementation. It is legal because it ensures that equal objects will have equal hash codes, it also ensures that the hash code returned will be consistent for multiple invocations during the same execution. Thus, it does not violate the general contract of the hashCode method. It is a bad implementation because it returns same hash code for all the objects. This explanation applies to all implementations of the hashCode method which return same constant integer value for all the objects.
  12. In standard JDK 1.4, the wrapper classes java.lang.Short, java.lang.Byte, java.lang.Character and java.lang.Integer simply return the value they represent as the hash code by typecasting it to an int.
  13. Since JDK version 1.3, the class java.lang.String caches its hash code, i.e. it calculates the hash code only once and stores it in an instance variable and returns this value whenever the hashCode method is called. It is legal because java.lang.String represents an immutable string.
  14. It is incorrect to involve a random number directly while computing the hash code of the class object, as it would not consistently return the same hash code for multiple invocations during the same execution.

## **Instance Variable Hiding in Java**

In Java, if there a local variable in a method with same name as instance variable, then the local variable hides the instance variable. If we want to reflect the change made over to the instance variable, this can be achieved with the help of [this reference](http://geeksquiz.com/this-reference-in-java/).

|  |
| --- |
| class Test  {      // Instance variable or member variable      private int value = 10;        void method()      {          // This local variable hides instance variable          int value = 40;            System.out.println("Value of Instance variable :"                              + this.value);          System.out.println("Value of Local variable :"                              + value);      }  }    class UseTest  {      public static void main(String args[])      {          Test obj1 = new Test();          obj1.method();      }  } |

Output:

Value of Instance variable :10

Value of Local variable :40

## Static vs Dynamic Binding in Java

**Static Binding:**The binding which can be resolved at compile time by compiler is known as static or early binding. Binding of all the static, private and final methods is done at compile-time.

**Why binding of static, final and private methods is always a static binding?**

Static binding is better performance wise (no extra overhead is required). Compiler knows that all such methods **cannot be overridden** and will always be accessed by object of local class. Hence compiler doesn’t have any difficulty to determine object of class (local class for sure). That’s the reason binding for such methods is static.

Let’s see by an example:

|  |
| --- |
| public class NewClass  {      public static class superclass      {          static void print()          {              System.out.println("print in superclass.");          }      }      public static class subclass extends superclass      {          static void print()          {              System.out.println("print in subclass.");          }      }        public static void main(String[] args)      {          superclass A = new superclass();          superclass B = new subclass();          A.print();          B.print();      }  } |

Run on IDE

Before scrolling further down, guess the output of the above program?

**Output**:

print in superclass.

print in superclass.

As you can see, in both cases print method of superclass is called. Let’s see how this happens

* We have created one object of subclass and one object of superclass with the reference of the superclass.
* Since the print method of superclass is static, compiler knows that it will not be overridden in subclasses and hence compiler knows during compile time which print method to call and hence no ambiguity.

As an exercise, reader can change the reference of object B to subclass and then check the output.

**Dynamic Binding:**In Dynamic binding compiler doesn’t decide the method to be called. Overriding is a perfect example of dynamic binding. In overriding both parent and child classes have same method.

Let’s see by an example

|  |
| --- |
| public class NewClass  {      public static class superclass      {          void print()          {              System.out.println("print in superclass.");          }      }        public static class subclass extends superclass      {          @Override          void print()          {              System.out.println("print in subclass.");          }      }        public static void main(String[] args)      {          superclass A = new superclass();          superclass B = new subclass();          A.print();          B.print();      }  } |

Run on IDE

**Output:**

print in superclass.

print in subclass.

Here the output differs. But why? Let’s break down the code and understand it thoroughly.

* Methods are not static in this code.
* During compilation, the compiler has no idea as to which print has to be called since compiler goes only by referencing variable not by type of object and therefore the binding would be delayed to runtime and therefore the corresponding version of print will be called based on type on object.

**Important Points**

* private, final and static members (methods and variables) use static binding while for virtual methods (In Java methods are virtual by default) binding is done during run time based upon run time object.
* Static binding uses Type information for binding while Dynamic binding uses Objects to resolve binding.
* Overloaded methods are resolved (deciding which method to be called when there are multiple methods with same name) using static binding while overridden methods using dynamic binding, i.e., at run time.

## Myth about the file name and class name in Java

The first lecture note given during java class is “In java file name and class name should be the same”. When the above law is violated a compiler error message will appear as below

|  |
| --- |
| /\*\*\*\*\* File name: Trial.java \*\*\*\*\*\*/  public class Geeks  {     public static void main(String[] args) {          System.out.println("Hello world");     }  } |

Run on IDE

Output:

javac Trial.java

Trial.java:9: error: class Geeks is public, should be

declared in a file named Geeks.java

public class Geeks

^

1 error

But the myth can be violated in such a way to compile the above file.

|  |
| --- |
| /\*\*\*\*\* File name: Trial.java \*\*\*\*\*\*/  class Geeks  {      public static void main(String[] args) {          System.out.println("Hello world");      }  } |

Run on IDE

Step 1: javac Trial.java

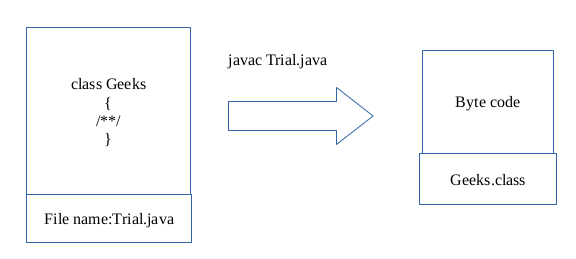
Step1 will create a Geeks.class (byte code) without any error message since the class is not public.

Step 2: java Geeks

Now the output will be **Hello world**

The myth about the file name and class name should be same only when the class is declared in  
**public**.

The above program works as follows:

[](https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/wp-content/uploads/javaex.png)

Now this .class file can be executed. By the above features some more miracles can be done. It is possible to have many classes in a java file. For debugging purposes this approach can be used. Each class can be executed separately to test their functionalities (only on one condition: Inheritance concept should not be used).

But in general it is good to follow the myth.

For example:

|  |
| --- |
| /\*\*\* File name: Trial.java \*\*\*/  class ForGeeks  {     public static void main(String[] args){        System.out.println("For Geeks class");     }  }    class GeeksTest  {     public static void main(String[] args){        System.out.println("Geeks Test class");     }  } |

Run on IDE

When the above file is compiled as **javac Trial.java**will create two **.class** files as **ForGeeks.class and GeeksTest.class**.

Since each class has separate main() stub they can be tested individually.

When **java ForGeeks** is executed the output is **For Geeks class.**   
When **java GeeksTest** is executed the output is **Geeks Test class**.