

# Java Important Topics & Answers

## 1) Principles of OOP



### Principles of Object Oriented Programming

- **Object** means a real world entity such as pen, chair, table etc.
- **Object-Oriented Programming** is a methodology or paradigm to design a program using classes and objects. It simplifies the software development and maintenance by providing some concepts:
  1. **Object**
  2. **Class**
  3. **Encapsulation**
  4. **Inheritance**
  5. **Polymorphism**
  6. **Abstraction**

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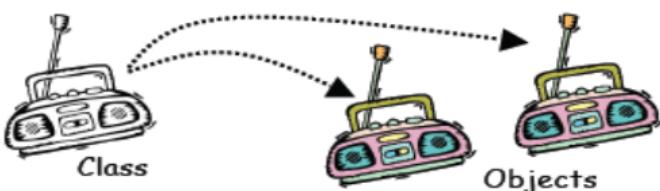




### Class

---

- A class is a set of objects with:
  - Same interface, same behavior, **different identify**
- Classes allow modeling of simple classification in the real world, and simplify design
- An object is an “instance” of a class



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# Objects

- An object has “memory”

## Object State:

- **A bank account:** a number, a name, an address, a balance, an overdraft limit, a branch, a PIN number

## Object Behaviour

- **A bank account:** withdraw, deposit, calculate interest, print statement.

Car(Class)



Mercedes      Audi  
(Objects)



# Encapsulation

- Binding (or wrapping) code and data together into a single unit is known as encapsulation. Example: Class
- For example: capsule, it is wrapped with different medicines.

- Data Fields are private
- Constructors and accessor methods are defined

Person
-name : String
-age : int
+Person(String name, int age)
+getName() : String
+setName(String name)
+getAge() : int



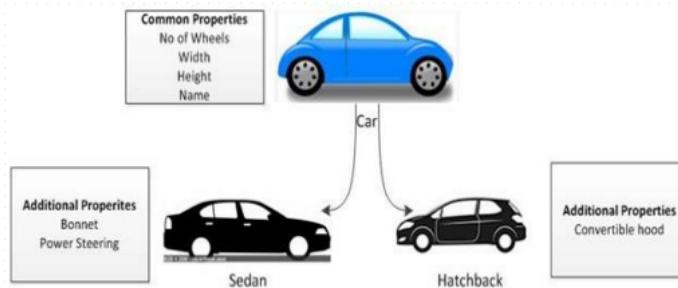
Capsule





## Inheritance

- When one object acquires all the properties and behaviours of parent object i.e. known as **Inheritance**.
- It provides code reusability.

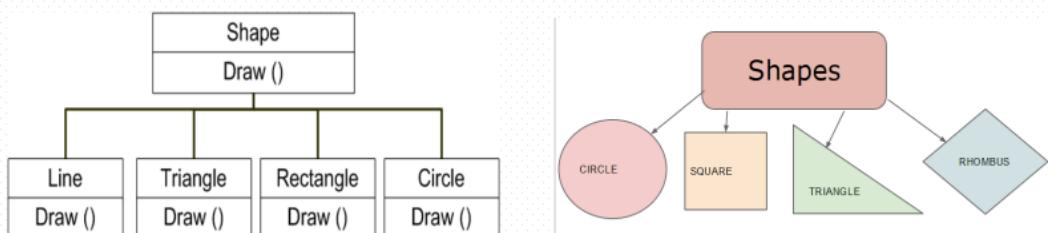


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## Polymorphism

- A property of object oriented software by which an abstract operation may be performed in different ways in different classes.
  - Requires that there be multiple methods of the same name
  - The choice of which one to execute depends on the object.



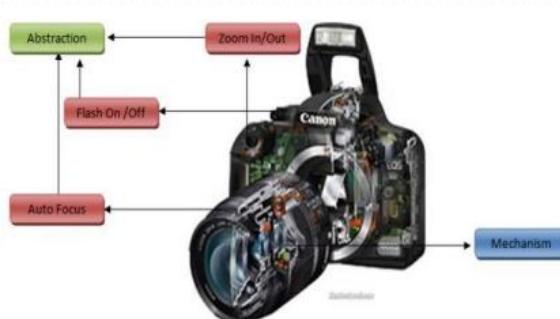
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## Abstraction

- Hiding internal details and showing functionality is known as abstraction.
- For example: phone call, we don't know the internal processing.



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## 2) Java Buzzwords or Features



### Java Features / Buzzwords

- Simple
- Secure
- Portable
- Object-oriented
- Robust
- Multithreaded
- Architecture-neutral
- Interpreted
- High performance
- Distributed
- Dynamic

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## Simple

- Java was designed to be easy for the professional programmer to learn and use effectively.
- If we already understand the basic concepts of object-oriented programming, learning Java will be even easier.
- If we are an experienced C++ programmer, moving to Java will require very little effort. Because Java inherits the C/C++ syntax and many of the object-oriented features of C++

## Secure

- Java achieved this protection by digital signatures for JAR files

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## Portable

- Portability is a major aspect of the Internet because there are many different types of computers and operating systems connected to it.
- If a Java program were to be run on virtually any computer connected to the Internet, there needed to be some way to enable that program to execute on different systems.
- Write once, run everywhere

## Object Oriented

- Everything in Java is an Object. All program code and data reside within objects and classes.
- Java comes with an extensive set of classes arranged in Packages.

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## Robust

- Strong typing + no pointer + garbage collection
- The program must execute reliably in a variety of systems.
- Java is a strictly typed language, it checks your code at compile time. However, it also checks your code at run time.

## Multithreaded

- Java was designed to meet the real-world requirement of creating interactive, networked programs.
- To accomplish this, Java supports multithreaded programming, which allows you to write programs that do many things simultaneously.

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## Architecture - Neutral

- Operating system upgrades, processor upgrades, and changes in core system resources can all combine to make a program malfunction.
- The Java designers made several hard decisions in the Java language and the Java Virtual Machine in an attempt to alter this situation. Their goal was “write once; run anywhere, any time, forever.”

## Distributed

- Java is designed for the distributed environment of the Internet because it handles TCP/IP protocols.
- Java also supports *Remote Method Invocation (RMI)*. This feature enables a program to invoke methods across a network.

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### Interpreted and High Performance

- Java enables the creation of cross-platform programs by compiling into an intermediate representation called Java bytecode.
- This code can be executed on any system that implements the Java Virtual Machine.
- Java bytecode was carefully designed so that it would be easy to translate directly into native machine code for very high performance by using a just-in-time compiler.

### Dynamic

- Java programs carry with them substantial amounts of run-time type information that is used to verify and resolve accesses to objects at run time.

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## 3) Control Structures



### Flow of Control

Press F11 to exit full screen

- Java executes one statement after the other in the order they are written
- Many Java statements are flow control statements:

Alternation : if, if else, Nested If, Else If, switch

Looping : while, do while, for

Escapes : break, continue, return

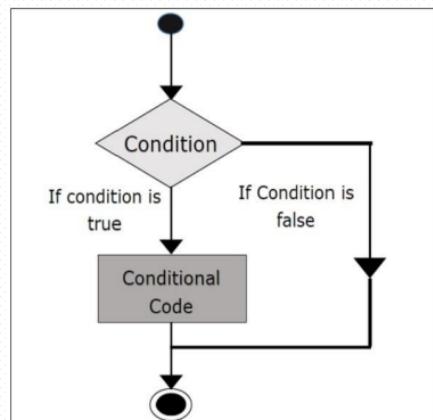
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### Simple If

The if statement evaluates an expression and if that evaluation is true then the specified action is taken

```
if( x < 10 )  
    x = 10;
```

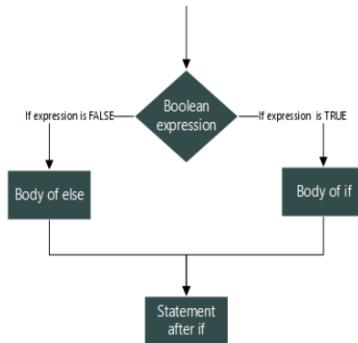




## If... else

The if ... else statement evaluates an expression and performs one action if that evaluation is true or a different action if it is false.

```
if (x != oldx) {
    System.out.print("x was changed");
}
else {
    System.out.print("x is unchanged");
}
```

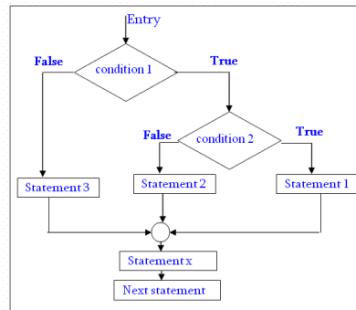


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## Nested if ... else

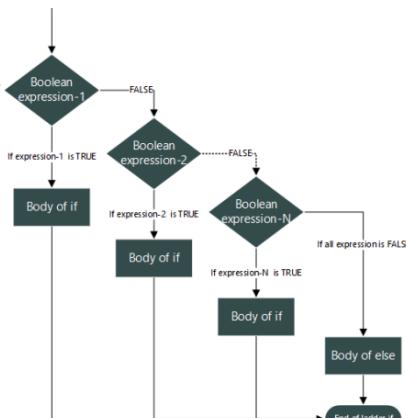
```
if ( myVal > 100 )
{
    if ( remainderOn == true)
    {
        myVal = myVal % 100;
    }
    else {
        myVal = myVal / 100.0;
    }
}
else {
    System.out.print("myVal is in range");
}
```



## Else If Ladder

Useful for choosing between alternatives:

```
if ( n == 1 )
{
    // execute code block #1
}
else if ( j == 2 ) {
    // execute code block #2
}
else {
    // if all previous tests have failed,
    // execute code block #3
}
```

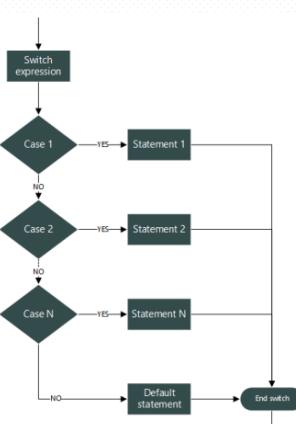


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## The switch Statement

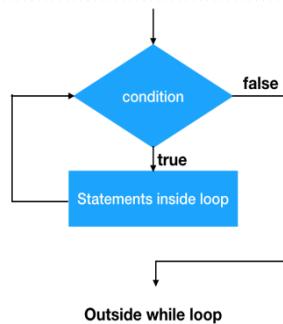
```
switch ( n ) {
    case 1:
        // execute code block #1
        break;
    case 2:
        // execute code block #2
        break;
    default:
        // if all previous tests fail then
        // execute code block
        break;
}
```





## while loop

```
int i=0;
while(i<10)
{
    System.out.println(i);
    i++;
}
```

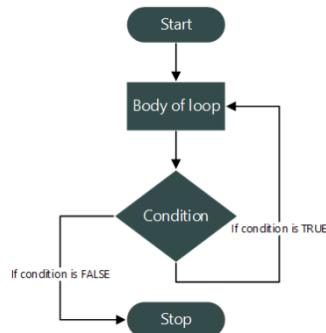


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## do {...} while loops

```
int i=0;
do
{
    System.out.println(i);
    i++;
} while(i<10);
```



## The for loop

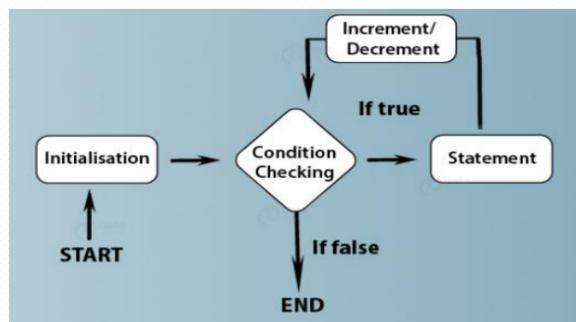
### Loop n times

```
for ( i = 0; i < n; n++ ) {
    // this code body will execute n times
    // i from 0 to n-1
}
Nested for:
for ( j = 0; j < 10; j++ ) {
    for ( i = 0; i < 20; i++ ){
        // this code body will execute 200 times
    }
}
```

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## For loops





## Break

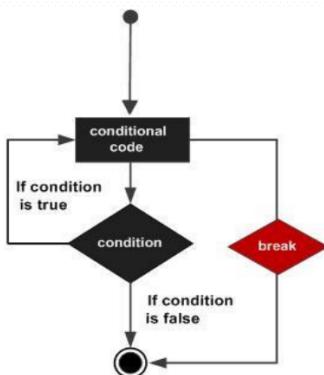
- A break statement causes an exit from the innermost containing while, do, for or switch statement.

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 10, i++ ) {  
    if ( i == 3 )  
        break;  
    System.out.println(i);  
}
```

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## Break



## Continue

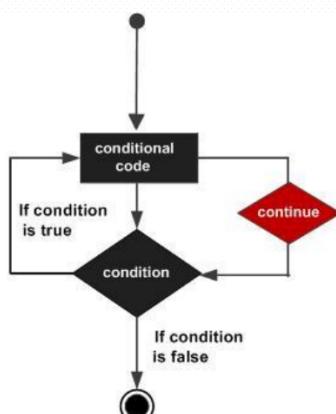
- Can only be used with while, do or for.
- The continue statement causes the innermost loop to start the next iteration immediately

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 10; i++ ) {  
    if ( i==3 ) continue;  
    System.out.println(i);  
}
```

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## Continue





## Labeled break and continue

- Labeled block
  - Set of statements enclosed by {}
  - Preceded by a label
- Labeled break statement
  - Exit from nested control structures
  - Proceeds to end of specified labeled block
- Labeled continue statement
  - Skips remaining statements in nested-loop body
  - Proceeds to beginning of specified labeled block

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## Labeled Continue example

```
public class LabelledContinue
{
    public static void main( String args[] )
    {
        stop:
        for ( int r = 1; r <= 10; r++ )
        {
            for ( int c = 1; c <= 5 ; c++ )
            {
                if ( r == 5 )
                    continue stop;
                System.out.print(c);
            }
            System.out.println();
        }
    }
}
```



## Labelled break example

```
public class LabelledContinue
{
    public static void main( String args[] )
    {
        stop:
        for ( int r = 1; r <= 10; r++ )
        {
            for ( int c = 1; c <= 5 ; c++ )
            {
                if ( r == 5 )
                    break stop;
                System.out.print(c);
            }
            System.out.println();
        }
    }
}
```

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## 4) Data types of Java

```
graph TD; A[Data Types in Java] --> B[Primitive (Intrinsic)]; A --> C[Non-primitive (Derived)]; B --> D[Numeric]; B --> E[Non-numeric]; D --> F[Integer]; D --> G[Floating-point]; E --> H[Characters]; E --> I[Boolean]; C --> J[Class]; C --> K[Interface]; C --> L[Array]; C --> M[String]
```

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### Data types

<b>int</b>	4 byte integer (whole number) range -2147483648 to +2147483648
<b>float</b>	4 byte floating point number decimal points, numbers outside range of <b>int</b>
<b>double</b>	8 byte floating point number 15 decimal digits (float has 7) so bigger precision and range
<b>char</b>	2 byte letter
<b>String</b>	string of letters
<b>boolean</b>	true or false (not 1 or 0)

### Primitive Data Types

- A **data type** is defined by a set of values and the operators you can perform on them
- The Java language has several predefined types, called **primitive data types**
- The following reserved words represent the eight different primitive data types:
  - byte, short, int, long, float, double, boolean, char**

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### Integers

- There are four integer data types. They differ by the amount of memory used to store them

Type	Bits	Value Range
byte	8	-127 ... 128
short	16	-32768 ... 32767
int	32	about 9 decimal digits
long	64	about 18 decimal digits



## Floating Point

There are two floating point types

Type	Bits	Range (decimal digits)	Precision (decimal digits)
float	32	38	7
double	64	308	15



## Characters

- A **char** value stores a single character from the *Unicode character set*
- A *character set* is an ordered list of characters  
'A', 'B', 'C', ..., 'a', 'b', ..., '0', '1', ..., '\$', ...

## Boolean

- A **boolean** value represents a true/false condition.
- It can also be used to represent any two states, such as a light bulb being on or off
- The reserved words **true** and **false** are the only valid values for a boolean type



## Datatypes

Type	Size	Range	Default
boolean	1 bit	true or false	false
byte	8 bits	[-128, 127]	0
short	16 bits	[-32,768, 32,767]	0
char	16 bits	['\u0000', '\uffff'] or [0, 65535]	"\u0000"
int	32 bits	[-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647]	0
long	64 bits	[-2 <sup>63</sup> , 2 <sup>63</sup> -1]	0
float	32 bits	32-bit IEEE 754 floating-point	0.0
double	64 bits	64-bit IEEE 754 floating-point	0.0

## 5) Constructor Overloading



### Overloading Constructors

- In addition to overloading normal methods, we can also overload constructor methods.



### Overloading Constructors Example

```
class rect
{   double l,b;
    rect()
    { l=10;b=20; }
    rect(int x,int y)
    { l=x; b=y; }
    rect(rect n)
    { l=n.l;
      b=n.b;  }
    rect(double x)
    { l=b=x;  }
    void area()
    { System.out.println("Area :" +l*b);      }
}
```

```
class rectarea
{   public static void main(String ar[])
{
    rect r1=new rect();
    rect r2=new rect(22,33);
    rect r3=new rect(r2);
    rect r4=new rect(55.6);

    r1.area();
    r2.area();
    r3.area();
    r4.area();
}}
```

## 6) Classes and Objects



### Classes

A class is a *template* for an object, and an object is an instance of a class.

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

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

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### Classes contd.,

- The data, or variables, defined within a class are called *instance variables*.
- The code is contained within *methods*.
- Collectively, the methods and variables defined within a class are called *members of the class*.
- Variables defined within a class are called instance variables because each instance of the Class contains its own copy of these variables.



### Declaring Objects

- Objects of a class is a two-step process.
- First, we must declare a variable of the class type. This variable does not define an object. Instead, it is simply a variable that can refer to an object.
- Second, we must acquire an actual, physical copy of the object and assign it to that variable. We can do this using the **new operator**.
- The new operator dynamically allocates (that is, allocates at run time) memory for an object

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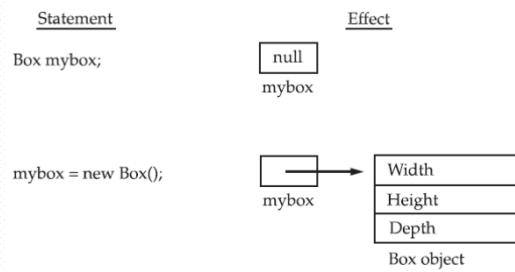


### Declaring Objects Contd.,

- Box mybox; // declare reference to object
- After this line executes, mybox contains the value null.
- mybox = new Box(); // allocate a Box object
- This line allocates an actual object and assigns a reference to it to mybox.
- We can combine the above statements into a single one as follows:
- Box mybox = new Box();



## Declaring Objects Contd.,



**A class is a logical construct. An object has physical reality.**

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## Declaring Objects Contd.,

<pre>class Box {     double width;     double height;     double depth; }  class BoxDemo {     public static void main(String args[])     {         Box mybox = new Box();         double vol;     } }</pre>	<pre>mybox.width = 10; mybox.height = 20; mybox.depth = 15;  vol = mybox.width * mybox.height * mybox.depth;  System.out.println("Volume is " + vol); }</pre>
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------



## Assigning Object Reference Variables

Box b1 = new Box();

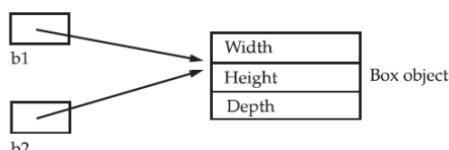
Box b2 = b1;

- b1 and b2 will both refer to the *same object*.
- *The assignment of b1 to b2 did not allocate any memory.*
- It simply makes b2 refer to the same object as does b1.
- Thus, any changes made to the object through b2 will affect the object to which b1 is referring

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## Assigning Object Reference Variables contd.,



Box b1 = new Box();

Box b2 = b1;

// ...

b1 = null;

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

## 7) Method Overloading and Method Overriding



### Method Overloading

- In Java, it is possible to create methods that have the same name, but different parameter lists and different definitions. This is called "**Method Overloading**".
- Method Overloading is used when objects are required to perform similar tasks but using different input parameters. This process is known as **Polymorphism**.

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### Method Overloading Example

```
class A
{
    int i,j;
    A(int a, int b)
    {
        i=a;j=b;
    }
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println(" i and j " +i+ " " +j);
    }
}
class B extends A
{
    int k;
    B(int a,int b,int c)
    {
        super(a,b);
        k=c;
    }
}

void display(String s)
{
    System.out.println(s+k);
}

class overload
{
    public static void main(String ar[])
    {
        B sub=new B(10,20,30);
        sub.display(" this is :");
        sub.display();
    }
}
```



### Method Overriding

- In a class hierarchy, when a method in a subclass has the same name and type signature as a method in its superclass, then the method in the subclass is said to **override** the method in the superclass.
- When an overridden method is called from within a subclass, it will always refer to the version of that method defined by the subclass.

The version of the method defined by the superclass will be hidden.

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### Method Overriding Example

```
class A
{
    int i,j;
    A(int a, int b)
    {
        i=a;j=b;
    }
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println(" i and j " +i+ " " +j);
    }
}
class B extends A
{
    int k;
    B(int a,int b,int c)
    {
        super(a,b);
        k=c;
    }
}

void display()
{
    System.out.println("k: " + k);
}

class Override
{
    public static void main(String args[])
    {
        B subOb = new B(1, 2, 3);
        subOb.display(); // this calls show() in B
    }
}
```

## 8) Final Keyword – 3 Forms

### a. Final Variable



#### final

- “final” keyword prevents its contents from being modified. This means that we must initialize a final variable when it is declared.
- It is a common coding convention to choose all uppercase identifiers for final variables.
- Variables declared as final do not occupy memory on a per-instance basis.
- Thus, a final variable is essentially a constant.

Ex: final int x=22;

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### b. Final Method



#### Using “final” to Prevent Overriding

- To disallow a method from being overridden, specify final as a modifier at the start of its declaration.
- Methods declared as final cannot be overridden.

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#### Final method Example

```
class A
{
    final void display()
    {
        System.out.println(" Inside A ");
    }
}
class B extends A
{
    // Error cannot override becoz of final
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println(" Inside B ");
    }
}
```

```
class finalkeyword
{
    public static void main(String ar[])
    {
        A a=new A();
        a.display();
        B b=new B();
        b.display(); 
    }
}
```

#### Output:

```
D:\>javac finalkeyword.java
finalkeyword.java:12: display() in B cannot override
display() in A; overridden method is final
void display() // Error cannot override becoz of
final
^ 1 error
```

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## c. Final Class



### Using final to Prevent Inheritance

- Sometimes we will want to **prevent a class from being inherited**. To do this, precede the class declaration with **final**.
- Declaring a class as **final** implicitly declares all of its methods as **final**, too.
- It is illegal to declare a class as both **abstract** and **final** since an abstract class is incomplete by itself and relies upon its subclasses to provide complete implementations.



### Final Class Example

```
final class A
{
    void display()
    {   System.out.println(" Inside A ");
    }
}
class B extends A
// Error cannot Inherit becoz of final
{
    void display()
    {
        System.out.println(" Inside B ");
    }
}
```

```
class finalclass
{
    public static void main(String ar[])
    {
        A a=new A();
        a.display();
        B b=new B();
        b.display();
    }
}
Output:
D:\>javac finalclass.java
finalclass.java:10: cannot inherit from final A
class B extends A // Error cannot Inherit becoz of final
                  ^
  1 error
```

## 9) Super Keyword – 2 Forms



### 'super' forms

- super has two general forms.
  - The first calls the superclass' constructor.
  - The second is used to access a member of the superclass



### Using super to Call Superclass Constructors

- A subclass can call a constructor method defined by its superclass by using the following form of super:

**super(*parameter-list*);**

- Here, *parameter-list* specifies any parameters needed by the constructor in the superclass.
- super( ) must always be the first statement executed inside a subclass' constructor.



## Super First form Example

```
class rect
{
    double length;
    double breadth;
    rect()
    { length=-1; breadth=-1; }
    rect(double l,double b)
    {
        length=l; breadth=b;
    }
    double area()
    {
        return length*breadth;
    }
}

class box extends rect
{
    double height;
    box()
    {
        super();
        height=-1;
    }
    box(double l,double b,double h)
    {
        super(l,b);
        height=h;
    }
    void volume()
    {
        System.out.println("Volume : "+length*breadth*height);
    }
}
```

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## Super First form Example Contd.,

```
class inherit2
{
    public static void main(String ar[])
    {
        rect r=new rect(20,10);
        System.out.println("Area : "+r.area());

        box b=new box(30,40,5);
        b.volume();
    }
}
```





## A Second Use for super

- The second form of super acts like `this`, except that it always refers to the superclass of the subclass in which it is used.

Syn: `super.member`

- Here, `member` can be either a method or an instance variable.
- This second form of super is most applicable to situations in which member names of a subclass hide members by the same name in the superclass.



## Super Second form Example

<pre>class A {     int i; }  class B extends A {     int i;     B(int a,int b)     {         super.i=a;         i=b;     } }</pre>	<pre>void display() {     System.out.println(" Super i : "+super.i);     System.out.println(" Sub i : "+i); }  class inherit3 {     public static void main(String ar[])     {         B sub=new B(20,30);         sub.display();     } }</pre>
------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------



## 10) Command Line Arguments



### Command Line Args

- Remember the main() method  
**public static void main(String[] args)**
- args is an array of Strings corresponding to the list of arguments typed by the user when the interpreter was executed
  - java myProg 10 13 Steve
- Passed in by the operating system
- User must know the order and format of each argument

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### Command Line Args Example

```
class cmd
{
public static void main(String ar[])
{
    int n=ar.length;
    int i=0,x;
    while(i<n)
    {
        if([Integer.parseInt(ar[i])]%2==0)
            System.out.println(ar[i]+" is even");
        else
            System.out.println(ar[i]+" is odd");
        i++;
    }
}
```

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## 11) Interfaces (Multiple Inheritance)



### Interfaces

- Java **does not support multiple inheritance**. That is, classes in java cannot have more than one superclass.
- Java provides an alternate approach known as **interfaces** to support the concept of **multiple inheritance**.
- Interfaces are syntactically similar to classes, but they define only abstract methods and final fields.
- This means that interfaces do not specify any code to implement these methods and data fields contain only constants.
- Once it is defined, any number of classes can implement an interface. Also, one class can implement any number of interfaces.

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### Defining an Interface

- An interface is defined much like a class. This is the general form of an interface:

```
access interface name
{
    type final-varname1 = value;
    type final-varname2 = value;
    ...
    type final-varnameN = value;
    return-type method-name1(parameter-list);
    return-type method-name2(parameter-list);
    ...
    return-type method-nameN(parameter-list);
}
```

Here, **access** is either **public** or not used



## Interfaces

- Methods are, essentially, abstract methods
- Each class that includes an interface must implement all of the methods.
- Variables can be declared inside of interface declarations. They are implicitly **final** and **static**, meaning they cannot be changed by the implementing class.
- All methods and variables are implicitly **public** if the interface, itself, is declared as **public**.

Ex:

```
interface shape
{
    void area(int param);
}
```

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## Implementing Interfaces

- Once an **interface** has been defined, one or more classes can implement that interface.
- To implement an interface, include the **implements** clause in a class definition, and then create the methods defined by the interface.

### Syntax:

```
access class classname [extends superclass]
[implements interface [,interface...]]
{
    // class-body
}
```





## Interfaces contd.,

- Here, *access* is either **public** or not used. If a class implements more than one interface, the interfaces are separated with a comma.
- The methods that implement an interface must be declared **public**.
- Also, the type signature of the implementing method must match exactly the type signature specified in the **interface** definition.



## Interfaces

```
class circle implements shape
{
    // Implement shape's interface
    public void area(int p)
    {
        System.out.println("Area of Circle "+3.14*p*p);
    }
}
```



## Interfaces Second Example

```
class student
{
    int rollno;

    void getno(int a)
    {
        rollno=a;
    }
    void putno()
    {
        System.out.println(" Roll Number : "+rollno);
    }
}
```

```
class test extends student
{
    double m1,m2;

    void getmarks(double a,double b)
    {
        m1=a; m2=b;
    }
    void putmarks()
    {
        System.out.println("M1 : "+m1+" M2 : "+m2);
    }
}
```

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## Interfaces Second Example contd.,

```
interface sports
{
    final static double spwt=10;
    void putspwt();
}

class result extends test implements sports
{
    double total;
    public void putspwt()
    {
        System.out.println("Sports Marks Weightage : "+spwt);
    }
}
```

```
void show()
{
    total=m1+m2+spwt;
    putno();
    putmarks();
    putspwt();
    System.out.println("Total Marks : "+total);
}

class interface2
{
    public static void main(String ar[])
    {
        result r=new result(); r.getno(786);
        r.getmarks(78.5,65.25); r.show();
    }
}
```