



ANSWER GUIDE

JAVA TEST – 09 May 2012

1. Which of the following class level (nonlocal) variable declarations will not compile?

A. `protected int a;`

B. `transient int b = 3;`

C. `private synchronized int e;`

D. `volatile int d;`

Explanation:

Option C will not compile; the `synchronized` modifier applies only to methods.

Option A and B will compile because `protected` and `transient` are legal variable modifiers. Option D will compile because `volatile` is a proper variable modifier.

Read More: [Declarations & Access Control](#)

2. What will be the output of the program?

```
public class ArrayTest
{
    public static void main(String[ ] args)
    {
        float f1[ ], f2[ ];
        f1 = new float[10];
        f2 = f1;
```

```
        System.out.println("f2[0] = " + f2[0]);
    }
}
```

- A. It prints f2[0] = 0.0
- B. It prints f2[0] = NaN
- C. An error at `f2 = f1;` causes compile to fail.
- D. It prints the garbage value.

Explanation:

Option A is correct. When you create an array (`f1 = new float[10];`) the elements are initialised to the default values for the primitive data type (float in this case - 0.0), so `f1` will contain 10 elements each with a value of 0.0. `f2` has been declared but has not been initialised, it has the ability to reference or point to an array but as yet does not point to any array. `f2 = f1;` copies the reference (pointer/memory address) of `f1` into `f2` so now `f2` points at the array pointed to by `f1`.

This means that the values returned by `f2` are the values returned by `f1`. Changes to `f1` are also changes to `f2` because both `f1` and `f2` point to the same array.

Read More: [Declarations & Access Control](#)

3. Which statement is true?

- A. Class B'S constructor is `public`.
- B. Class B'S constructor has no arguments.
- C. Class B'S constructor includes a call to `this()`.
- D. None of these.

Explanation:

Option B is correct. `Class B` inherits `Class A`'s constructor which has no arguments.

Option A is wrong. `Class B` inherits `Class A`'s constructor which uses default access.

Option C is wrong. There is just no implicit call to `this()`.

Read More: [Declarations & Access Control](#)

4. Which two statements, added independently at beginning of the program, allow the code to compile?

```
/* Missing statements ? */
public class NewTreeSet extends java.util.TreeSet
{
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        java.util.TreeSet t = new java.util.TreeSet();
        t.clear();
    }
    public void clear()
    {
        TreeMap m = new TreeMap();
        m.clear();
    }
}
```

1. No statement is required
2. `import java.util.*;`
3. `import java.util.Tree*;`
4. `import java.util.TreeSet;`
5. `import java.util.TreeMap;`

A. 1 only

B. 2 and 5

C. 3 and 4

D. 3 and 4

Explanation:

(2) and (5). `TreeMap` is the only class that must be imported. `TreeSet` does not need an import statement because it is described with a fully qualified name.

(1) is incorrect because `TreeMap` must be imported. (3) is incorrect syntax for an import statement. (4) is incorrect because it will not import `TreeMap`, which is required.

Read More: [Declarations & Access Control](#)

5. What will be the output of the program?

```
class Two
{
    byte x;
}

class PassO
{
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        PassO p = new PassO();
        p.start();
    }

    void start()
    {
        Two t = new Two();
        System.out.print(t.x + " ");
        Two t2 = fix(t);
        System.out.println(t.x + " " + t2.x);
    }

    Two fix(Two tt)
    {
        tt.x = 42;
        return tt;
    }
}
```

A. null null 42

B. 0 0 42

C. 0 42 42

D. 0 0 0

Explanation:

In the `fix()` method, the reference variable `tt` refers to the same object (class `Two`) as the `t` reference variable. Updating `tt.x` in the `fix()` method updates `t.x` (they are one in the same object). Remember also that the instance variable `x` in the `Two` class is initialized to 0.

Read More: [Operators & Assignments](#)

6. What will be the output of the program?

```
public class If2
{
    static boolean b1, b2;
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        int x = 0;
        if ( !b1 ) /* Line 7 */
        {
            if ( !b2 ) /* Line 9 */
            {
                b1 = true;
                x++;
                if ( 5 > 6 )
                {
                    x++;
                }
                if ( !b1 )
                    x = x + 10;
                else if ( b2 = true ) /* Line 19 */
                    x = x + 100;
                else if ( b1 | b2 ) /* Line 21 */
                    x = x + 1000;
            }
        }
        System.out.println(x);
    }
}
```

A. 0

B. 1

C. 101

D. 111

Explanation:

As instance variables, `b1` and `b2` are initialized to false. The if tests on lines 7 and 9 are successful so `b1` is set to true and `x` is incremented. The next if test to succeed is on line 19 (note that the code is not testing to see if `b2` is true, it is setting `b2` to be true). Since line 19 was successful, subsequent else-if's (line 21) will be skipped.

Read More: [Flow Control](#)

7. What will be the output of the program?

```
public class If1
{
    static boolean b;
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        short hand = 42;
        if ( hand < 50 & !b ) /* Line 7 */
            hand++;
        if ( hand > 50 );      /* Line 9 */
        else if ( hand > 40 )
        {
            hand += 7;
            hand++;
        }
        else
            --hand;
        System.out.println(hand);
    }
}
```

A. 41

B. 42

C. 50

D. 51

Explanation:

In Java, boolean instance variables are initialized to `false`, so the if test on line 7 is true and hand is incremented. Line 9 is legal syntax, a do nothing statement. The else-if is true so hand has 7 added to it and is then incremented.

Read More: [Flow Control](#)

8. What will be the output of the program?

```
int i = 0;
while(1)
{
    if(i == 4)
    {
        break;
    }
    ++i;
}
System.out.println("i = " + i);
```

A. i = 0

B. i = 3

C. i = 4

D. Compilation fails.

Explanation:

Compilation fails because the argument of the `while` loop, the condition, must be of primitive type boolean. In Java, 1 does not represent the true state of a boolean, rather it is seen as an integer.

Read More: [Flow Control](#)

9. What will be the output of the program?

```
int i = 0, j = 5;
tp: for (;;)
{
    i++;
    for (;;)
    {
        if(i > --j)
        {
            break tp;
        }
    }
    System.out.println("i = " + i + ", j = " + j);
}
```

A. i = 1, j = 0

B. i = 1, j = 4

C. i = 3, j = 4

D. Compilation fails.

Explanation:

If you examine the code carefully you will notice a missing curly bracket at the end of the code, this would cause the code to fail.

Read More: [Flow Control](#)

10. What will be the output of the program?

```
int I = 0;
label:
    if (I < 2) {
        System.out.print("I is " + I);
        I++;
        continue label;
    }
```


- A. I is 0
- B. I is 0 I is 1
- C. Compilation fails.
- D. None of the above

Explanation:

The code will not compile because a `continue` statement can only occur in a looping construct. If this syntax were legal, the combination of the `continue` and the `if` statements would create a kludgey kind of loop, but the compiler will force you to write cleaner code than this.

Read More: [Flow Control](#)

11. What will be the output of the program?

```
try
{
    int x = 0;
    int y = 5 / x;
}
catch (Exception e)
{
    System.out.println("Exception");
}
catch (ArithmeticException ae)
{
    System.out.println(" Arithmetic Exception");
}
System.out.println("finished");
```

- A. finished
- B. Exception
- C. Compilation fails.
- D. Arithmetic Exception

Explanation:

Compilation fails because `ArithmeticException` has already been caught. `ArithmeticException` is a subclass of `java.lang.Exception`, by time the `ArithmeticException` has been specified it has already been caught by the `Exception` class.

If `ArithmeticException` appears before `Exception`, then the file will compile. When catching exceptions the more specific exceptions must be listed before the more general (the subclasses must be caught before the superclasses).

Read More: [Exceptions](#)

12. Which statement is true?

- A. A try statement must have at least one corresponding catch block.
- B. Multiple catch statements can catch the same class of exception more than once.
- C. An Error that might be thrown in a method must be declared as thrown by that method, or be handled within that method.

D. Except in case of VM shutdown, if a `try` block starts to execute, a corresponding finally block will always start to execute.

Explanation:

A is wrong. A `try` statement can exist without catch, but it must have a `finally` statement.

B is wrong. A `try` statement executes a block. If a value is thrown and the try statement has one or more catch clauses that can catch it, then control will be transferred to the first such catch clause. If that `catch` block completes normally, then the `try` statement completes normally.

C is wrong. `Exceptions` of type `Error` and `RuntimeException` do not have to be caught, only checked exceptions (`java.lang.Exception`) have to be caught. However, speaking of `Exceptions`, `Exceptions` do not have to be handled in the same method as the throw statement. They can be passed to another method.

If you put a `finally` block after a `try` and its associated `catch` blocks, then once execution enters the `try` block, the code in that `finally` block will definitely be executed except in the following circumstances:

1. An exception arising in the finally block itself.
2. The death of the thread.
3. The use of `System.exit()`
4. Turning off the power to the CPU.

I suppose the last three could be classified as VM shutdown.

Read More: [Exceptions](#)

13. Which statement is true?

```
class Test1
{
    public int value;
    public int hashCode() { return 42; }
}
class Test2
{
    public int value;
    public int hashCode() { return (int)(value^5); }
}
```

- A. `class Test1` will not compile.
- B. The `Test1 hashCode()` method is more efficient than the `Test2 hashCode()` method.
- C. The `Test1 hashCode()` method is less efficient than the `Test2 hashCode()` method.
- D. `class Test2` will not compile.

Explanation:

The so-called "hashing algorithm" implemented by `class Test1` will always return the same value, 42, which is legal but which will place all of the hash table entries into a single bucket, the most inefficient setup possible.

Option A and D are incorrect because these classes are legal.

Option B is incorrect based on the logic described above.

Read More: [Objects & Collections](#)

14. What will be the output of the program?

```
public class Foo
{
    Foo()
    {
        System.out.print("foo");
    }

    class Bar
    {
        Bar()
        {
            System.out.print("bar");
        }
        public void go()
        {
            System.out.print("hi");
        }
    } /* class Bar ends */

    public static void main (String [] args)
    {
        Foo f = new Foo();
        f.makeBar();
    }
    void makeBar()
    {
        (new Bar() {}).go();
    }
} /* class Foo ends */
```

- A. Compilation fails.
- B. An error occurs at runtime.
- C. It prints "foobarhi"
- D. It prints "barhi"

Explanation:

Option C is correct because first the `Foo` instance is created, which means the `Foo` constructor runs and prints "foo". Next, the `makeBar()` method is invoked which creates a `Bar`, which means the `Bar` constructor runs and prints "bar", and finally the `go()` method is invoked on the new `Bar` instance, which means the `go()` method prints "hi".

Read More: [Inner Classes](#)

15. At what point is the Bar object, created on line 6, eligible for garbage collection?

```
class Bar { }
class Test
{
    Bar doBar()
    {
        Bar b = new Bar(); /* Line 6 */
        return b; /* Line 7 */
    }
    public static void main (String args[])
    {
        Test t = new Test(); /* Line 11 */
        Bar newBar = t.doBar(); /* Line 12 */
        System.out.println("newBar");
        newBar = new Bar(); /* Line 14 */
        System.out.println("finishing"); /* Line 15 */
    }
}
```

- A. after line 12
- B. after line 14**
- C. after line 7, when `doBar()` completes
- D. after line 15, when `main()` completes

Explanation:

Option B is correct. All references to the `Bar` object created on line 6 are destroyed when a new reference to a new `Bar` object is assigned to the variable `newBar` on line 14. Therefore the `Bar` object, created on line 6, is eligible for garbage collection after line 14.

Option A is wrong. This actually protects the object from garbage collection.

Option C is wrong. Because the reference in the `doBar()` method is returned on line 7 and is stored in `newBar` on line 12. This preserves the object created on line 6.

Option D is wrong. Not applicable because the object is eligible for garbage collection after line 14.

Read More: [Garbage Collections](#)

16. When is the Demo object eligible for garbage collection?

```
class Test
{
    private Demo d;
    void start()
    {
        d = new Demo();
        this.takeDemo(d); /* Line 7 */
    } /* Line 8 */
    void takeDemo(Demo demo)
    {
        demo = null;
        demo = new Demo();
    }
}
```

- A. After line 7
- B. After line 8
- C. After the `start()` method completes
- D. When the instance running this code is made eligible for garbage collection.

Explanation:

Option D is correct. By a process of elimination.

Option A is wrong. The variable `d` is a member of the `Test` class and is never directly set to null.

Option B is wrong. A copy of the variable `d` is set to null and not the actual variable `d`.

Option C is wrong. The variable `d` exists outside the `start()` method (it is a class member). So, when the `start()` method finishes the variable `d` still holds a reference.

Read More: [Garbage Collections](#)

17. After line 8 runs. how many objects are eligible for garbage collection?

```
public class X
{
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        X x = new X();
        X x2 = m1(x); /* Line 6 */
        X x4 = new X();
        x2 = x4; /* Line 8 */
        doComplexStuff();
    }
    static X m1(X mx)
    {
        mx = new X();
        return mx;
    }
}
```

A. 0

B. 1

C. 2

D. 3

Explanation:

By the time line 8 has run, the only object without a reference is the one generated as a result of line 6. Remember that "Java is pass by value," so the reference variable `x` is not affected by the `m1()` method.

Read More: [Garbage Collections](#)

18. What causes compilation to fail?

```
public class Test
{
    public void foo()
    {
        assert false; /* Line 5 */
        assert false; /* Line 6 */
    }
    public void bar()
    {
        while(true)
        {
            assert false; /* Line 12 */
        }
        assert false; /* Line 14 */
    }
}
```

- A. Line 5
- B. Line 6
- C. Line 12
- D. Line 14**

Explanation:

Option D is correct. Compilation fails because of an unreachable statement at line 14. It is a compile-time error if a statement cannot be executed because it is unreachable. The question is now, why is line 20 unreachable? If it is because of the assert then surely line 6 would also be unreachable. The answer must be something other than assert.

Examine the following:

A while statement can complete normally if and only if at least one of the following is true:

- The `while` statement is reachable and the condition expression is not a constant expression with value true.
- There is a reachable break statement that exits the `while` statement.

The while statement at line 11 is infinite and there is no break statement therefore line 14 is unreachable. You can test this with the following code:


```
public class Test80
{
    public void foo()
    {
        assert false;
        assert false;
    }
    public void bar()
    {
        while(true)
        {
            assert false;
            break;
        }
        assert false;
    }
}
```

Read More: [Assertions](#)

19. What will be the output of the program?

```
public class SqrtExample
{
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        double value = -9.0;
        System.out.println( Math.sqrt(value));
    }
}
```

- A. 3.0
- B. -3.0
- C. NaN**
- D. Compilation fails.

Explanation:

The `sqrt()` method returns `NaN` (not a number) when its argument is less than zero.

Read More: [Java.lang Class](#)

20. What will be the output of the program?

```
String a = "newspaper";  
a = a.substring(5,7);  
char b = a.charAt(1);  
a = a + b;  
System.out.println(a);
```

A. apa

B. app

C. apea

D. aep

Read More: [Java.lang Class](#)

REMEMBER: PREPARATION IS KEY