

ANDROID INTERVIEW QUESTION PART 3 KOTLIN

1) How does Kotlin work on Android?

Just like Java, the Kotlin code is also compiled into the Java bytecode and is executed at runtime by the Java Virtual Machine **i.e.** JVM. When a Kotlin file named Main.kt is compiled then it will eventually turn into a class and then the bytecode of the class will be generated. The name of the bytecode file will be MainKt.class and this file will be executed by the JVM.

2) Explain the advantages of using Kotlin?

Some advantages of using Kotlin include:

- **Concise Syntax:** Kotlin's syntax is more concise, reducing boilerplate code and making it easier to read and write.
- **Null Safety:** Kotlin's null safety features help prevent null pointer exceptions, enhancing code reliability.
- **Interoperability:** Kotlin is fully interoperable with Java, allowing you to leverage existing Java libraries and frameworks in Kotlin projects.
- **Coroutines:** Kotlin's built-in support for coroutines simplifies asynchronous programming and improves performance.
- **Functional Programming:** Kotlin supports functional programming constructs like higher-order functions and lambda expressions, making code more expressive and concise.
- **Tooling and Community Support:** Kotlin has excellent tooling support, including IDE plugins for popular development environments. It also has a growing and active community, with abundant learning resources and libraries available.

3) What is the difference between val and var in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, **val** and **var** are used to declare variables, but they have different characteristics:

- **val** is used to declare read-only (immutable) variables. Once assigned, the value of a `val` cannot be changed.
- **var** is used to declare mutable(changeable) variables. The value of a `var` can be reassigned multiple times.

```
val pi = 3.14 // Declaring a read-only variable
// pi = 3.1415 // Error: Val cannot be reassigned

var count = 0 // Declaring a mutable variable
count = 1 // Reassigning the value
```

4) What is the difference between an immutable and a mutable list in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, an immutable list (read-only list) is created using the `listOf()` function, and its elements cannot be modified once the list is created. On the other hand, a mutable list can be modified by adding, removing, or modifying its elements using specific functions.

Example:

```
val immutableList: List<Int> = listOf(1, 2, 3) // Immutable list
val mutableList: MutableList<Int> = mutableListOf(4, 5, 6) // Mutable list

immutableList[0] = 10 // Error: Immutable list cannot be modified

mutableList[0] = 10 // Mutable list can be modified
mutableList.add(7) // Add an element to the mutable list
mutableList.removeAt(1) // Remove an element from the mutable list
```

In the example, `immutableList` is an immutable list, and attempting to modify its elements results in an error. However, `mutableList` is a mutable list, allowing us to modify its elements by assigning new values, adding elements, or removing elements using specific functions like `add()` and `removeAt()`.

5) Explain the concepts of immutable and mutable variables in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, variables can be either immutable or mutable.

- **Immutable Variables:** Immutable variables are declared using the `val` keyword. Once assigned a value, their value cannot be changed or reassigned. They are read-only and provide a guarantee of immutability.

```
val name = "John" // Immutable variable
name = "Alex" // Error: Cannot reassign value to an immutable variable
```

In the above example, the `name` variable is declared as an immutable variable using `val`. Once assigned the value "John", it cannot be changed or reassigned to another value.

- **Mutable Variables:** Mutable variables are declared using the `var` keyword. They can be assigned a value initially and then modified or reassigned later. Mutable variables provide flexibility for value changes during program execution.

```
var age = 25 // Mutable variable
age = 30 // Value can be modified or reassigned
```

In the example, the `age` variable is declared as a mutable variable using `var`. It is initially assigned the value 25 but can be modified or reassigned to another value, such as 30, later in the program.

6) What are nullable types in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, nullable types allow variables to hold null values in addition to their regular data type values. This is in contrast to non-nullable types, which cannot hold null values by default. By using nullable types, the compiler enforces null safety and reduces the occurrence of null pointer exceptions.

To declare a nullable type, you append a question mark (?) to the data type.

```
val name: String? = null // Nullable String type
val age: Int? = 25 // Nullable Int type
```

7) How to ensure null safety in Kotlin?

One of the major advantages of using Kotlin is null safety. In Java, if you access some null variable then you will get a ***NullPointerException***. So, the following code in Kotlin will produce a compile-time error:

```
var name: String = "Anand"
name = null //error
```

So, to assign null values to a variable, you need to declare the name variable as a nullable string and then during the access of this variable, you need to use a safe call operator i.e. `?.`

```
var name: String? = "Anand"
print(name?.length) // ok
name = null // ok
```

8) How do you handle nullability in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, you can handle nullability using several techniques:

- **Safe Calls:** Use the safe call operator (`?.`) to safely access properties or call methods on a nullable object. If the object is null, the expression evaluates to null instead of throwing a null pointer exception.

```
val length: Int? = text?.length
```

- **Elvis Operator:** The Elvis operator (`?:`) allows you to provide a default value when accessing a nullable object. If the object is null, the expression after the Elvis operator is returned instead.

```
val length: Int = text?.length ?: 0
```

- **Safe Casts:** Use the safe cast operator (`as?`) to perform type casts on nullable objects. If the cast is unsuccessful, the result is null.

```
val name: String? = value as? String
```

- **Non-Null Assertion:** When you are certain that a nullable variable is not null at a specific point, you can use the non-null assertion operator (`!!`) to bypass null safety checks. However, if the variable is actually null, a null pointer exception will occur.

```
val length: Int = text!!.length
```

9) What is the difference between safe calls(`?.`) and null check(`!!`)?

Safe call operator i.e. `?.`: is used to check if the value of the variable is null or not. If it is null then null will be returned otherwise it will return the desired value.

```
var name: String? = "Anand"  
print(name?.length) // 8  
name = null  
println(name?.length) // null
```

null check i.e. `!!`: If you want to throw `NullPointerException` when the value of the variable is null, then you can use the null check or `!!` operator.

```
var name: String? = "Anand"  
println(name?.length) // 8  
name = null  
println(name!!.length) // KotlinNullPointerException
```

10) Do we have a ternary operator in Kotlin just like Java?

No, we don't have a ternary operator in Kotlin but you can use the functionality of a ternary operator by using the ***if-else*** or ***Elvis operator***.

11) What is the Elvis operator in Kotlin?

The Elvis operator (`?:`) is a shorthand notation in Kotlin that provides a default value when accessing a nullable object. It is useful in scenarios where you want to assign a default value if a nullable object is null.

In Kotlin, you can assign null values to a variable by using the null safety property. To check if a value is having null value then you can use if-else or can use the Elvis operator i.e. `?:`:

Syntax:

```
nullableObject ?: defaultValue
```

If `nullableObject` is not null, the expression evaluates to `nullableObject`. If `nullableObject` is null, the expression evaluates to `defaultValue`.

Example:

```
val name: String? = null
val length: Int = name?.length ?: 0 // If name is null, assign 0 as the length
```

In the example, if `name` is null, the `length` variable is assigned the value of 0 as a default value. Otherwise, it assigns the length of `name`.

12) What is a data class in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, a data class is a special type of class that is primarily used to hold data/state rather than behavior. It is designed to automatically generate common methods such as `equals()`, `hashCode()`, `toString()`, and `copy()` based on the properties defined in the class.

```
data class Person(val name: String, val age: Int)
val person = Person("John", 25)
println(person) // Output: Person(name=John, age=25)
```

In the example, the `Person` class is defined as a data class with properties `name` and `age`. The `toString()` method is automatically generated and displays the property values when the `person` instance is printed. Data classes are

useful for modeling data-centric structures and automatically providing useful methods for working with the data.

13) Can we use primitive types such as int, double, and float in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, we can't use primitive types directly. We can use classes like Int, Double, etc. as an object wrapper for primitives. But the compiled bytecode has these primitive types.

14) What is String Interpolation in Kotlin?

If you want to use some variable or perform some operation inside a string then String Interpolation can be used. You can use the \$ sign to use some variable in the string or can perform some operation in between {} sign.

```
fun main() {  
    val name = "John"  
    val age = 30  
    val message = "My name is $name and I am $age years old."  
    println(message) // Output: My name is John and I am 30 years old.  
}
```

15) What are the different visibility modifiers available in Kotlin?

There are different visibility modifiers that control the visibility and accessibility of classes, functions, properties, and other declarations. The visibility modifiers available in Kotlin are:

- **public:** The default visibility modifier. Public declarations are accessible from anywhere.
- **private:** Private declarations are only accessible within the same file or the same scope (such as a class or a function).
- **protected:** Protected declarations are accessible within the same class and its subclasses. They are not visible outside the class hierarchy.
- **internal:** Internal declarations are visible within the same module. A module is a set of Kotlin files compiled together, such as an IntelliJ module or a Gradle module.
- **protected internal:** A combination of protected and internal. Protected internal declarations are visible within the same module and subclasses.
- **private internal:** A combination of private and internal. Private internal declarations are visible within the same file and the same module.

These visibility modifiers allow you to control the visibility and accessibility of your code, ensuring proper encapsulation and modularization. By choosing the appropriate visibility modifier, you can limit access to certain declarations and enforce proper usage of your code.

16) When to use the `lateinit` keyword in Kotlin?

`lateinit` is late initialization.

Normally, properties declared as having a non-null type must be initialized in the constructor. However, fairly often this is not convenient.

For example, properties can be initialized through dependency injection, or in the setup method of a unit test. In this case, you cannot supply a non-null initializer in the constructor, but you still want to avoid null checks when referencing the property inside the body of a class. To handle this case, you can mark the property with the `lateinit` modifier.

17) What is a `lateinit` property in Kotlin?

a `lateinit` property in Kotlin is a way to declare a non-null property that is not immediately initialized when it is declared. It allows you to assign a value to the property at a later point before accessing it. Here's an example:

```
class Person {
    lateinit var name: String

    fun initializeName() {
        name = "John Doe"
    }

    fun printName() {
        if (::name.isInitialized) {
            println(name)
        }
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person = Person()
    person.initializeName()
    person.printName() // Output: John Doe
}
```

In the above example, the `name` property is declared as `lateinit var`, indicating that it will be initialized later. The `initializeName` function assigns a value to the `name` property. The `printName` function checks if the `name` property has been initialized before printing it.

18) How to check if a `lateinit` variable has been initialized or not?

You can check if the `lateinit` variable has been initialized or not before using it with the help of `isInitialized` method. This method will return `true` if the `lateinit` property has been initialized otherwise it will return `false`. **For example:**

```
class Person {
    lateinit var name: String
    fun initializeName()
    {
        println(this::name.isInitialized)
        name = "Anand" // initializing name
        println(this::name.isInitialized)
    }
}

fun main(args: Array<String>) {
    Person().initializeName()
}
```

19) What is the difference between `lateinit` and lazy initialization in Kotlin?

Lazy:

- Lazy can only be used for `val` properties, whereas `lateinit` can only be applied to `var` because it can't be compiled to a final field, thus no immutability can be guaranteed.
- Lazy initialization is used for both immutable and mutable properties. It allows you to declare a property and initialize it lazily when it is accessed for the first time. The initialization code is executed only once, and the result is cached for subsequent accesses. Lazy initialization is often used to defer expensive computations or delay initialization until the value is actually needed.

```
val lazyValue: String by lazy {
    println("Initializing lazyValue")
    "Lazy Value"
}

fun main() {
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Initializing lazyValue, Lazy Value
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Lazy Value (value is cached)
}
```

Lateinit:

- If you want your property to be initialized from outside in a way probably unknown beforehand, use `lateinit`.
- `lateinit` is used for non-null mutable properties. It allows you to declare a property without initializing it immediately. However, you must assign a value to it before accessing it, otherwise, a `NullPointerException` will be thrown. `lateinit` properties are typically used when the initialization cannot be done in the constructor or when you want to delay the initialization until later in the code.

```
class Example {
    lateinit var name: String

    fun initialize() {
        name = "John"
    }
}
```



```

    fun printName() {
        if (::name.isInitialized) {
            println(name)
        }
    }
}

fun main() {
    val example = Example()
    example.initialize()
    example.printName() // Output: John
}

```

20) What is the use of the lateinit modifier in Kotlin?

The `lateinit` modifier in Kotlin is used to declare properties that will be assigned a value later, but not at the time of declaration. It is specifically used with mutable properties of non-null types.

```

lateinit var name: String

fun initializeName() {
    name = "John"
}

fun printName() {
    if (::name.isInitialized) {
        println(name)
    } else {
        println("Name is not initialized yet")
    }
}

```

In the **example**, the `name` property is declared using the `lateinit` modifier. It is not assigned a value at the time of declaration but is initialized later within the `initializeName()` function. The `printName()` function checks if the `name` property has been initialized using the `isInitialized` property reference. If it is initialized, the name is printed; otherwise, a message indicating that the name is not initialized yet is printed. The `lateinit` modifier is useful when you need to delay the initialization of a property.

21) Explain the concept of lazy initialization in Kotlin?

Lazy initialization in Kotlin is a technique where a property is not initialized until its value is accessed for the first time. It helps in optimizing resource usage by deferring the initialization process until it is actually needed.

Lazy initialization is typically used for properties that are computationally expensive or require expensive resource allocation, where it is unnecessary to initialize them immediately.

```

val expensiveProperty: String by lazy {
    // Expensive initialization code
    "Initialized value"
}

fun main() {
    println("Before accessing property")
    println(expensiveProperty) // Property access triggers initialization
    println("After accessing property")
}

```

In the example, the `expensiveProperty` is declared using the `lazy` delegate. The initialization code is provided as a lambda expression, which will only be executed when the property is accessed for the first time. In this case, the initialization code is executed and the value **"Initialized value"** is assigned to the property. Subsequent access to the property will return the already initialized value.

Lazy initialization is useful for optimizing performance and resource usage, especially for properties that are not frequently accessed or have expensive initialization logic.

22) Explain the concept of lazy evaluation in Kotlin?

Lazy evaluation in Kotlin refers to the evaluation of an expression or computation only when it is needed or accessed for the first time. It delays the evaluation until the value is actually required. Lazy evaluation is often used to optimize performance by avoiding unnecessary computations.

```
val lazyValue: Int by lazy {
    println("Computing lazyValue")
    5
}

fun main() {
    println("Before accessing lazyValue")
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Computing lazyValue, 5
}
```

23) What is the purpose of the by lazy function in Kotlin?

The purpose of the `by lazy` function in Kotlin is to achieve lazy initialization of properties. It allows you to define a property that is computed lazily, meaning it is only calculated when it is accessed for the first time. The result of the computation is then stored and returned for subsequent accesses, avoiding unnecessary recomputations.

```
val lazyValue: String by lazy {
    println("Computing lazyValue")
    "Hello, Lazy!"
}

fun main() {
    println("Before accessing lazyValue")
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Computing lazyValue, Hello, Lazy!
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Hello, Lazy!
}
```

24) Explain the concept of destructuring declarations in Kotlin?

Destructuring declarations in Kotlin allow you to extract multiple values from an object or a data structure and assign them to individual variables. It simplifies the process of extracting and using specific elements from complex objects. Destructuring declarations are typically used with data classes, arrays, and other structures that provide component functions. **Here's an example:**

```
data class Point(val x: Int, val y: Int)

fun main() {
    val point = Point(3, 4)
    val (x, y) = point
    println("x: $x, y: $y") // Output: x: 3, y: 4
}
```

25) What is the difference between “==” and “===” operators in Kotlin?

The **== operator** is used for structural equality comparison, which checks if the values of two objects are equal.

The **=== operator** is used for referential equality comparison, which checks if two references point to the same object in memory.

Here's an **example** to illustrate the difference:

```
val a = "Hello"
val b = "Hello"
val c = a

println(a == b) // Output: true (structural equality)
println(a === b) // Output: false (referential equality)
println(a === c) // Output: true (referential equality)
```

26) What is the forEach in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, to use the functionality of a for-each loop just like in Java, we use a `forEach` function. The following is an **example** of the same:

```
var listOfName = listOf("Anand", "Ankit", "Deepak")
listOfName.forEach {
    Log.d(TAG, it)
}
```

27) What are companion objects in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, if you want to write a function or any member of the class that can be called without having the instance of the class then you can write the same as a member of a companion object inside the class.

To create a **companion** object, you need to add the companion keyword in front of the object declaration.

The following is an example of a companion object in Kotlin:

```

class ToBeCalled {
    companion object Test {
        fun callMe() = println("You are calling me :)")
    }
    fun main(args: Array<String>) {
        ToBeCalled.callMe()
    }
}

```

28) What is the equivalent of Java static methods in Kotlin?

To achieve functionality similar to Java static methods in Kotlin, we can use:

- companion object
- package-level function
- object

29) What is the use of @JvmStatic, @JvmOverloads, and @JvmField in Kotlin?

- **@JvmStatic:** This annotation is used to tell the compiler that the method is a static method and can be used in Java code.
- **@JvmOverloads:** To use the default values passed as an argument in Kotlin code from the Java code, we need to use the @JvmOverloads annotation.
- **@JvmField:** To access the fields of a Kotlin class from Java code without using any getters and setters, we need to use the @JvmField in the Kotlin code.

30) Explain the concept of smart casts in Kotlin?

Smart casts in Kotlin are a feature that allows the compiler to automatically cast a variable to a non-nullable type after a null check. It eliminates the need for explicit type casting and enhances code readability and safety.

When a variable is checked for null using an `if` or `when` statement, the compiler can automatically cast the variable to a non-nullable type within the corresponding block.

```

fun printLength(text: String?) {
    if (text != null) {
        println("Length: ${text.length}") // Automatic smart cast to non-nullable type
    } else {
        println("Text is null")
    }
}

```

In the above example, the `text` variable is initially nullable. After the null check, the compiler understands that within the `if` block, the `text` variable is guaranteed to be non-null, so it can be used without any further null checks.

31) What are Kotlin collections?

Kotlin collections are used to store and manage groups of related data items. They provide a convenient way to work with multiple values as a single unit. Kotlin offers various collection types, such as lists, sets, and maps, each with its own characteristics and functionalities.

Collections in Kotlin are used to store a group of related objects in a single unit. By using collection, we can store, retrieve manipulate, and aggregate data.

```
val numbers: List<Int> = listOf(1, 2, 3, 4, 5) // A list collection storing integers
val names: Set<String> = setOf("Alice", "Bob", "Charlie") // A set collection storing strings
val ages: Map<String, Int> = mapOf("Alice" to 25, "Bob" to 30, "Charlie" to 35) // A map collection storing key-value pairs
```

In the example, we have created different collections using Kotlin's collection types. The `numbers` list stores integers, the `names` set stores strings, and the `ages` map stores key-value pairs of names and corresponding ages.

Types of Kotlin Collections

Kotlin collections are broadly categories into *two different forms*. These are:

1. **Immutable Collection** (or **Collection**): Immutable collection also called Collection supports read only functionalities.
2. **Mutable Collection**: Mutable collections support both read and write functionalities

32) What is the difference between a list and an array in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, a list is an ordered collection that can store elements of any type, while an array is a fixed-size collection that stores elements of a specific type. Here are the main differences:

- **Size:** *Lists* can dynamically grow or shrink in size, whereas *arrays* have a fixed size that is determined at the time of creation.
- **Type Flexibility:** *Lists* can store elements of different types using generics, allowing for heterogeneity. *Arrays*, on the other hand, are homogeneous and can store elements of a single type.

- **Modification:** *Lists* provide convenient methods for adding, removing, or modifying elements. *Arrays* have fixed sizes, so adding or removing elements requires creating a new array or overwriting existing elements.
- **Performance:** *Arrays* generally offer better performance for direct element access and modification, as they use contiguous memory locations. *Lists*, being dynamic, involve some level of overhead for resizing and maintaining their internal structure.

33) What is the difference between FlatMap and Map in Kotlin?

- **FlatMap** is used to combine all the items of lists into one list.
- **Map** is used to transform a list based on certain conditions.

34) How do you create an empty list in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, you can create an empty list using the `listOf()` function with no arguments. This creates a list with zero elements.

Example:

```
val emptyList: List<Int> = listOf() // Empty list of integers
```

In the above example, we have created an empty list called `emptyList` that can hold integers. It is initialized using the `listOf()` function without any elements.

35) What is a lambda expression in Kotlin?

A **lambda expression** in Kotlin is a way to define a function-like construct without explicitly declaring a function. It allows you to create a block of code that can be passed around as an argument or stored in a variable.

Lambdas expressions are anonymous functions that can be treated as values i.e. we can pass the lambdas expressions as arguments to a function return them, or do any other thing we could do with a normal object.

```
val sum = { a: Int, b: Int -> a + b } // Lambda expression
val result = sum(3, 4) // Invoking the lambda expression
println(result) // Output: 7
```

36) Explain the concept of higher-order functions in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, **higher-order functions** are functions that can accept other functions as parameters or return functions as results. They treat functions as first-class citizens, allowing for functional programming paradigms.

Benefits of Higher Order Functions:

❑ **Code Reusability:** HOFs allow you to extract common patterns into reusable functions, reducing code duplication and increasing maintainability. This leads to cleaner and more modular codebases.

❑ **Flexibility:** HOFs enable you to define behavior at runtime, making your code more adaptable to different scenarios. They provide the ability to pass functions as arguments, making it easier to implement callbacks, event handling, and asynchronous programming.

❑ **Conciseness:** With HOFs, you can express complex operations in a concise and declarative manner. They promote a functional style of programming, allowing you to focus on the “what” instead of the “how,” leading to more expressive and readable code.

Use Cases for Production Apps:

Higher Order Functions can be incredibly useful in various scenarios, such as:

❑ **Filtering and Transformation:** HOFs like filter, map, and reduce enable you to process collections efficiently, extracting specific elements or transforming them into a different shape.

❑ **Callbacks and Event Handling:** HOFs make it easier to define and handle callbacks or events in your application. They provide a flexible way to respond to user interactions or external events.

❑ **Dependency Injection:** HOFs facilitate dependency injection by allowing you to pass behavior (functions) as parameters. This promotes loose coupling and improves the testability of your code.

❑ **Asynchronous Programming:** HOFs, combined with concepts like coroutines, enable you to write asynchronous code more fluently. They make it easier to handle callbacks, timeouts, and error handling in an elegant way.

```
fun calculate(x: Int, y: Int, operation: (Int, Int) -> Int): Int {  
    return operation(x, y)  
}  
  
val result = calculate(5, 3) { a, b -> a + b } // Higher-order function usage  
println(result) // Output: 8
```

In the **example**, the `calculate` function is a higher-order function that takes two `Int` parameters and a function called `operation` as its third parameter. The `operation` parameter is a lambda expression that performs a specific operation on the input parameters (`a + b` in this case). The higher-order function then invokes the `operation` function with the provided arguments `5` and `3`, resulting in a value of `8`.

37) Explain the concept of extension functions in Kotlin?

Extension functions in Kotlin allow you to add new functions to existing classes without modifying their source code. They provide a way to extend the functionality of a class without the need for inheritance or modifying the original class.

```
fun String.addExclamation(): String {
    return "$this!"
}

val message = "Hello"
val modifiedMessage = message.addExclamation() // Extension function usage

println(modifiedMessage) // Output: Hello!
```

In the example, we define an extension function called `addExclamation()` for the `String` class. This function appends an exclamation mark to the string. The extension function can then be used on any instance of the `String` class, as shown with the `message` variable. It adds the exclamation mark to the string, resulting in `"Hello!"`. Extension functions are powerful for adding utility methods or enhancing existing classes with custom functionality.

Extension functions are like extensive properties attached to any class in Kotlin. By using extension functions, you can add some methods or functionalities to an existing class even without inheriting the class.

For example: Let's say, we have views where we need to play with the visibility of the views. So, we can create an extension function for views like,

```
fun View.show() {
    this.visibility = View.VISIBLE
}
fun View.hide() {
    this.visibility = View.GONE
}
```

38) What is an infix function in Kotlin?

An infix function is used to call the function without using any bracket or parenthesis. You need to use the `infix` keyword to use the infix function.

```
class Operations {
    infix var x = 10;
```



```
infix fun minus(num: Int) {
    this.x = this.x - num
}
fun main() {
    val opr = Operations()
    opr minus 8
    print(opr.x)
}
```

39) What are inline functions in Kotlin?

Inline functions in Kotlin are functions that are expanded or “inlined” at the call site during compilation. Instead of creating a separate function call, the code of the inline function is directly inserted at each call site. This can improve performance by reducing function call overhead. However, it may also increase the size of the generated bytecode. Inline functions are declared using the `inline` keyword.

Inline function instructs the compiler to insert the complete body of the function wherever that function got used in the code.

Here's an **example**:

```
inline fun calculateSum(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a + b
}

fun main() {
    val sum = calculateSum(3, 4)
    println(sum) // Output: 7
}
```

40) What is noinline in Kotlin?

While using an *inline function* and want to pass some lambda functions and not all lambda functions as inline, then you can explicitly tell the compiler which lambda it shouldn't inline.

```
inline fun doSomethingElse(abc: () -> Unit, noinline xyz: () -> Unit) {
    abc()
    xyz()
}
```

41) What is the use of the reified modifier in Kotlin?

The **`reified`** modifier in Kotlin is used in combination with the **`inline`** modifier to enable the type information of a generic parameter to be available at runtime. Normally, due to type erasure, the generic type information is not available during runtime.

By marking a generic type parameter with the ``reified`` modifier, you can access the actual type at runtime within the body of an inline function. This allows you to perform operations on the type, such as checking its properties or calling its functions.

The ``reified`` modifier is often used when working with functions that need to perform operations based on the runtime type of a generic parameter, such as reflection or type-specific behavior.

```
inline fun <reified T> getTypeName(): String {  
    return T::class.simpleName ?: "Unknown"  
}  
  
val typeName = getTypeName<Int>()  
println(typeName) // Prints "Int"
```

In the **example**, the ``getTypeName`` function uses the ``reified`` modifier on the generic type parameter ``T``. Inside the function, we can use ``T::class`` to access the runtime class object of ``T``. We then use the ``simpleName`` property to get the name of the type as a string.

The ``reified`` modifier is a powerful feature in Kotlin that enables more advanced operations based on the runtime type of generic parameters.

42) What is a sealed class in Kotlin?

A **sealed class** in Kotlin is a class that can have a limited set of subclasses defined within it. It allows you to restrict the inheritance hierarchy and define a closed set of possible subclasses.

Sealed classes are useful when you want to represent a restricted type hierarchy, where all the possible subclasses are known in advance and should be handled exhaustively in when expressions.

Sealed classes give us the flexibility of having *different types of subclasses and also containing the state*. The important point to be noted here is the subclasses that are extending the Sealed classes should be either nested classes of the Sealed class or should be declared in the same file as that of the Sealed class.

```
sealed class Result {  
    data class Success(val data: String) : Result()  
    data class Error(val message: String) : Result()  
    object Loading : Result()  
}  
  
fun processResult(result: Result) {  
    when (result) {  
        is Result.Success -> {  
            println("Success: ${result.data}")  
        }  
        is Result.Error -> {  
            println("Error: ${result.message}")  
        }  
        Result.Loading -> {  
            println("Loading...")  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
}  
    }  
}
```

In the **example**, the ``Result`` class is a sealed class with three subclasses: ``Success``, ``Error``, and ``Loading``. The ``processResult`` function demonstrates exhaustive handling of all possible subclasses using a `when` expression.

Sealed classes provide a safe way to handle restricted hierarchies and enable exhaustive pattern matching, making code more robust and less error-prone.

43) What is suspend function in Kotlin Coroutines?

Suspend function is the building block of the Coroutines in Kotlin. Suspend function is a function that could be started, paused, and resume. To use a suspend function, we need to use the `suspend` keyword in our normal function definition.

- Suspend function are special function that can perform some long running operations and be suspended or paused from coroutines machinery and can be continued at a later stage of code execution.
- Suspend function can only be called from another suspend function or from a coroutine.
- Suspend function can be paused at any suspend point i.e. every time we call a different suspend function.

44) Explain the suspend modifier in Kotlin?

The **``suspend``** modifier in Kotlin is used to mark functions or lambda expressions that can be suspended and resumed later without blocking the thread. It is a fundamental concept in coroutine-based programming.

When a function is marked with ``suspend``, it means that it can invoke other suspending functions and itself be invoked from other suspending functions. The ``suspend`` modifier indicates that the function is designed to work within a coroutine context and can perform asynchronous operations without blocking the thread.

```
suspend fun fetchData(): String {  
    delay(1000L)  
    return "Data fetched"  
}  
  
fun main() = runBlocking {  
    val result = fetchData()  
    println(result)  
}
```

In the **example**, the `fetchData` function is marked with the `suspend` modifier. Inside the function, we use the `delay` function to suspend execution for 1000 milliseconds (1 second) without blocking the thread. The function is invoked from the `main` function within a `runBlocking` block, which creates a coroutine scope.

The `suspend` modifier allows for the sequential execution of suspending functions within coroutines, enabling asynchronous programming while maintaining the benefits of structured and sequential code.

45) What are Scope functions?

Scope functions are functions in the Kotlin standard library whose purpose is to execute a block of code within the context of an object. It provides a temporary scope when you call the function on the object with a lambda expression. In this scope, the function can access the object without its name.

Types of scope functions

There are five types of scope functions:

1. `let`
2. `run`
3. `with`
4. `apply`
5. `also`

1) `let`:

The scope function “let” in Kotlin is used to execute a block of code on an object and provide a temporary scope for accessing its properties and functions. It allows for more concise and expressive code when performing operations on nullable objects or applying transformations.

The “let” function takes the object as the receiver and provides it as an argument to the lambda expression. Inside the lambda, you can perform operations on the object and return a result if needed.

let is often used for executing a code block only with non-null values. To perform actions on a non-null object, use the safe call operator `?.` on it and call let with the actions in its lambda.

```

val name: String? = "John"
name?.let { // Execute block only if name is not null
    val formattedName = it.capitalize()
    println("Formatted name: $formattedName")
}

```

In the *example*, the “**let**” function is used to perform operations on the nullable `name` variable. Inside the lambda expression, we access the non-null value using the `it` keyword and capitalize it. The formatted name is then printed.

The “let” function provides a convenient way to work with nullable objects and perform operations in a safe and concise manner.

2) ‘run’ :

The scope function “**run**” in Kotlin is used to execute a block of code on an object, similar to the “let” function. However, unlike “let”, the “**run**” function does not provide the object as an argument but rather as a receiver. It allows you to access the object’s properties and functions directly within the block.

The “run” function is useful when you want to perform a series of operations on an object without the need for additional variables or when you need to access multiple properties or functions of the object.

run is useful when the lambda contains both the object initialization and the computation of the return value.

```

val person = Person("John", 25)

val result = person.run {
    val formattedName = name.toUpperCase()
    "Formatted name: $formattedName, Age: $age"
}

println(result) // Prints "Formatted name: JOHN, Age: 25"

```

In the example, the “run” function is used to access the properties of the `person` object directly within the lambda expression. We use the `name` property to get the uppercase formatted name and the `age` property to include the person’s age in the result string.

The “run” function allows for concise and readable code when performing multiple operations on an object without the need for additional variables.

3) ‘with’ :

The **with** function in Kotlin is a scope function that provides a concise way to operate on an object within a specified scope. It allows you to call multiple functions or access properties of an object without repeating the object name. The **with** function sets the object as the receiver of the lambda expression, enabling direct access to its properties and functions.

It is recommended to use **with** for calling functions on the context object without providing the lambda result. In the code, with can be read as “**with this object, do the following.**”

The return type of **with** is the result of the lambda expression, which is the last statement in the lambda or explicitly specified using the `return` keyword.

with is used to operate on an object without the need to call its members with a dot notation. It allows accessing the object's properties and functions directly within the lambda block.

Example,

```
public fun getSomeObject(): Something {
    val someObject = Something()
    with(someObject) {
        println("Value $value")
        println("type $type")
    }
    return someObject
}
```

4) ‘apply’ :

The scope function “**apply**” in Kotlin is used to configure properties and perform initialization on an object. It allows you to apply a series of operations on an object within a block of code, and it returns the object itself after the operations are applied.

The “**apply**” function takes the object as the receiver and provides it as an argument to the lambda expression. Inside the lambda, you can configure properties, call functions, or perform any other operations on the object.

It is use **apply** for code blocks that don’t return a value and mainly operate on the members of the receiver object. The common case for using apply is the object configuration. Such calls can be read as “**apply the following assignments to the object.**”

```
class Person {
    var name: String = ""
    var age: Int = 0
}
val person = Person().apply {
    name = "John"
    age = 25
}
```

In the example, the “apply” function is used to configure the properties of a `Person` object. Inside the lambda expression, we set the `name` and `age` properties of the object. The “apply” function returns the modified object itself (`Person`), allowing for method chaining or further operations.

The “apply” function is commonly used for initializing objects or configuring properties in a concise and readable manner.

5) ‘also’ :

The scope function “**also**” in Kotlin is used to perform some additional actions on an object within a block of code, without changing the object itself. It allows you to execute a block of code and return the original object.

The “**also**” function takes the object as the receiver and provides it as an argument to the lambda expression. Inside the lambda, you can perform additional actions or transformations on the object.

It is use **also** in cases where the actions are taken on the object rather than the fields of the object. Such calls can be read as “**and also do the following with the object.**”

```
val list = mutableListOf<Int>()
val result = list.also {
    it.add(1)
    it.add(2)
    it.add(3)
}
println(result) // Prints the original list with added elements
```

In the **example**, the “also” function is used on a `MutableList` to add elements to the list within the lambda expression. The `also` function returns the original list, allowing you to perform additional operations on it or use it in further expressions.

The “also” function is useful when you want to perform additional actions on an object while keeping the original object unchanged, or when you need to chain multiple operations on the same object.

46) What is the scope function “run” with receiver in Kotlin?

The scope function “**run**” with *receiver* in Kotlin combines the features of both “run” and “let” functions. It allows you to execute a block of code on a nullable object (receiver) and perform operations on it within the block.

The “run” with receiver function is useful when you want to handle nullable objects and perform operations on them while avoiding excessive null checks or using the safe call operator (?).

```

val name: String? = "John"
val result = name?.run {
    val formattedName = this.capitalize()
    "Formatted name: $formattedName"
} ?: "Name is null"
println(result) // Prints "Formatted name: John"

```

In the example, the “run” with receiver function is used on the nullable `name` variable. Inside the lambda expression, we access the non-null value using the `this` keyword and capitalize it to get the formatted name. If the `name` is null, the “run” block will not be executed, and the alternative string “Name is null” will be assigned to the `result` variable.

The “run” with receiver function provides a convenient way to handle nullable objects and perform operations on them in a concise and readable manner.

47) What is the difference between “apply” and “also” scope functions in Kotlin?

The `apply` and `also` are scope functions in Kotlin that are used for executing a block of code on an object and returning the object itself. The main difference between them is the context in which the code block is executed.

- `apply` executes the provided block of code in the context of the object it is called on. It allows you to modify properties or perform other operations on the object easily. The return value is the object itself.
- `also` executes the provided block of code in the context of the object it is called on, just like `apply`. However, the return value is the original object, not the modified object.

Here’s an example to illustrate the difference:

```

data class Person(var name: String, var age: Int)

fun main() {
    val person = Person("John", 25)

    val modifiedPersonApply = person.apply {
        age = 30
    }

    val modifiedPersonAlso = person.also {
        it.age = 35
    }

    println(modifiedPersonApply) // Output: Person(name=John, age=30)
    println(modifiedPersonAlso) // Output: Person(name=John, age=35)
}

```

48) How do you handle exceptions in Kotlin coroutines?

In Kotlin coroutines, **exceptions** are handled using try-catch blocks or by propagating them to the caller using the `throws` declaration in function signatures.

When using coroutines, you can handle exceptions within the coroutine itself or handle them in the calling code using a `try-catch` block. If an exception is not caught within the coroutine, it will be propagated to the caller.

```
suspend fun performTask() {
    try {
        // Perform task that may throw an exception
    } catch (e: Exception) {
        // Handle the exception
    }
}

fun main() = runBlocking {
    try {
        performTask()
    } catch (e: Exception) {
        // Handle the exception from the coroutine
    }
}
```

In the **example**, the `performTask` function is a suspending function that may throw an exception. Inside the function, we use a `try-catch` block to handle any exceptions that occur. In the `main` function, we invoke the `performTask` function within a `try-catch` block to handle any exceptions propagated from the coroutine.

Handling exceptions in coroutines follows the same principles as handling exceptions in regular code, using `try-catch` blocks to catch and handle specific exceptions.

49) What is a flow in Kotlin coroutines?

A flow in Kotlin coroutines is a cold asynchronous stream of data that can emit multiple values over time. It is designed to handle sequences of values that are computed asynchronously and lazily.

Flows are similar to sequences, but they are asynchronous and can handle potentially infinite sequences of data. They provide built-in operators to transform and combine data streams.

```
import kotlinx.coroutines.*
import kotlinx.coroutines.flow.*

fun fetchData(): Flow<Int> = flow {
    for (i in 1..5) {
        delay(1000L)
        emit(i)
    }
}

fun main() = runBlocking {
    fetchData()
        .map { it * 2 }
        .collect { value ->
            println(value)
        }
}
```

In the **example**, the `fetchData` function returns a flow that emits values from 1 to 5 with a delay of 1 second between each emission. We use the `map` operator to transform each emitted value by multiplying it by 2. Finally, we collect and print each transformed value using the `collect` terminal operator.

Flows provide a declarative and composable way to work with asynchronous data streams, allowing for efficient and flexible data processing in coroutines.

50) Explain the concept of functional programming in Kotlin?

Functional programming is a programming paradigm that emphasizes the use of pure functions, immutability, and functional composition. It treats computation as the evaluation of mathematical functions and avoids mutable state and side effects.

In Kotlin, **functional programming** is supported as a first-class citizen. It allows you to write code in a declarative and concise manner by leveraging features such as higher-order functions, lambda expressions, and immutability.

Functional programming in Kotlin encourages the following principles:

1. **Immutable Data:** Emphasizes the use of immutable data structures, where objects cannot be modified after creation. This helps in writing code that is more predictable and avoids issues related to mutable state.

2. **Pure Functions:** Functions that produce the same output for the same input, without modifying any external state or causing side effects. Pure functions are easier to reason about and test, as they only depend on their input parameters.

3. **Higher-Order Functions:** Functions that can accept other functions as parameters or return functions as results. Higher-order functions enable code reuse, abstraction, and the ability to express complex behavior in a more concise way.

```
val numbers = listOf(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
val evenNumbers = numbers.filter { it % 2 == 0 }
val doubledNumbers = evenNumbers.map { it * 2 }
val sum = doubledNumbers.reduce { acc, value -> acc + value }
println(sum) // Prints the sum of doubled even numbers: 12
```

In the example, functional programming principles are demonstrated. We use higher-order functions such as `filter`, `map`, and `reduce` to operate on the list of numbers. Each operation is performed on the immutable data and produces a new result without modifying the original list.

Functional programming in Kotlin provides a powerful and expressive way to write code that is easier to read, test, and reason about.

51) Explain the concept of delegates in Kotlin?

Delegates in Kotlin provide a way to delegate the implementation of properties or functions to another object. They allow you to reuse common behavior or add additional functionality to existing objects without the need for inheritance.

Kotlin provides **two types of delegates**: property delegates and function delegates.

Property delegates:

- Property delegates allow you to define the behavior of property access and modification. You can delegate the storage and retrieval of property values to another object.
- By using property delegates, you can implement features such as lazy initialization, observable properties, and delegated properties.
- Kotlin provides several built-in delegates like ``lazy``, ``observable``, and ``vetoable``. Additionally, you can create custom delegates to suit specific requirements.

Function delegates:

- Function delegates allow you to delegate the invocation of functions to another object.
- By using function delegates, you can modify or extend the behavior of a function without modifying its original implementation.
- Kotlin provides the ``invoke`` operator function to delegate function invocation.

Delegates provide a flexible way to add behavior or reuse functionality in Kotlin classes and functions, promoting code reusability and separation of concerns.

52) What is the purpose of the `by` keyword in Kotlin?

The `by` keyword in Kotlin is used for delegation. It allows one object to delegate a property or a function call to another object. The purpose is to simplify code by reusing existing implementations or adding extra behavior to the delegated object.

```

interface Printer {
    fun printMessage(message: String)
}
class ConsolePrinter : Printer {
    override fun printMessage(message: String) {
        println("Printing: $message")
    }
}
class Logger(private val printer: Printer) : Printer by printer {
    override fun printMessage(message: String) {
        println("Logging message: $message")
        printer.printMessage(message)
    }
}
fun main() {
    val consolePrinter = ConsolePrinter()
    val logger = Logger(consolePrinter)

    logger.printMessage("Hello, Kotlin!") // Output: Logging message: Hello, Kotlin! \n Printing: Hello, Kotlin!
}

```

53) What is the purpose of the when expression in Kotlin?

The **when** expression in Kotlin is a powerful replacement for the traditional *switch* statement in other languages. It allows you to match a value against multiple possible cases and execute different code blocks based on the matched case. It is often used for conditional branching. For example:

```

fun describe(number: Int) {
    when (number) {
        1 -> println("One")
        2 -> println("Two")
        in 3..10 -> println("Between 3 and 10")
        else -> println("Other number")
    }
}

fun main() {
    describe(2) // Output: Two
    describe(7) // Output: Between 3 and 10
    describe(15) // Output: Other number
}

```

54) Explain the sealed classes and when expression combination in Kotlin?

Sealed classes and **when** expression combination in Kotlin are often used together for exhaustive pattern matching. Sealed classes are used to define a restricted hierarchy of classes, and the **when** expression can check all possible subclasses of the sealed class. This combination ensures that all cases are covered and no other subclasses can be added. For **example**:

```

sealed class Shape

class Circle(val radius: Double) : Shape()
class Rectangle(val width: Double, val height: Double) : Shape()
class Triangle(val base: Double, val height: Double) : Shape()

fun getArea(shape: Shape): Double = when (shape) {
    is Circle -> Math.PI * shape.radius * shape.radius
    is Rectangle -> shape.width * shape.height
    is Triangle -> 0.5 * shape.base * shape.height
}

fun main() {
    val circle = Circle(5.0)
}

```

```

val rectangle = Rectangle(3.0, 4.0)
val triangle = Triangle(2.0, 5.0)

println(getArea(circle)) // Output: 78.53981633974483
println(getArea(rectangle)) // Output: 12.0
println(getArea(triangle)) // Output: 5.0
}

```

55) What is a primary constructor in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, a primary constructor is the main constructor of a class. It is declared as part of the class header and can have parameters. The primary constructor is responsible for initializing the properties of the class. Here's an **example**:

```

class Person(val name: String, val age: Int) {
    fun greet() {
        println("Hello, my name is $name and I'm $age years old.")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person = Person("John", 25)
    person.greet() // Output: Hello, my name is John and I'm 25 years old.
}

```

56) Explain the concept of secondary constructors in Kotlin?

Secondary constructors in Kotlin are additional constructors that you can define in a class. They allow you to provide alternative ways of constructing objects with different parameter sets. Secondary constructors are defined using the `constructor` keyword. Here's an **example**:

```

class Person {
    var name: String = ""
    var age: Int = 0

    constructor(name: String) {
        this.name = name
    }

    constructor(name: String, age: Int) {
        this.name = name
        this.age = age
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person1 = Person("John")
    val person2 = Person("Jane", 30)

    println(person1.name) // Output: John
    println(person1.age) // Output: 0

    println(person2.name) // Output: Jane
    println(person2.age) // Output: 30
}

```

57) What's a const? How does it differ from a val?

By **default val properties** are set at runtime. Adding a `const` modifier on a `val` would make a compile-time constant.

A **const** cannot be used with a var or on its own.

A **const** is not applicable on a local variable

```
const val str= "CONSTANT STRING"
fun main(args: Array<String>)
{
    const val x = 4
}
```

58) What is the difference between init and constructor in Kotlin?

init is an initialization block that is executed when an instance of a class is created. It is used to initialize properties or perform other setup operations. The primary constructor and any secondary constructors are responsible for creating the instance, while the **init** block handles the initialization logic. The main difference is that the **init** block is always executed regardless of which constructor is used. Here's an **example**:

```
class Person(name: String) {
    val greeting: String

    init {
        greeting = "Hello, $name!"
        println("Person initialized")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person = Person("John") // Output: Person initialized

    println(person.greeting) // Output: Hello, John!
}
```

59) Explain the concept of generics in Kotlin?

Generics in Kotlin allow you to define classes, interfaces, and functions that can work with different types. They provide type safety and code reuse by allowing you to write generic code that works with a variety of data types. You can declare generic types using angle brackets (< >) and specify the type parameter. Here's an **example**:

```
class Box<T>(val item: T)

fun main() {
    val box1 = Box(42) // Type parameter inferred as Int
    val box2 = Box("Hello") // Type parameter inferred as String

    val item1: Int = box1.item
    val item2: String = box2.item

    println(item1) // Output: 42
    println(item2) // Output: Hello
}
```

60) What is the difference between invariance, covariance, and contravariance in Kotlin generics?

In Kotlin generics, invariance, covariance, and contravariance define how subtyping works for generic types.

- **Invariance means** that there is no subtyping relationship between different generic instantiations. For example, a `Box<String>` is not considered a subtype of `Box<Any>`. Invariance ensures type safety but limits flexibility.
- **Covariance** allows a subtype relationship between generic instantiations that preserve the direction of subtyping. It allows more flexible use of generic types. In Kotlin, you can declare covariance using the `out` keyword.
- **Contravariance allows** a subtype relationship that reverses the direction of subtyping. It allows more flexible use of generic types in certain scenarios. In Kotlin, you can declare contravariance using the `in` keyword.

Here's an example to illustrate covariance and contravariance:

```
open class Animal
class Dog : Animal()
interface Container<out T> {
    fun getItem(): T
}
interface Processor<in T> {
    fun process(item: T)
}
fun main() {
    val dogContainer: Container<Dog> = object : Container<Dog> {
        override fun getItem(): Dog {
            return Dog()
        }
    }

    val animalContainer: Container<Animal> = dogContainer // Covariance

    val animalProcessor: Processor<Animal> = object : Processor<Animal> {
        override fun process(item: Animal) {
            println("Processing animal: $item")
        }
    }

    val dogProcessor: Processor<Dog> = animalProcessor // Contravariance
}
```

61) Explain the concept of typealias in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, *typealias* is used to create an alternative name or alias for an existing type. It allows you to define your own custom type names that can make your code more readable and expressive. The typealias does not create a new type; it simply provides a new name for an existing type.

Here's an **example**:

```
typealias Name = String
typealias Age = Int

fun printPersonDetails(name: Name, age: Age) {
    println("Name: $name, Age: $age")
}

fun main() {
    val personName: Name = "John"
    val personAge: Age = 25
}
```

```
    printPersonDetails(personName, personAge) // Output: Name: John, Age: 25
}
```

62) Explain the concept of tail recursion in Kotlin?

Tail recursion in Kotlin is a technique where a recursive function calls itself as its last operation. It allows the compiler to optimize the recursion into an efficient loop, preventing stack overflow errors. To enable tail recursion optimization, the recursive function must be declared with the `tailrec` modifier. Here's an example:

```
tailrec fun factorial(n: Int, acc: Int = 1): Int {
    return if (n == 0) {
        acc
    } else {
        factorial(n - 1, acc * n)
    }
}

fun main() {
    val result = factorial(5)
    println(result) // Output: 120
}
```

63) Explain the concept of inline classes in Kotlin?

Inline classes in Kotlin are a lightweight way to create new types by wrapping existing types. They provide type safety and performance benefits by avoiding the overhead of creating new objects. Inline classes are declared using the `inline` modifier and have a single property. They are optimized at compile time, and the wrapped value is eliminated from the runtime representation. Here's an **example**:

```
inline class UserId(val value: Int)

fun getUserId(userId: UserId): Int {
    return userId.value
}

fun main() {
    val userId = UserId(123)
    val id: Int = getUserId(userId)
    println(id) // Output: 123
}
```

64) Explain the concept of property delegation in Kotlin?

Property delegation in Kotlin allows you to delegate the implementation of property accessors to another object called the delegate. It helps reduce boilerplate code and provides a way to customize the behavior of property access. To use property delegation, you need to define a property with the `by` keyword, followed by the delegate object. Here's an **example**:

```
class Example {
    var value: String by Delegate()
}

class Delegate {
    operator fun getValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>): String {
        return "Delegated value"
    }
}
```



```

        operator fun setValue(thisRef: Any?, property: KProperty<*>, value: String) {
            println("Assigned value: $value")
        }
    }
}

fun main() {
    val example = Example()
    println(example.value) // Output: Delegated value
    example.value = "New value" // Output: Assigned value: New value
}

```

65) What is the purpose of the operator modifier in Kotlin?

The *operator* modifier in Kotlin is used to overload or define custom behavior for operators. It allows you to provide custom implementations for built-in operators such as `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `==`, `!=`, etc. By using the `operator` modifier, you can define how your objects should behave when operated upon with specific operators. Here's an **example**:

```

data class Point(val x: Int, val y: Int) {
    operator fun plus(other: Point): Point {
        return Point(x + other.x, y + other.y)
    }
}

fun main() {
    val p1 = Point(1, 2)
    val p2 = Point(3, 4)
    val sum = p1 + p2
    println(sum) // Output: Point(x=4, y=6)
}

```

66) Explain the concept of destructuring declarations in Kotlin?

Destructuring declarations in Kotlin allow you to extract multiple values from an object or a data structure and assign them to individual variables. It simplifies the process of extracting and using specific elements from complex objects. Destructuring declarations are typically used with data classes, arrays, and other structures that provide component functions. Here's an **example**:

```

data class Point(val x: Int, val y: Int)

fun main() {
    val point = Point(3, 4)
    val (x, y) = point
    println("x: $x, y: $y") // Output: x: 3, y: 4
}

```

67) What is the purpose of the const modifier in Kotlin?

The *const* modifier in Kotlin is used to declare compile-time constants. It allows you to define values that are known at compile time and cannot be changed during runtime. *const* properties must be of primitive type or have a `String` type. They are resolved at compile time and can be used in annotations and other compile-time constructs.

```

const val MAX_VALUE = 100
fun main() {

```

```
println(MAX_VALUE) // Output: 100
}
```

68) Explain the concept of function types in Kotlin?

Function types in Kotlin allow you to define types for functions. They specify the signature of a function, including the parameter types and return type. Function types can be used as parameter types, return types, or variable types. You can define function types using the syntax `(parameters) -> returnType`.

```
fun add(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a + b
}

fun subtract(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a - b
}

fun performOperation(operation: (Int, Int) -> Int) {
    val result = operation(10, 5)
    println(result)
}

fun main() {
    performOperation(::add) // Output: 15
    performOperation(::subtract) // Output: 5
}
```

69) What is the difference between extension functions and member functions in Kotlin?

Extension functions in Kotlin allow you to add new functions to existing classes without modifying their source code. They provide a way to extend the functionality of classes from external libraries or even built-in classes. Extension functions are defined outside the class they extend, and they can be called as if they were regular member functions of the class.

Member functions, on the other hand, are defined inside the class and can access its properties and functions directly. They are part of the class's interface and can be called on instances of the class using the dot notation.

```
// Extension function
fun String.isPalindrome(): Boolean {
    val reversed = this.reversed()
    return this == reversed
}

// Member function
class Person(val name: String) {
    fun introduce() {
        println("Hello, my name is $name")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val text = "radar"
    println(text.isPalindrome()) // Output: true

    val person = Person("John")
    person.introduce() // Output: Hello, my name is John
}
```

70) Explain the concept of property access syntax in Kotlin?

Property access syntax in Kotlin allows you to define custom behavior for property access and assignment. It provides a way to customize the logic when getting or setting a property value. In Kotlin, property access and assignment are transformed into calls to special functions called accessors: `get()` for property access and `set()` for property assignment. By defining these accessors explicitly, you can add custom logic to property access and assignment.

```
class Person {
    var name: String = "John"
    get() {
        println("Getting name")
        return field
    }
    set(value) {
        println("Setting name to $value")
        field = value
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person = Person()
    println(person.name) // Output: Getting name, John
    person.name = "Jane" // Output: Setting name to Jane
}
```

71) Explain the concept of the “this” expression in Kotlin?

The *this* expression in Kotlin refers to the current instance of the class or the current receiver of an extension function or a higher-order function with receiver. It allows you to access the properties and functions of the current object within its own scope.

```
class Person {
    var name: String = "John"

    fun printName() {
        println("My name is ${this.name}")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val person = Person()
    person.printName() // Output: My name is John
}
```

72) Explain the concept of default arguments in Kotlin?

Default arguments in Kotlin allow you to define default values for function parameters. When calling a function, if an argument is not provided for a parameter with a default value, the default value will be used. Default arguments make it more convenient to call functions with a varying number of arguments, as you can omit the arguments with default values.

```
fun greet(name: String = "World") {
    println("Hello, $name!")
}

fun main() {
    greet() // Output: Hello, World!
}
```

```
    greet("John") // Output: Hello, John!
}
```

73) Explain the concept of function references in Kotlin?

Function references in Kotlin allow you to refer to a function by its name without invoking it. They provide a way to pass functions as arguments or store them in variables. Function references can be useful when you want to treat a function as a first-class citizen and pass it around as data.

```
fun greet() {
    println("Hello, World!")
}

val functionReference = ::greet

fun main() {
    functionReference() // Output: Hello, World!
}
```

74) What is the purpose of the `downTo` keyword in Kotlin?

The `downTo` keyword in Kotlin is used in conjunction with the `..` range operator to create a range of values in descending order. It is commonly used in for loops to iterate over a range of values from a higher value down to a lower value.

```
for (i in 10 downTo 1) {
    println(i)
}

// Output:
// 10
// 9
// 8
// ...
// 1
```

75) Explain the concept of lazy evaluation in Kotlin?

Lazy evaluation in Kotlin refers to the evaluation of an expression or computation only when it is needed or accessed for the first time. It delays the evaluation until the value is actually required. Lazy evaluation is often used to optimize performance by avoiding unnecessary computations.

```
val lazyValue: Int by lazy {
    println("Computing lazyValue")
    5
}

fun main() {
    println("Before accessing lazyValue")
    println(lazyValue) // Output: Computing lazyValue, 5
}
```

76) What is a closure in Kotlin?

a **closure** refers to a function that can access variables and parameters from its surrounding scope, even after the scope has finished execution. It captures the variables it needs, stores them, and can access them later when the function is invoked. The captured variables maintain their state, and any modifications made to them within the closure will be preserved.

```
fun createIncrementFunction(incrementBy: Int): () -> Int {
    var count = 0

    return {
        count += incrementBy
        count
    }
}

fun main() {
    val incrementByTwo = createIncrementFunction(2)
    println(incrementByTwo()) // Output: 2
    println(incrementByTwo()) // Output: 4
}
```

77) Explain the concept of the until keyword in Kotlin?

The *until* keyword in Kotlin is used in conjunction with the `..` range operator to create a range of values excluding the end value. It defines a range from the starting value up to, but not including, the end value. The `until` range is often used in loop statements to iterate over a range of values.

```
for (i in 1 until 5) {
    println(i)
}

// Output:
// 1
// 2
// 3
// 4
```

78) Explain the concept of extension properties in Kotlin?

Extension properties in Kotlin allow you to add new properties to existing classes without modifying their source code. They provide a way to extend the functionality of a class by defining properties that can be accessed and used as if they were defined in the class itself. Extension properties are defined outside the class they extend and can be accessed using the dot notation.

```
class Person(val name: String)

val Person.greeting: String
    get() = "Hello, $name!"

fun main() {
    val person = Person("John")
    println(person.greeting) // Output: Hello, John!
}
```

79) Explain the concept of sealed interfaces in Kotlin?

Sealed interfaces in Kotlin are interfaces that restrict their implementation to a specific set of classes or objects within a defined scope. They are used to create a closed hierarchy of implementing classes, where the allowed implementations are known in advance and limited to a specific set. Sealed interfaces are commonly used in combination with sealed classes to define a controlled set of implementation options.

```
sealed interface Shape

class Circle : Shape()
class Rectangle : Shape()

fun draw(shape: Shape) {
    when (shape) {
        is Circle -> println("Drawing a circle")
        is Rectangle -> println("Drawing a rectangle")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val circle: Shape = Circle()
    val rectangle: Shape = Rectangle()

    draw(circle) // Output: Drawing a circle
    draw(rectangle) // Output: Drawing a rectangle
}
```

80) Explain the concept of function composition in Kotlin?

Function composition in Kotlin refers to combining multiple functions to create a new function that performs a series of transformations or computations. It allows you to chain functions together, where the output of one function becomes the input of the next function. Function composition promotes modularity, reusability, and readability of code by breaking down complex operations into smaller, reusable functions.

```
fun addOne(value: Int): Int {
    return value + 1
}

fun doubleValue(value: Int): Int {
    return value * 2
}

val composedFunction: (Int) -> Int = ::addOne andThen ::doubleValue

fun main() {
    val result = composedFunction(5)
    println(result) // Output: 12 (5 + 1 = 6, 6 * 2 = 12)
}
```

81) Explain the concept of the internal visibility modifier in Kotlin?

The *internal* visibility modifier in Kotlin is used to restrict the visibility of a declaration to the same module. It allows the declaration to be accessed from any code within the same module but not from outside the module. A module is defined as a set of Kotlin files compiled together.

Example:

ModuleA.kt:

```
internal class InternalClass {
    fun doSomething() {
        println("Doing something internally")
    }
}
```

ModuleB.kt:

```
fun main() {
    val internalClass = InternalClass() // Error: InternalClass is not accessible
}
```

In the **example** above, the `InternalClass` is marked as `internal`, and it is only accessible within the same module (e.g., a group of Kotlin files compiled together). In this case, the `main` function in `ModuleB.kt` cannot access the `InternalClass` because it is in a different module.

82) What is the difference between `first()` and `firstOrNull()` functions in Kotlin?

the `first()` and `firstOrNull()` functions are used to retrieve the first element of a collection or a sequence. The difference between them lies in how they handle empty collections or sequences.

- **`first()`:** This function returns the first element of a collection or sequence and throws a `NoSuchElementException` if the collection or sequence is empty.

Example:

```
val numbers = listOf(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

val firstNumber = numbers.first()
println(firstNumber) // Output: 1
```

- **`firstOrNull()`:** This function returns the first element of a collection or sequence, or `null` if the collection or sequence is empty.

Example:

```
val numbers = emptyList<Int>()

val firstNumber = numbers.firstOrNull()
println(firstNumber) // Output: null
```

In the second example, the `numbers` list is empty, so calling `firstOrNull()` returns `null` instead of throwing an exception.

83) Explain the concept of `crossinline` in Kotlin?

The `crossinline` modifier in Kotlin is used in the context of a higher-order function to indicate that the passed lambda expression cannot contain non-local returns. It is used to enforce that the lambda expression is executed in the calling context and cannot terminate the enclosing function or return from it.

```
inline fun higherOrderFunction(crossinline lambda: () -> Unit) {
    val runnable = Runnable {
        lambda()
    }
    runnable.run()
}

fun main() {
    higherOrderFunction {
        // Non-local return is not allowed here
        return@higherOrderFunction
    }
}
```

In the **example** above, the `higherOrderFunction` is marked as `inline` and takes a lambda parameter. The lambda is executed inside a `Runnable`. By using the `crossinline` modifier, the lambda expression cannot contain a non-local return. If a return statement is used within the lambda, it must be labeled to indicate the intended return target.

84) What is the use of the `requireNotNull` function in Kotlin?

The `requireNotNull` function in Kotlin is used to check whether a given value is not null. It throws an `IllegalArgumentException` if the value is null and returns the non-null value otherwise. It is often used to ensure that a required value is not null and to provide meaningful error messages in case of null values.

```
fun printName(name: String?) {
    val nonNullName = requireNotNull(name) { "Name must not be null" }
    println("Name: $nonNullName")
}

fun main() {
    printName("John") // Output: Name: John
    printName(null) // Throws IllegalArgumentException with the specified error message
}
```

In the **example** above, the `printName` function checks whether the `name` parameter is not null using `requireNotNull`. If the `name` is null, an `IllegalArgumentException` is thrown with the specified error message. Otherwise, the non-null `name` is printed.

85) Explain the concept of top-level functions in Kotlin?

Top-level functions in Kotlin are functions that are declared outside of any class or interface. They are defined at the top level of a file, making them accessible from any part of that file and any other files in the same module. Top-level functions provide a way to organize and encapsulate related logic that doesn't belong to a specific class.

Example:

File: MathUtils.kt

```
package com.example.utils

fun addNumbers(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a + b
}
fun multiplyNumbers(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a * b
}
```

File: Main.kt

```
import com.example.utils.addNumbers
import com.example.utils.multiplyNumbers

fun main() {
    val sum = addNumbers(2, 3)
    val product = multiplyNumbers(4, 5)

    println("Sum: $sum") // Output: Sum: 5
    println("Product: $product") // Output: Product: 20
}
```

In the **example** above, the `addNumbers` and `multiplyNumbers` functions are top-level functions defined in the `MathUtils.kt` file. They can be accessed and used in the `Main.kt` file by importing them using their fully qualified names.

86) What is the purpose of the `@JvmName` annotation in Kotlin?

The `@JvmName` annotation in Kotlin is used to specify the name of a generated Java method or class when the Kotlin code is compiled into Java bytecode. It allows you to control the naming of the generated Java artifacts to ensure compatibility with existing Java code or frameworks that rely on specific naming conventions.

Example:

```
@file:JvmName("StringUtils")

package com.example.utils

fun capitalize(text: String): String {
    return text.capitalize()
}
```

87) What is the difference between infix and regular functions in Kotlin?

Infix functions and **regular functions** are both ways to define and call functions in Kotlin, but they have a syntactic difference.

- **Infix functions:** An infix function is a function that is marked with the `infix` keyword and is called using infix notation, without the dot and parentheses. Infix functions must have only one parameter, and they provide a way to express certain operations in a more readable, natural language style.

```
infix fun Int.add(other: Int): Int {
    return this + other
}

fun main() {
    val result = 5 add 3 // Equivalent to 5.add(3)
    println(result) // Output: 8
}
```

Regular functions: Regular functions are defined and called using the traditional function notation with the dot and parentheses.

```
fun multiply(a: Int, b: Int): Int {
    return a * b
}

fun main() {
    val result = multiply(4, 5)
    println(result) // Output: 20
}
```

The **choice between infix** and **regular functions** depends on the desired readability and natural language expression of the operation being performed. Infix functions are typically used for operations that have a clear semantic meaning when expressed in a more readable form, such as mathematical operations or DSL-like constructs. Regular functions, on the other hand, are suitable for general-purpose functions and operations that don't naturally fit the infix notation.

88) Explain the concept of inlining in Kotlin?

Inlining is a mechanism in Kotlin that optimizes the execution of higher-order functions by eliminating the runtime overhead of function calls. When a higher-order function is marked with the `inline` keyword, the Kotlin compiler replaces the function call with the actual code of the function at the call site. This reduces the function call overhead and can result in performance improvements.

```
inline fun calculateResult(a: Int, b: Int, operation: (Int, Int) -> Int): Int {
    return operation(a, b)
}

fun main() {
    val result = calculateResult(5, 3) { x, y -> x + y }
}
```

```
println(result) // Output: 8
}
```

89) Explain the concept of the when statement in Kotlin?

The **when** statement in Kotlin is a powerful control flow construct used to perform conditional branching based on the value of an expression. It allows you to check multiple conditions and execute different blocks of code based on those conditions, providing a concise and readable alternative to lengthy **if-else** or **switch** statements.

```
fun evaluateGrade(score: Int): String {
    return when (score) {
        in 90..100 -> "A"
        in 80..89 -> "B"
        in 70..79 -> "C"
        in 60..69 -> "D"
        else -> "F"
    }
}

fun main() {
    val score = 85
    val grade = evaluateGrade(score)
    println("Grade: $grade") // Output: Grade: B
}
```

90) What is the difference between sealed classes and abstract classes in Kotlin?

Sealed classes and **abstract classes** are both used for defining hierarchies of related classes, but they have different characteristics and purposes in Kotlin.

- **Sealed classes:** A sealed class is used to represent restricted class hierarchies, where all possible subclasses are known and defined within the sealed class itself. Sealed classes are commonly used to represent restricted sets of data or states.

Example:

```
sealed class Result

data class Success(val message: String) : Result()
data class Error(val error: String) : Result()

fun processResult(result: Result) {
    when (result) {
        is Success -> println("Success: ${result.message}")
        is Error -> println("Error: ${result.error}")
    }
}

fun main() {
    val success = Success("Operation succeeded")
    val error = Error("Operation failed")

    processResult(success) // Output: Success: Operation succeeded
    processResult(error) // Output: Error: Operation failed
}
```

- **Abstract classes:** An abstract class is a class that cannot be instantiated and is intended to be subclassed. It can define both abstract and non-abstract methods, providing a common interface and behavior that its subclasses must implement.

Example:

```
abstract class Shape {
    abstract fun calculateArea(): Double
}

class Rectangle(val width: Double, val height: Double) : Shape() {
    override fun calculateArea(): Double {
        return width * height
    }
}

class Circle(val radius: Double) : Shape() {
    override fun calculateArea(): Double {
        return Math.PI * radius * radius
    }
}

fun main() {
    val rectangle = Rectangle(5.0, 3.0)
    val circle = Circle(2.0)

    println("Rectangle area: ${rectangle.calculateArea()}") // Output: Rectangle area: 15.0
    println("Circle area: ${circle.calculateArea()}") // Output: Circle area: 12.566370614359172
}
```

91) How do you handle concurrency in Kotlin using synchronized blocks?

Concurrency in Kotlin can be handled using synchronized blocks. The `synchronized` keyword in Kotlin ensures that only one thread can access a synchronized block of code at a time, preventing concurrent modification or access to shared resources.

```
class Counter {
    private var count = 0

    fun increment() {
        synchronized(this) {
            count++
        }
    }

    fun getCount(): Int {
        synchronized(this) {
            return count
        }
    }
}

fun main() {
    val counter = Counter()

    // Thread 1
    Thread {
        for (i in 1..1000) {
            counter.increment()
        }
    }.start()

    // Thread 2
    Thread {
        for (i in 1..1000) {
            counter.increment()
        }
    }.start()
}
```

```
Thread.sleep(1000) // Wait for threads to complete

println("Final count: ${counter.getCount()}") // Output: Final count: 2000
}
```

92) What are pair and triple in Kotlin?

Pair and **Triple**s are used to return two and three values respectively from a function and the returned values can be of the same data type or different.

```
val pair = Pair("My Age: ", 25)
print(pair.first + pair.second)
```

93) What are labels in Kotlin?

Any expression written in Kotlin is called a label. For **example**, if we are having a *for-loop* in our Kotlin code then we can name that *for-loop* expression as a label and will use the label name for the *for-loop*.

We can create a label by using an identifier followed by the @ sign. For example, **name@**, **loop@**, **xyz@**, etc. The following is an example of a label:

```
loop@ for (i in 1..10) {
    //some code goes here
}
```

The name of the above for-loop is a loop.

94) What are the benefits of using a Sealed Class over Enum?

Sealed classes give us the flexibility of having **different types of subclasses and also containing the state**. The important point to be noted here is the subclasses that are extending the Sealed classes should be either nested classes of the Sealed class or should be declared in the same file as that of the Sealed class.

95) What is the operator overloading in Kotlin?

In Kotlin, we can use the same operator to perform various tasks and this is known as **operator overloading**. To do so, we need to provide a member function or an extension function with a fixed name and operator keyword before the function name because normally also when we are using some operator then under the hood some function gets called. For example, if you are writing num1+num2, then it gets converted to num1.plus(num2).

For example:

```
fun main() {
    val bluePen = Pen(inkColor = "Blue")
    bluePen.showInkColor()

    val blackPen = Pen(inkColor = "Black")
    blackPen.showInkColor()

    val blueBlackPen = bluePen + blackPen
    blueBlackPen.showInkColor()
}

operator fun Pen.plus(otherPen: Pen): Pen
{
    val ink = "$inkColor, ${otherPen.inkColor}"
    return Pen(inkColor = ink)
}

data class Pen(val inkColor: String)
{
    fun showInkColor() { println(inkColor)
}
```

96) What is Coroutines?

A **coroutine** can be thought of as a worker that performs some long-running/memory-intensive operations asynchronously. The asynchronous nature of a coroutine ensures that any long-running/memory-intensive operations do not block the main thread of execution. In essence, it takes a block of code and runs it on a particular thread.

Importance of a coroutine scope:

A coroutine scope manages the lifecycle of coroutines that are launched inside the scope. It determines when the coroutines inside the scope get started, stopped, and restarted. Coroutine scopes are especially helpful for the following reasons.

1. Allows the grouping of coroutines. If the scope gets canceled, then all coroutines that were started within that scope get canceled. This helps to prevent unnecessary use of resources when the coroutines are no longer needed.
2. Coroutine scope helps to define the context in which the coroutines are executed.

What problems do coroutines solve?

Kotlin coroutines are based on established concepts that have been used to build large applications.

On Android, coroutines are a great solution to two problems:

1. **Long running tasks** are tasks that take too long to block the main thread.

2. **Main-safety** allows you to ensure that any suspend function can be called from the main thread.

97) How are Coroutines different from Threads?

Coroutines may be thought of as lightweight threads. They are called so because multiple coroutines can be scheduled to be executed on the same thread. So, the creation of 100,000 threads results in the creation of 100,000 threads. Whereas, **the creation of 100,000 coroutines doesn't necessarily mean that 100,000 threads get created**. Since the resources of a single thread are shared by multiple coroutines, they are much *lighter* when compared to creating raw threads.

98) What are dispatchers? Explain their types.

A **dispatcher** allows us to specify which pool of threads the coroutines are executed. The dispatcher can be specified as a part of the coroutine context. There are 5 types of dispatchers that are available for use:

- **Default** — The default dispatcher is used to schedule coroutines that perform CPU-intensive operations such as filtering a large list.
- **IO** — This is the most common dispatcher. It is used to run coroutines that perform I/O operations such as making network requests and fetching data from the local database.
- **Main** — The main dispatcher is used to execute coroutines on the main thread. It generally doesn't block the main thread, but, if several coroutines containing long-running operations get executed in the context of this dispatcher, then the main thread has a possibility of getting blocked. This is mainly used in conjunction with the `withContext() {}` method to switch the context of execution to the main thread. This comes in handy if it is required to perform some operation on a background thread and switching the context of execution to the main thread to update the UI. Since touching the UI from a background thread is not permitted in Android, this allows us to switch the context of execution to the main thread before updating the UI.
- **Unconfined** — This dispatcher is very rarely used. Coroutines scheduled to run on this dispatcher run on the thread that they are started/resumed. When they are first called, they get executed in the thread that they are called in. When they resume, they get resumed in the thread that they are resumed in. In summary, they are not confined to any thread pool.
- **Immediate** — The immediate dispatcher is a recently introduced dispatcher. It is used to reduce the cost of re-dispatching the coroutine to the main thread. There is a slight cost associated when switching the dispatcher using the `withContext{}` block. Using the Immediate dispatcher ensures the following.
 1. If a coroutine is already executing in the main dispatcher, then the coroutine wouldn't be re-dispatched, therefore removing the cost associated with switching dispatchers.

2. If there is a queue of coroutines waiting to get executed in the main dispatcher, the immediate dispatcher ensures that the coroutine will be executed as immediately as possible.

99) What is Singleton Class in Kotlin?

A **singleton class** is a class that is defined in such a way that only one instance of the class can be created and used everywhere. Many times we create two different objects of the same class, but we have to remember that creating two different objects also requires the allocation of two different memories for the objects. So it is better to make a single object and use it again and again.

```
fun main(args: Array<String>)
{
    println(GFG.name)
    println("The answer of addition is ${GFG.add(3,2)}")
    println("The answer of addition is ${GFG.add(10,15)}")
}

object GFG
{
    init
    {
        println("Singleton class invoked.")
    }

    var name = "GFG Is Best"
    fun add(num1:Int,num2:Int):Int
    {
        return num1.plus(num2)
    }
}
```

Properties of Singleton Class

The following are the properties of a typical singleton class:

- **Only one instance:** The singleton class has only one instance and this is done by providing an instance of the class, within the class.
- **Globally accessible:** The instance of the singleton class should be globally accessible so that each class can use it.
- **Constructor not allowed:** We can use the init method to initialize our member variables.

Importance of Singleton Objects In Android

Below are some points which explain the importance of singleton objects in Android along with some examples, where it must be used, and reasons for why Android developers should learn about singleton objects.

- As we know that when we want a single instance of a particular object for the entire application, then we use Singleton. Common use-cases when you use the singleton is when you use Retrofit for every single request that you make throughout the app, in that case, you only need the single instance of the retrofit, as that

instance of the retrofit contains some properties attached to it, like Gson Converter(which is used for conversion of JSON response to Java Objects) and Moshy Converter, so you want to reuse that instance and creating a new instance, again and again, would be a waste of space and time, so in this case, we have to use singleton objects.

- Consider the case when you are working with the repository in MVVM architecture, so in that case, you should only create only 1 instance of the repository, as repositories are not going to change, and creating different instances would result in space increment and time wastage.
- Suppose you have an app, and users can Login to it after undergoing user authentication, so if at the same time two user with same name and password tries to Login to the account, the app should not permit as due to concern of security issues. So singleton objects help us here to create only one instance of the object, i.e. user here so that multiple logins can't be possible. Hope these examples are sufficient to satisfy the reader to explore more about singleton objects in Kotlin so that they can use singleton object in their Android projects.

100) What is the open keyword in Kotlin used for?

By default, the classes and functions are final in Kotlin. So, you can't inherit the class or override the functions. To do so, you need to use the open keyword before the class and function.