



# PEPCODING

PURSUIT OF EXCELLENCE AND PEACE

MODULE  
**OOPS**



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# OOPS

# Encapsulation: Wrapping of data under single unit.

↓  
classes objects  
(data, functions)

(Mechanism that binds  
together code and the  
data it manipulates)

⇒ JAVA

person p1 = new person();

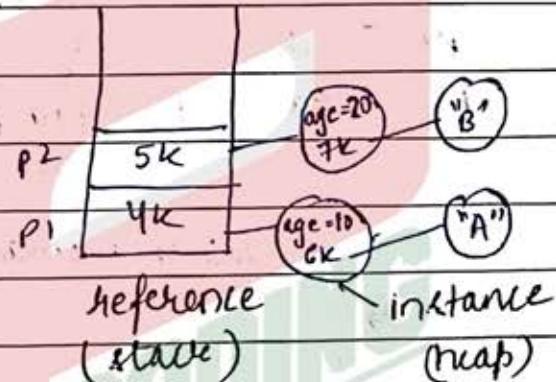
p1.age = 10

p1.name = "A"

person p2 = new person();

p2.age = 20

p2.name = "B"



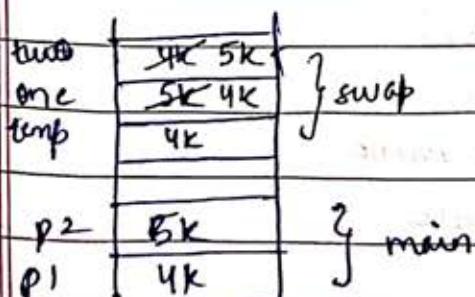
Ques: Predict the changes when swapped like -

a) swap ( person one, person two )

{ person temp = one

one = two

two = temp }



As per the stack diagram,  
all the changes are limited to  
stack only.  
Hence, no change ⇒ NOT SWAPPED!

b) swap ( person one, person two)

{ string tn = one.name

one.name = two.name

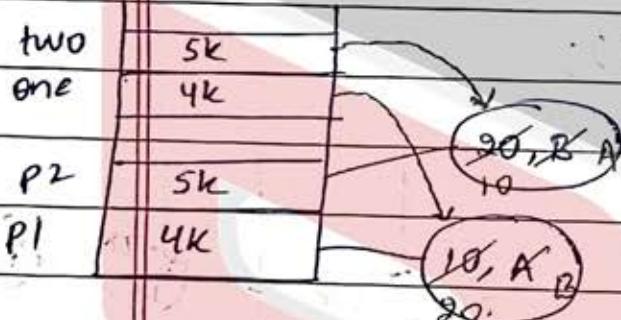
two.name = tn

int tage = one.age

one.age = two.age

two.age = tage

}



SWAPPED ! because changes  
are made directly on  
addresses of objects.

Since memory is accessed  $\rightarrow$  hence permanent  
changes.

c) swap ( person one, person two)

{ one = new person();

int tage = one.age

one.age = two.age

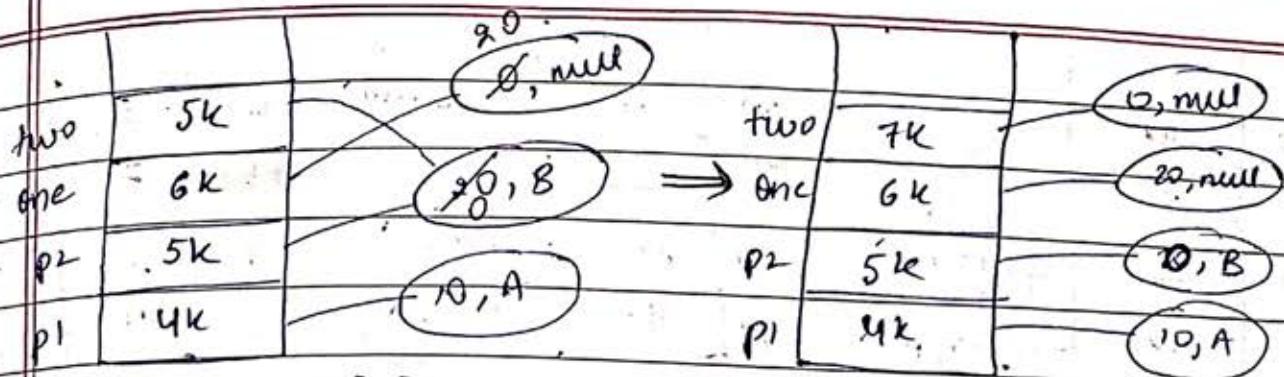
two.age = tage

two = new person();

string tnname = one.name

one.name = two.name

two.name = tnname



(age swapping)  $\rightarrow$  then  $\rightarrow$  (name swapping).

Output :  $p1 = 10, "A"$

$p2 = 0, "B."$

Only age of p2 changes to 0 as `ptr = new person()` made 'one' to point to some new address 6K, hence original P2's age is swapped with new 'one' object.

Hence, no visible changes after "two = new person();".

d) swap ( person one, person two)

```

{   int tage = one.age
    one.age = two.age
    two.age = tage
  }
```

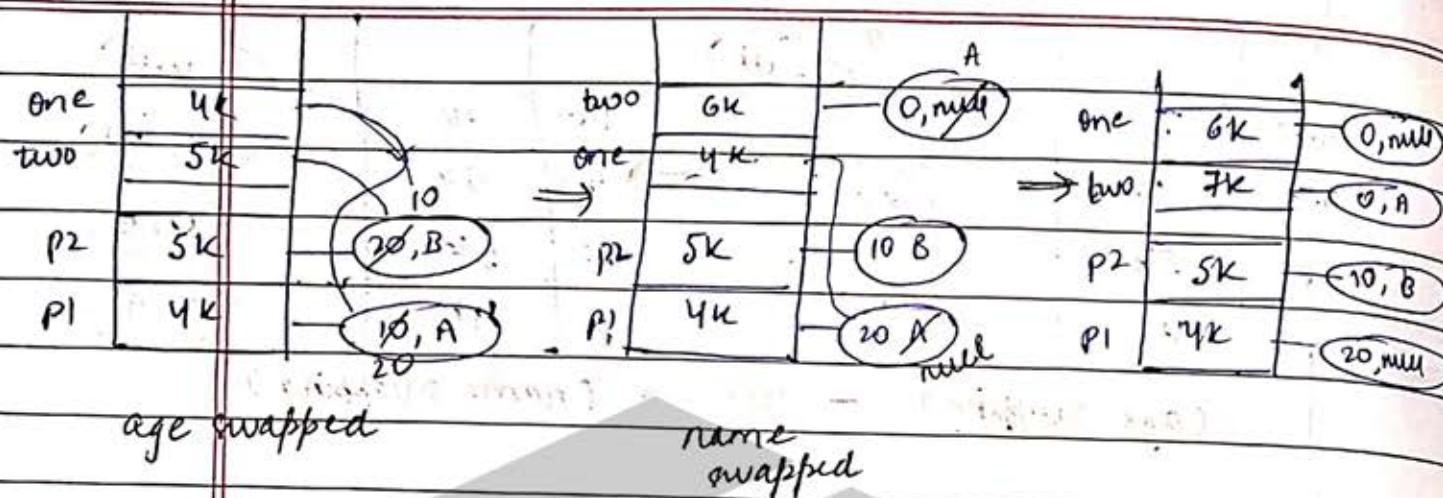
`two = new person()`

`tname = one.name`

`one.name = two.name`

`two.name = tname`

`one = new person()` }



After dropping down, the memory of one and two will release and GARBAGE COLLECTOR will swipe out heap storage of 'one' and 'two'.

At last we will be left with -

$$\begin{aligned} p1 &= 20. \text{null} && (\text{as per stack diagram}) \\ p2 &= 10. B \end{aligned}$$

e) swap ( person one, person two )

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \text{int} \text{ tag} &= \text{one}. \text{age} \\ \text{one}. \text{age} &= \text{two}. \text{age} \\ \text{two}. \text{age} &= \text{tag} \end{aligned} \right.$$

One = new person()

two = new person()

String tname = one.name

one.name = two.name

two.name = tname

3

Only age will get swayed

$$\text{L} \rightarrow p_1 = 20 \text{ A}$$

$$p_2 = 10 \text{ B}$$

## C++

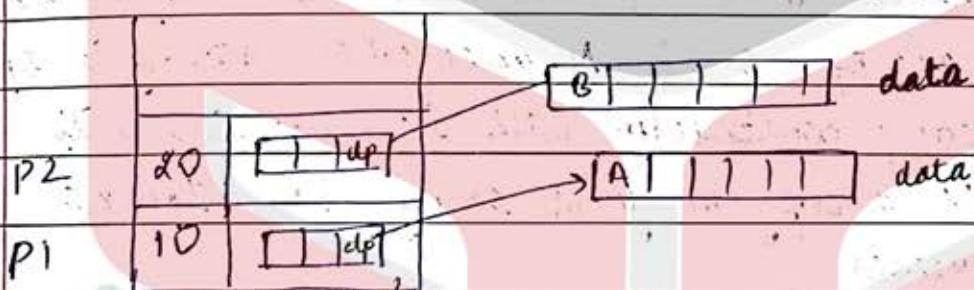
person p1; person p2;

pl. age = 10 ;

pl. name = "A";

p2. age = 20 ;

p2.name = "B";



String = size, capacity, data pointer

In C++, objects are made directly on stack.

(No concept of reference - metarule)

Ques: Predict the changes when swapped like! -

1. Swap (person one, person two)

{ person temp = one

$$\theta_{\text{ref}} = \theta_{\text{win}}$$

two = temp

- emp	10	A
tur	20	10 B A
one	10	A B
b2	20	"B"
p1	10	"A"

changes made on stack  
but are not permanent  
as when function is  
completed, its effect  
disappears.

Hence, NOT SWAPPED!

But this kind of swapping is dangerous. Why?

- (i) If a string / vector / object is passed without reference in C++, then it is  $O(n)$  operation in place of  $O(1)$  because when string is copied, its copy constructor will fire which will create a copy of your string at different addresses.

eg: person p1;

p2 = p1;

p2	10	5k	A
p1	10	4k	A

So, HEAVY STRINGS CAN MAKE THIS SLOW

- (ii) Consider the following case:-

person p1;

p1.age = 10

p1.name = "A"

if (true)

{ person p2 = p1;

create;

y

p2 10 4K

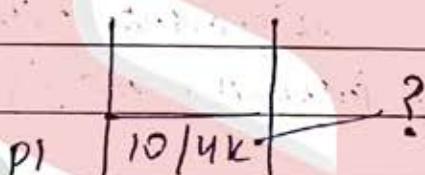
p1 10 4K

4K

A

If copy constructor wouldn't be working the way it works, i.e. 2 objects pointing to same address, then it could cause the problem of DANGLING POINTER.

which means when we drop down and scope of 'if' ends, destructor will be fired, deleting all introductions of 'if'  $\Rightarrow$  p2 will be deleted, leaving behind a dangling pointer for p1.



$\Rightarrow$  RULE OF 3  $\rightarrow$  constructor operator =

$\downarrow$   $\rightarrow$  copy  
destructor      constructor

while writing the destructor in C++, you must write copy constructor and operator =, otherwise it will cause above mentioned problem.

2. swap ( person & one, person & two)

{ //swap

y

( $\Rightarrow$  Hidden pointer)

temp	10	A
two	1004	
one	1000	
p2	20	B
p1	10	A

(Since, this time  
address.) reference  
was received,  
hence SWAPPED)

→ Difference b/w copy constructor and assignment operator?

Person p1;

Person p2;

Person p3 = p2; ↗ copy constructor

p3 = p1; ↗ assignment operator

- If already exists - assignment operator  
(after clearing previous memory)

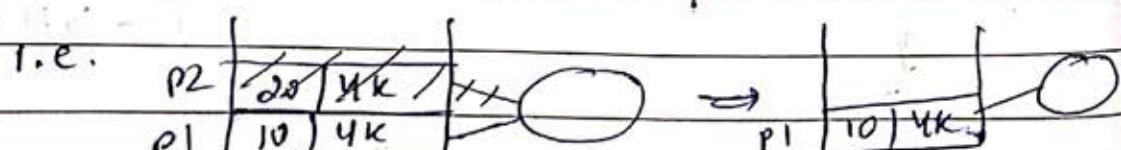
- If new allocation - simply copy - copy constructor

⇒ What if no copy constructor & destructor is written?

In this case, default copy constructor and default destructor will be used.

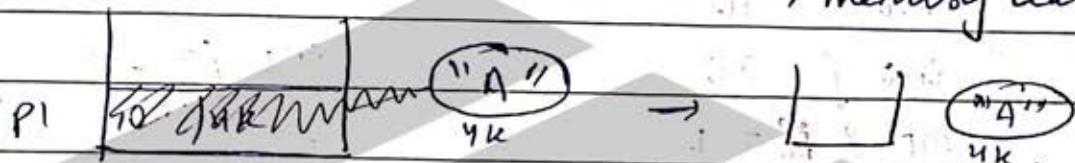
Person p1	p2	20	4K	↑
Person p2 = p1	p1	10	4K	↑

But nature of default destructor ⇒ it only unmoves pointer and itself but not material in heap.



But problem of MEMORY LEAK occurs when,  
 if there arises a case where p1 vanishes  
 (for example, its initialised is 'if', and scope  
 of 'if' ends) then, p1 too will disappear  
 leaving the material of heap intact

→ memory leak.



So we need to write our own destructor

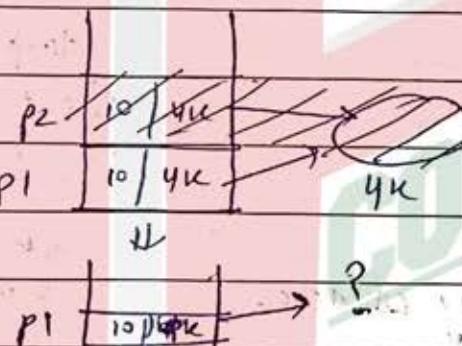
↳ but remember to write copy constructor and  
 assignment operator along with it otherwise  
 problem of DANGLING POINTER will arise.

person p1 ;

person

if(true)

{ person p2=p1;  
 } break;



Only destructor  
 will do this

\* SO WE NEED DESTRUCTOR and OTHER TWO WHEREVER  
 WE HAVE A POINTER TO HEAP OR ALLOCATION  
 OF MEMORY ON HEAP

eg: whenever 'new' is used...

but what if we use all the 3 properly?

then performance will be bad as all copy operations will  
 be of cost O(n) in place of O(1),

So, USE CALL BY REFERENCE in place of CALL BY VALUE for better performance.

## # Difference between "\*" and "&"

### REFERENCE

```
int i = 10
```

```
int j = 20
```

```
int & ii = i
```

```
int & jj = j
```

```
int temp = ii
```

```
ii = jj
```

```
jj = temp
```

### POINTERS

```
int i = 10
```

```
int j = 20
```

```
int * ii = & i
```

```
int * jj = & j
```

```
int temp = * ii
```

```
* ii = * jj
```

```
* jj = temp
```

temp	30
jj, j	10
ii, i	20
	10

temp	10
jj, j	20
ii, i	10

slightly cleaner

writes exactly  
the same

"DUMMIES"

"DUMMY POINTER"

example: fun ( int &ii, int &jj )  
(reference version)

```
int t = ii
```

```
ii = jj
```

```
jj = t
```

t	10	
jj	2000	It is actually * and jj
ii	1000	

```
main () {
```

```
int t = 10
```

```
int j = 20
```

```
fun ( i, j )
```

i	20	10
j	10	20

2000

1000

→ Pointer version

```
fun( int *a, int *b ) { }
```

```
int temp = *a;
```

```
*a = *b;
```

```
*b = temp;
```

```
y  
main( ) { }
```

```
i = 10
```

```
j = 20
```

```
fun( &i, &j );
```

{	temp	10.	}
	b*	2000	
	a*	1000	
{	j	20 10	}
	i	10 20.	

Both works exactly the same way, its just that ' &' version is slightly easy to understand.

$\&a \Rightarrow$  prints addresses of 'a'

### Constant Pointers

#### Reference

#### vs

#### Pointers

- 1) Cannot re-point them
- 2) Cannot be null
- 3) Needs to be initialized at declaration

- 4) Usage - convenient
  - { primitive → normal }
  - { other → → arrow }

- 1) Can re-point them
- 2) Can be null
- 3) These can be initialized later

- 4) Usage - tricky
  - { primitive → \*
  - { other → → arrow }

ex →      int  $j = 10;$   
               int  $k = 50;$   
               int &  $i = j;$   
                $i = k;$

	$k$	50
	$i, j$	10 50

Important: ~~now~~ 'i' just becomes another name for 'j'

NOTE :

$i = 10$	$*m$	3000	
$i = 20$	$*k$	1000	3000
int $*k = \&i$	$j$	20	2000
int & $i = i$	$i, j$	10	1000
int $*m = \&k$			

- 1)  $*k \rightarrow$  prints value at address of  $k = 10$
- 2)  $\&k \rightarrow$  prints address of  $k = 3000$
- 3)  $cout << *i \Rightarrow$  WRONG X
- 4)  $cout << \&i \Rightarrow 1000.$
- 5)  $cout << i++ \Rightarrow 11$
- 6)  $i = j \Rightarrow i$  become 20
- 7)  $cout << m \Rightarrow 10$

Segmentation fault → pointing to a memory which do not hold anything.

$\&k \Rightarrow$  address of  $k$   
 $*k \Rightarrow$  value at address of  $k$

NOTE:  $(\&i)++$  is not allowed because its equivalent to incrementing an address

of  $1000 \rightarrow 1001$

$$\& i = &i + 1$$

↳ error: expression must be a modifiable value.

→ Concept of repointing ?

### Reference:

A reference variable cannot be reassigned.

eg.  $\text{int } n = 5; \text{ int } y = 6;$   
 $\text{int } \&x = n;$

### Pointers:

This property comes in handy when a developer is implemented data structure like linked lists, trees etc.

eg.  $\text{int } n = 5; \text{ int } y = 6;$   
 $\text{int } *p; p = \&x; p = \&y;$

→ Swapping operation / ways Is Swap possible?

1) swap ( person\* one, person\* two )

{ person t = one \*  
 one \* = two \*  
 -two \* = t }

Swap possible; working → just like reference version

2) swap ( person one, person two )

{ // swapping age }

// swapping name separately

{ }

NO SWAPPING POSSIBLE,

since all changes only on stack

t	10	9
two	20, B	A
one	10	A
	2	
p2	20	B
p1	10	A

## # SUMMARY

Edition

⇒ / 1st

## # Java Programming

Topic

## # INHERITANCE

X →

JAVA

parent  
class

```
public class parent {
    int d1 = 10;
    int d2 = 100;
```

void fun1()

{ print ("parent fun1") }

void fun()

{ print ("parent fun") }

child  
class

public class child

{ int d2 = 20; }

int d = 200;

void fun2() { print ("child fun2") }

void fun() { print ("child fun") }

RULES ... (IMPORTANT)

1. Editing → compile time → Compiler → LHS or reference
2. Executing → Runtime → JVM → RHS or instance
3. Data members are always resolved on LHS

Parent  $\Rightarrow 20k$ 

$d1 = 10$

$d = 100$

$f1$

$f$

$d2 = 20$

$d = 200$

$f2$

$f$

child  $\Rightarrow 10k$  $\rightarrow$  public class parent {

child c = new child(); // 4k

print(c.d1)

parent c.fun();

} compile time  
error

y

 $\rightarrow$  Now applying inheritance,

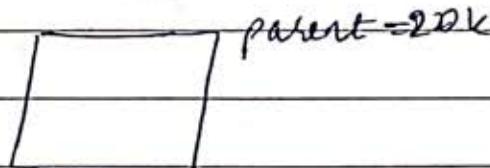
public class child extends parent {

int d2

int d

y

this makes,

parent  $\Rightarrow 20k$ child  $\Rightarrow 10k$ child believe that  
it is derived  
from 20k (parent)

After applying inheritance,  
public class client {  
 main() {

1) parent o1 = new parent();

o1.fun2(); } compile time  
point (o1.d2); error

2) parent o2 = new child();

o2.fun2(); } compile time  
point (o2.d2);

because  
parent  
do not  
have access  
to child's  
members

→ o2.fun() → child's fun()

(// runtime decision based on inheritance  
and existence → child)

or

(// fun() found at child, then why go up?)

→ o2.fun1() ... → parent's fun1()

→ point (o2.d) → parent's as data

point (o2.d1); members are

↓ always

parent's as d1 present only is

parent

**IMPORTANT NOTE :** "new child ()" is entirely different event  
which includes combining all functions and members and  
giving a feel of being derived from child BUT "parent" (reference)  
will decide which functions / members can the object use.

3) child 03 = new parent();

03.fun();

03.fun1();

03.fun2();

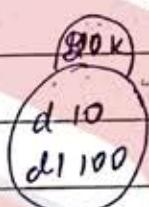
print(03.d)

print(03.d1)

print(03.d2)

compile  
time  
error

Because child can never be reference to its base.  
Had it been allowed,



not  
able to  
find d2, p2()

BASICALLY, Child class's reference can access more elements/members which are not present in parent/base class instance:

4) child 04 = new child();

04.fun() → child (// because rule says instance)

04.fun1() → parent (// obviously)

04.fun2() → child

print(04.d) → child (// rule says instance)

print(04.d1) → parent (// obviously)

print(04.d2) → child

Is there any way to access data members and functions of child in the combination  
 parent 02 = new child();

typecast 02 in child

↳ but this will alter the functionality/  
 rule slightly.

NOW 02. d will of child rather  
 than parent.

- \* There is no way to use values of common functions of parent while using combination -  
 child D = new parent();

## # RUNTIME POLYMORPHISM

If there are a number of instances available as option to a particular reference of an object, then runtime whichever instance is chosen, those functionalities can be used.

e.g.: drop down option application.

parent:	
---------	--

Parent p = null;  
 if n chosen  
 p = new parentX();  
 if y chosen  
 p = new parentY();  
 if z chosen  
 p = new parentZ();

Runtime Polymorphism

~~dynamic dispatch~~  
dynamic polymorphism

dynamic binding

late binding

method

overriding

or  
polymorphism

instance is  
not known before

and is known only  
at the runtime

based on the instance  
that has been chosen.

same name,

different functionality

## # COMPILE TIME POLYMORPHISM

which instance to be chosen - decided by COMPILER.

METHOD OVERLOADING - at the time of compiling

eg: fun (int a, int t)  
      returns a + t;

eg: fun (double o, double t)  
      returns o \* t;

why developers have provided this feature of  
keeping the name same for different input / data types?

- To keep the API's compact
- to provide ease of use and coding to users  
and club all sorts of "sort" together like  
instead of sortboolean, sortint etc.

NOTE: Method overloading not to be done just on the basis of Return type as its not mandatory to receive values at the time of calling.

Invalid method overloading -

int fun(int, int)

String fun(int, int) X

their argument type must be different

↓ ↓ → number  
order type

OPERATOR OVERLOADING: Same operator, different meanings

Not allowed in Java,  
but still,

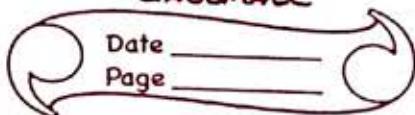
String s = "Hello"

s = s + "Hello";

'+' is used for concatenation. How?

Because java uses '.append' wherever '+' is used.

IMPORTANT : } non-virtual, data members - difference  
                  virtual - instance  
                  classmate



→ C++ :

Polymorphism works only when base functions are VIRTUAL. (By default Java - all are virtual)

If these functions are not marked virtual, then

EARLY BINDING will take place i.e.

reference will return / use reference's function and will not wait for run-time (instance).

1. Parent \* p1 = new Parent();

p1. d → parent

p1. d1 → parent

p1. d2 → X

p1. f1 → parent

p1. f2 → X

2. Parent \* p2 = new Child();

p2. d1 → parent

.. p2. d2 = X

if virtual → child

p2. f1 =

if non-virtual → parent

p2. f2 = X

p2. f1 = parent

p2. d = parent

3. Child \* p3 = new Child();

p3. d1 - parent

p3. d - child

p3. d2 - child

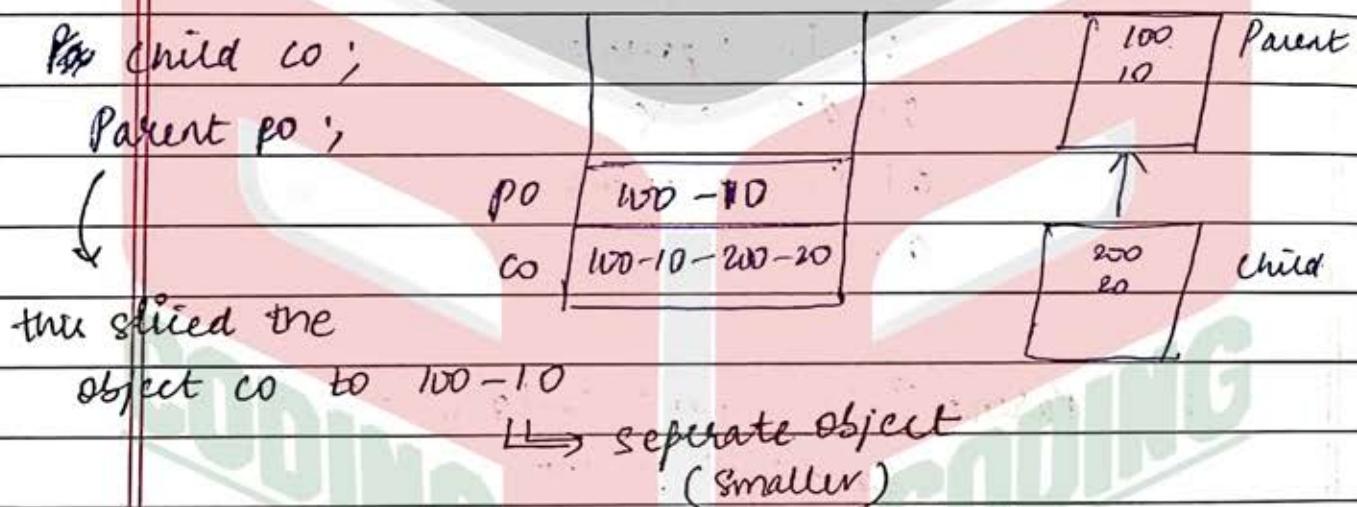
p3. f1 - child

p3. f2 - parent

p3. f3 - child

C++ rules summary

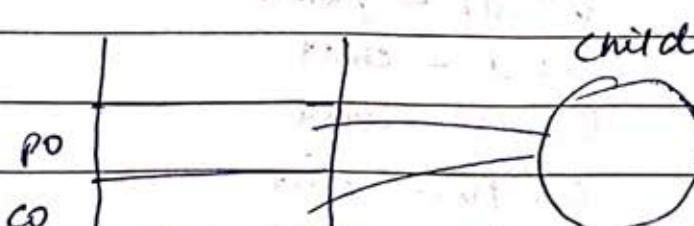
- 1) During editing  $\rightarrow$  reference
- 2) During executing
  - Non virtual ; data members  $\rightarrow$  reference
  - Virtual functions  $\rightarrow$  instance
- 3) Object slicing
  - $\hookrightarrow$  when pointers not used



Now when 'd' is printed or 'fun' is called,  
 parent's functions / members will be called.

WHEREAS

Earlier when handling through pointers both po and co pointed towards the same instance and no separate objects were created.



Here, `pd` cannot access `d2` and `f2` but would give use `f` of child.

## # Virtual Pointers and Virtual table:

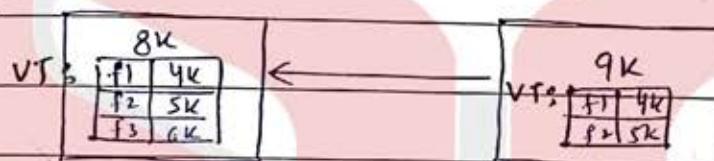
If  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$ ,  $f_3$  be virtual functions of class  
 (4K) (5K) (6K) parent and

$f_1$ ,  $f_2$  be virtual functions of class child  
 (4K) (5K) respective

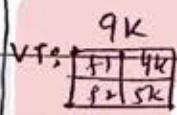
then these functions reside in VIRTUAL FUNCTION

TABLE of respective classes and pointer to this virtual table is known as VIRTUAL POINTER.

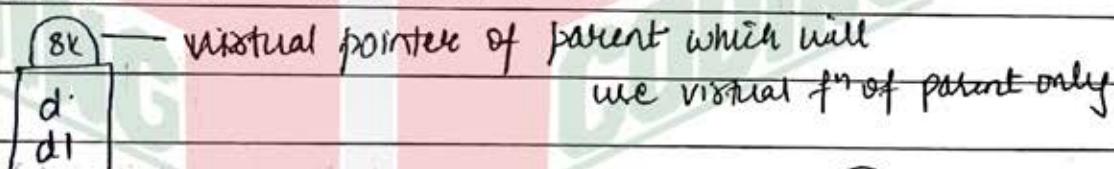
Parent



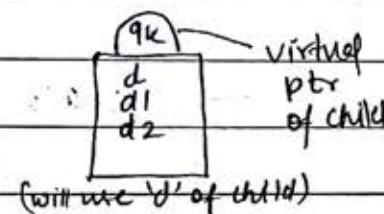
Child



When, `Parent p1 = new Parent()`



My. for `Parent p1 = new Child()`



en → class A {

(A)      int d1

func() {

    }

} class B {

int d2

virtual func() {

    }

Is `sizeOf(A) < sizeOf(B)` ?

(here sizeOf means size of an object of class A)

YES, because object of B has hidden virtual pointer and hence its size is greater.

**NOTE:** Virtual pointer is called with the CONSTRUCTOR i.e. reference to virtual table is made when constructor of virtual functions is constructed.

- \* Without pointers, run-time polymorphism is not possible.

eg: → class A {

    virtual fun() { }

}

sizeOf(A) = 8

→ class A

{ int a;

    virtual fun() { }

}

sizeOf(A) = 16

due to padding



4 used, 4 unused.

→ class A

{ int a;

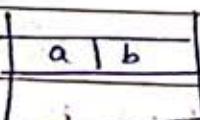
    int b;

    virtual fun() { }

}

sizeOf(A) = 16

4-4



used

1) by, if one more 'int' introduced / initialised  
 $\text{sizeOf}(A) = 84$

## # Static data members

number → variable  
 → data member

# STATIC keyword → function

1) STATIC VARIABLE : ( Only in C++)

↳ initialised and used within a function

eg: func()

```
{ int i= 10;
static int j= 20;
i++;
j++;
cout << i;
cout << j;
```

}

main()

```
{ func();
func();
func(); }
```

Output: 11 21

11 22

11 23.

Each time,  $i$  is initialised by 10. but  $j$  is only initialised once, and gets incremented in next calls

because static variables are stored in DATA SEGMENT - separate space in heap.

life scope of static variable = life of program  
scope of static variable = function

## GLOBAL VARIABLES

↳ scope = entire program

$\mapsto$  life = life of program

⇒ A static variable is used as an instance variable

2) STATIC DATA MEMBER :

Ex: class Bank {  
 int accountno;  
 int money;  
 static double roi; // static member  
};

```
Bank bank1 = new Bank() { int acc.no; int money };
```

bark2\* = new Bark( )

bank 3\* = new Bank ()

Each having its own set of value of amount no  
and money but rate of interest for all banks  
will remain same.

If ROI of a single bank change, ROI for all banks will automatically...

This is an example of **MEMORY SHARING**:

Basically, "This memory is stored in class and not in general memory space" - Static <sup>data member</sup> ~~variable~~ (only in C++).

- 3) STATIC FUNCTIONS: These functions can be called directly on class without creating objects.
- \* STATE OF AN OBJECT: Snapshot of data members inside it.
- \* STATELESS FUNCTIONS: Functions which are it can be used independently ~~from~~ and does not depend upon previous usage.  
Ex - Transaction on a shop etc, Math::pow()
- \* STATEFUL FUNCTIONS: Functions whose usage depends on previous usage / transaction.  
Ex - Bank Transactions  
↳ depends on previous balance and so on.
- Can static function use 'this' pointer inside it?  
No, because since no objects are created for the area of static functions, there is no concept of 'this' pointer here.
- Can static function use a non-static data member?  
No, because we need an object for calling and using non-static data members and no objects are needed for static functions.

- Can a non-static data function use a static function / data?

Yes, using non-static functions means object is created but for usage of static functions, no even this object is required; static functions can be used anyway.

4) STATIC CLASS: Just like static functions can only access static data members, static class can be accessed through static functions without creating object of outer class.

ex - linked list class

```
static class Node
{ int data; Node next }
```

```
static main()
```

```
{ }
```

```
y
```

'main' can only use 'Node' class only if it is marked static.

IMP: \* Objects of static class can be easily made  
`Node* node = new Node();`

Points Only point to be noted is -

class linkedlist

```
{ Node class {
    int data;
    Node next;
}
```

→ If Node class is static  
object of node can be made directly.

→ If Node class is non-static.  
To access Node, we need to first create object  
of linkedlist class and then access Node  
through that object.

(linkedlist object)      linkedlist ll = new linkedlist();

~~Access node from now to Node class;~~

(node object)      linkedlist.Node Node = ll.new ~~Object~~ Node();

~~Base class~~

## # FINAL keyword

⇒ JAVA

final → variable, ~~data~~

|    ↓    ↓  
data member

class function

1) VARIABLE: We cannot change value of these variables

2) DATA MEMBER: same as variable but have rules  
for initialisation.

class A {

    final int a;

    A()

    // needs to initialised  
    either at declaration  
    or in constructor  
    else ERROR!

3) FUNCTION: Final functions are opposite of virtual functions.

You cannot OVERRIDE final functions once written i.e. you cannot even write the body of a function which was FINAL again which was otherwise VIRTUAL by default in JAVA.

class Parent

```
{ int d;
final func() { } }
```

class child

```
{ int d,
```

// here func() cannot be written

```
}
```

4) CLASS : Final classes cannot be inherited

eg: ~~also~~ final class P

```
{ }
```

```
}
```

then, C extends P  $\Rightarrow$  not allowed

$\Rightarrow$  C++

CONST Keyword

variable (CONST)	data member (CONST)	function  (By default all C++ functions are like const functions)
---------------------	---------------------------	---

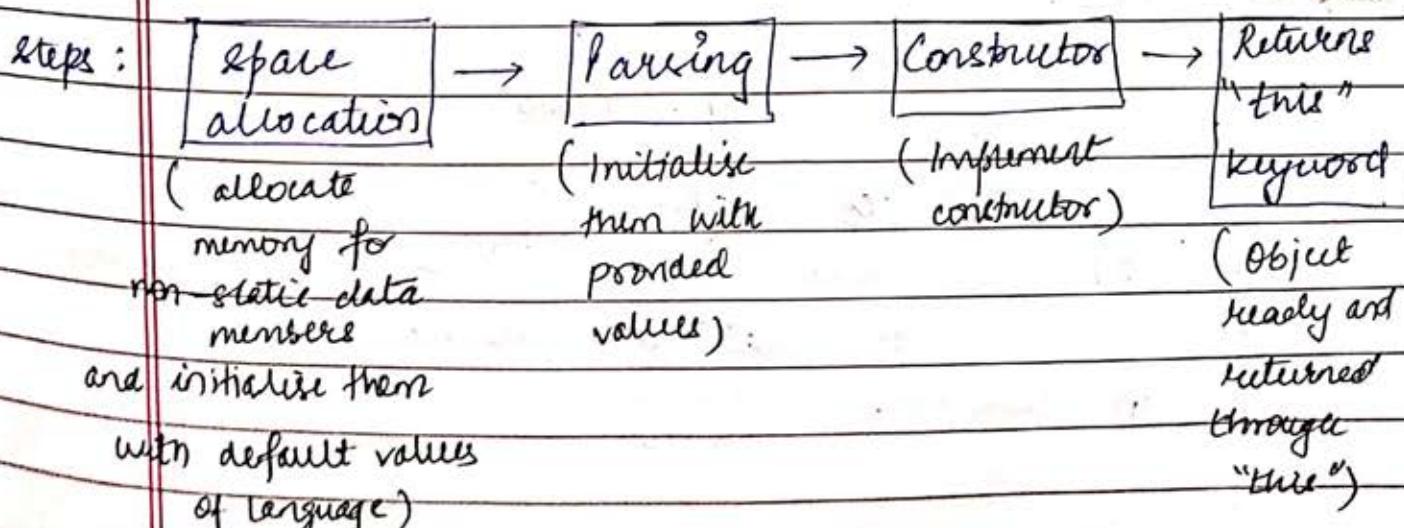
- \* There is nothing available in C++ to achieve achieve the impact of FINAL class

	Java	C++
1) Variable	Final	CONST
2) Data member	FINAL Initialization → parsing constructor	CONST Initialization → only parsing
3) FUNCTION	FINAL ( can't override )	By default C++ functions
4) CLASS	FINAL ( can't inherit )	- NOT available -

# Example of final classes in JAVA ?  
String, Double, int etc.

## OBJECT CREATION

Person p = new Person()



on → public class ~~balance~~<sup>account</sup> {  
 int amount = 10;  
 int ano = 3;  
 static double roi = 0.04;  
 static int count = 0;

account ()

{ count++;  
 ano = count; }  
 }

account (int amount)

{ ~~amount~~<sup>this</sup>();  
 tha.amount = amount; }  
 }

## Steps of Object creation

Step 1: Space allocated for amount and ano and initialised with defaults

amount = 0
ano = 0

### NOTE :

- 1) ~~Java~~ defaults → space allocation
- 2) class creator ~~Fixed defaults~~ → Parsing  
~~eg:~~ amount = 10.
- 3) class creator ~~Dynamic Defaults~~ → Default constructor  
eg: static int count++;
- 4) class user ~~previous values~~ → Parameterised constructor

# ABSTRACT keyword.

~~functions~~ class

JAVA  
= Abstract

C++

Step 2: Initialising with fixed defaults - Passing

amount = 10  
ano = 0

Step 3:  
Step 2a:

Dynamic defaults - default constructor

amount = 10  
ano = 1

Previous values - parametrised values

amount = 10 + x  
ano = 1

Note: Default constructor within parametrised constructor  
account (int amt)

```
    { this();  
      this.amount += amt; } }
```

Address class A

print peer

new A(p)

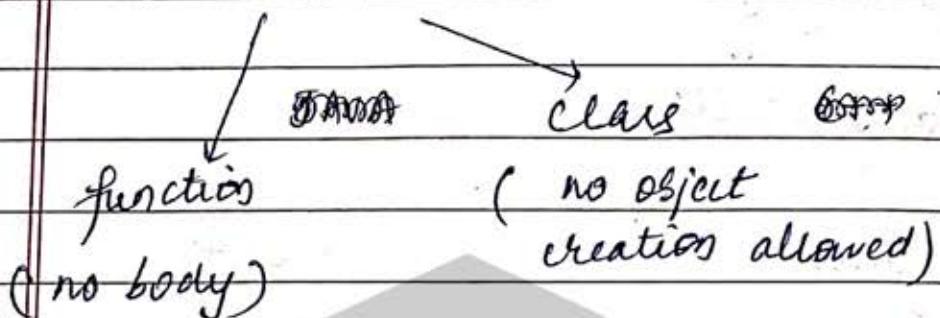
presso

return before

first

#

## ABSTRACT KEYWORD



- + If a function is abstract then it is necessary for its class to be abstract?

Yes, because abstract function means function has no body and non-abstract class means its class can be created. Now calling an empty function via through an object would make no sense - null pointer.

- It is necessary for an abstract class to have atleast one abstract function?

No, an abstract class may have all non-abstract functions. It hardly matters.

**NOTE:** If an abstract class is inherited by some non-abstract class, ~~without you provide definition~~ and all the functions of abstract class are abstract then, —

either you define all the functions of abstract class or make the derived class as abstract too. and this will continue unless definition for all functions ~~are~~ provided.

→ Difference between library and framework.

library : called and used by application only.

Framework : cross calls - framework can call and use application as well.

Eg - Priority queue is a framework which calls our app using comparator.

- Where do we use abstract class?

TEMPLATE DESIGN PATTERN - A parent template class is created with abstract functions which might <sup>contain</sup> have different logics for different applications.

→ Basically, it provides empty body / skeleton of an operation in terms of a number of high-level steps and leaves the details to be implemented by child class.

The overall structure and sequence of the algorithm is preserved by parent class.

Template - Preet format

- Can abstract class have constructor?

Yes, in the scenario of inheritance, to initialise the properties which may get derived down the chain.

→ abstract class A {

p1

    } abstract fun() { }

abstract class B {

g

p2:

    } abstract class C {

g

p3

    } fun() { }

In the given scenario, if body of `func()` is defined in class C where

T

B

T

C

then we need to have constructor in abstract classes A and B to initialise p1 and p2.  
constructor will be called in the sequence -

class A →

A (p1) {

this.p1 = p1;

class B → B (p1, p2)

{ super (p1); }

this.p2 = p2;

// super means  
constructor of  
class just above it.

class C →

C (p1, p2, p3)

{ super (p1, p2); }

this.p3 = p3;

// if parametrized

constructor super(p1, p2)

is not called,

then its default

constructor will be

fired automatically.

NOTE: `super(p1, p2)` ≠ `this.p3 = p3``this.p3 = p3``super(p1, p2)` ?? THIS IS WRONG!

**Constructor chaining :** In an inheritance scheme of type → A

T

B

T

C

constructor will be fired in sequence ⇒ A → B → C  
whereas destructor sequence ⇒ C → B → A

Abstract keyword → Abstract (Java)

→ Pure virtual (C++)

→ Example of constructor chaining -

```
class A {
    A()
    { print(A); }
}
```

OUTPUT ⇒ A

```
class B {
    B()
    { print(B); }
    A a = new A();
}
```

B

A

C

A

```
class C {
    C()
    print(C);
    B b = new B();
}
```

B

A

A

B

```
class D {
    D()
    print(D);
    C c = new C();
}
```

A

C

A

B

A

```
main() {
    D d = new D();
}
```

#

## ITERATOR

Consider the question of finding pair sum equal to 100 in binary tree.

Approach	BST	Binary	Space
1) Recursion in recursion ('find' function)	$n \log n$	$n^2$	$O(h)$
2) sorted arraylist (Inorder of BST)	$n$	$n \log n$	$O(n)$
3) Hashmap	$O(n)$	$n$	$O(n)$
4) Iterator (recursion from both start - "freezable")	$n$	$n$	$O(h)$

**INTERFACE:** Pure abstract class with all body-less functions and no data members.

Interface → implements

Abstract class → extends

NOTE:

- Interface may have data members but of STATIC type.
- C++ does not have interfaces.

## Use of interface in Java:

Since java doesn't support multi-inheritance, so to achieve that purpose/ functionality - interfaces can be used.

### ITERATOR vs ITERABLE (JAVA)

Both of them are interfaces

⇒ Iterable - to be implemented by a main class (BST)

↳ It has a single function "iterator()"

<sup>our</sup>

returns

↓  
ITERATOR

( Iterator is again an interface )  
which provides some thing by own

Since we need to return an Iterator in the iterator() function, so we will be writing a BSTIterator class and it will have 2 functions of ITERATOR interface

hasNext()

next()

So basically,

1) Our class implements Iterable { }

It's function → iterator() will return an

~~bstIterator ( Node node )~~

Iterator named

~~stack.push( new LastNode )~~

bstIterator

2) class bstIterator will have 2 functions

hasNext()      next()

## Algorithm for applying iterator on BST

USING STATES - For inorder traversal

state 0 → push in stack and

state 1 → push left

state 2 → point and push right

state 3 → pop from stack

To implement the above, we can apply  
iterations on pair class,

class pair {

Node node;

int state;

Pair (Node node, int state);

{ this.node = node;

this.state = state,

} }

For implementing iterator on BST,

For iterating BST, we need two iterators

bstIterator

(front  
end)

reverseIterator

(reverse  
end)

→ public Iterator < Integer > iterator ()  
return new bstIterator ( root );

static class bstIterator implements Iterator < Integer >  
{ static class Pair {

Node node  
int state; } }

Stack<Pair> st = new Stack ();  
int val;

bstIterator ( Node node ) {  
if ( node != null ) {  
st.push ( new Pair ( node, 0 ) );  
next (); } }

public boolean hasNext ()  
return val != -1 ;

public Integer next ()  
{ int nv = val;  
val = -1; }

while ( stack.size > 0 ) {

Pair top = st.pop ();

if ( top.state == 0 )

→ add top.left if it exists  
and state ++

else if ( $\text{state} == 1$ ):

$\rightarrow \text{state}++;$

$\text{val} = \text{top\_node}.\text{data}$

BREAK;

else if ( $\text{state} == 2$ )

$\hookrightarrow \text{state}++$

add  $\text{top\_node}.\text{right}$  if it exists

else if ( $\text{state} == 3$ )

$\hookrightarrow \text{st.pop}();$

3

return  $\text{arr};$

→ Similarly, in reverse iterator.

$\hookrightarrow$  only difference  $\Rightarrow$

at  $\text{state} = 0$ :

$\hookrightarrow$  add  $\text{height}$

at  $\text{state} = 2$

$\hookrightarrow$  add  $\text{left}$

How to use these iterators for finding pair sum equal to k?

Iterator <integer>  $\text{itr} \Leftarrow \text{tree.iterator}();$

Iterator <integer>  $\text{itr} \Leftarrow \text{tree.reverseIterator}();$

```

int left = arr[0];
int right = arr[1];
while (left < right) {
    if (left + right == sum) {
        increment both pointers;
    } else if (left + right < sum) {
        increment left;
    } else {
        right = arr[right + 1];
    }
}

```

## # HASHCODE and EQUALS

Needed when our custom object is used as key in hashmap.

HashCode → which bucket to choose

equal → decides whether the given value is matching with any of the element present in that bucket or not.

Consider the problem of finding count of maximum no. of points lying on a straight line.—

class line {

int dx;

int dy;

}

These class 'line' objects will be used as 'keys' ~~data~~ of our hashmap.

Hence overriding `HASHCODE` and `EQUALS` functions -

⇒ `public boolean equals ( Object o )`

```

    {
        Line lo = ( Line ) o;      ( typecasting
                                    of
                                    object )
        if ( this. dx == 0 && o. dx == 0 )
            return true;
        else if ( this. dy == 0 && o. dy == 0 )
            return true;
        else if ( this. dx == o. dx && this. dy == o. dy )
            return true;
        return false;
    }

```

⇒ `public int hashCode ()`

```

    {
        return this. dx + this. dy;
    }

```

# TO STRING FUNCTION (`toString()`)

→ `toString()` method returns the string representation of the object.

It is overridden to print the desired output of custom class.

example:- class student {  
 int rollno;  
 string name;  
 string city;

student ( int r, string n, string c )  
 { this. rollno = r;  
 this. name = n;  
 this. city = c;  
 }

main ( )

Now; if

Student s1 = new student ( \*100, "ABC", "GOA");  
 and we want  
 "System.out.print ( s1 )" to print  
 rollno, name and city in sequence,  
 then we need to override toString function like -

public string toString ()

{ return rollno + " " + name + " " + city; }

Otherwise it will print the hashCode values of  
 three objects.