

Polymorphism

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demo: person,
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Rotterdam, Netherlands

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Lecture topics

- Beyond type equality
- Defining our own subtypes
- Lists and state machines

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Introduction

- In the previous lecture we have seen that Java/C# have a static type system
- Programs that make no sense are outright refused by the compiler
- “Make no sense” means calling methods or making assignments with the wrong types

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So far, we defined a type to be wrong if it is not exactly the same as what we expected.

If we expected an `int`, but got a `Person`, then clearly something was off and we expect^a a compiler error.

^awelcome, actually

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Wrong types

The two most important typing rules for these violations are those of variable assignment and method call.

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When assigning a variable, we expect the type of the expression and that of the variable to be exactly the same: $T = D[x]$

$$\frac{\langle e, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle T, D \rangle \wedge T = D[x]}{\langle x = e, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle D[\text{void}], D \rangle}$$

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Conclusion

When calling a method, we expect the type of the parameters and those of the arguments to be exactly the same: $P_i = P'_i$

$$\frac{\langle c, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle C, D \rangle \wedge \langle m, C \rangle \rightarrow \langle (P_1 \times P_2 \times \cdots \times P_n \rightarrow R), C \rangle \wedge \langle p_i, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle P'_i, D \rangle \wedge P_i = P'_i}{\langle (c.m(..p_i..)), D \rangle \rightarrow \langle R, D \rangle}$$

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For example, the program below violates typing rules:

```
1  int x = 5;  
2  x = "uh!?";
```

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For example, the program below violates typing rules:

```
1 class Counter {  
2     private int cnt;  
3     public Counter() {  
4         this.cnt = 0;  
5     }  
6     public void Incr(int diff) {  
7         this.cnt = (this.cnt + diff);  
8     }  
9 }  
10 Counter c = new Counter();  
11 c.Incr(c);
```

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```
int x = 5.5; makes no sense
```

This will also give a compiler error.

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Always wrong?

- What about a similar expression, such as `float x = 10;?`
- `x` is a `float`
- `10` is an `int`
- `float` \neq `int`, so we should get a type error.

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`float x = 10;` makes sense, even though it violates the strictest typing rules described so far.

Floating point numbers “contain” integers, so converting the integer 10 to 10.0 loses no information

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Subtyping

This means that the typing rules as seen so far are **too restrictive**: we should be able to accept an assignment from a more specific data type (such as `int`) to a less specific data type (such as `float`).

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Conclusion

Consider any two data types, T and S

We say that $S <: T$, read “ S is a subtype of T ”, to mean that any value of type S can be safely used where a value of type T is expected.

We also say that, when $S <: T$, T **generalizes** S .

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Conclusion

More and less specific data types

For example, `int <: float`, because any value of type `int` can be safely used where a value of type `float` is expected (as the conversion loses no data, and thus can be inserted by the compiler itself).

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More and less specific data types

We can now amend many of our typing rules: instead of type equality, we can use subtyping to preserve safety, but achieve more flexibility.

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When assigning a variable, we expect the type of the expression
to be a subtype of that of the variable.

$$\frac{\langle e, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle T, D \rangle \wedge T <: D[x]}{\langle x = e, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle D[\text{void}], D \rangle}$$

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Conclusion

When calling a method, we expect the type of the parameters
to be subtypes of the types of the arguments.

$$\frac{\langle c, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle C, D \rangle \wedge \langle m, C \rangle \rightarrow \langle (P_1 \times P_2 \times \cdots \times P_n \rightarrow R), C \rangle \wedge \langle p_i, D \rangle \rightarrow \langle P'_i, D \rangle \wedge P_i \text{ :> } P'_i}{\langle (c.m(..p_i..)), D \rangle \rightarrow \langle R, D \rangle}$$

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Remember that we can define our own classes to extend the data types of the language when they are insufficient for our domain.

We can make use of subtyping for those custom classes.

This makes it possible to capture **generalization relationships** between our own data types.

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Can you think of a few examples of classes that generalize each other?

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Can you think of a few examples of classes that generalize each other?

Person generalizes Student.

LightEmitter generalizes Lamp.

Animal generalizes Dog.

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Which generalizes which?

Mercedes vs CarBrand?

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Which generalizes which?

Mercedes vs CarBrand? CarBrand :> Mercedes

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Which generalizes which?

Mercedes vs CarBrand? CarBrand :> Mercedes

LivingSpace vs Apartment?

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Which generalizes which?

Mercedes vs CarBrand? CarBrand :> Mercedes

LivingSpace vs Apartment? LivingSpace :> Apartment

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Which generalizes which?

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Cat vs Bird?

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Mercedes vs CarBrand? CarBrand :> Mercedes

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

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Person vs Employee?

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

Student vs Person?

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

Student vs Person? Person :> Student.

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

Student vs Person? Person :> Student.

Student vs Employee?

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

Student vs Person? Person :> Student.

Student vs Employee? Neither.

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Cat vs Bird? Neither.

Person vs Employee? Person :> Employee

Student vs Person? Person :> Student.

Student vs Employee? Neither.

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Consider, in particular, the following relationships:

`Person :> Employee`

`Person :> Student`

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Conclusion

Consider, in particular, the following relationships:

`Person :> Employee`

`Person :> Student`

We could imagine that `Person`, `Employee`, and `Student` are all classes

Moreover, `Person` and `Employee` are somehow related

Similarly, `Person` and `Student` are related in the same way

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Class inheritance

- This relationships is modeled, in Java/C#, with class inheritance.
- A class such as `Employee` will therefore inherit from class `Person`
- This means that `Employee` will automatically have all fields and methods of `Person`

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Conclusion

When we use inheritance, for example of `Person` from `Employee`, then the language automatically infers that `Person` `:> Employee`

This means therefore that anywhere in the language (a variable, a parameter, etc.) where we expected a `Person`, we can give an `Employee`.

This provides polymorphism, as the same data type (in this case `Person`) can have multiple shapes: a `Person`, an `Employee`, a `Student`, etc.

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Inheritance requires very little code: in C#, a colon (:) suffices with the name of the inherited class next to that of the defined class.

In Java, we use the keyword `extends` instead of the colon.

It is possible to inherit at most one class.

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Conclusion

The program below works: why?

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
5  }  
6  class B : A {  
7      public int N(int y) {  
8          return (y * 10);  
9      }  
10 }  
11 A b = new B();  
12 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

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The program below works: why?

```
1 class A {  
2     public int M(int x) {  
3         return (x + x);  
4     }  
5 }  
6 class B : A {  
7     public int N(int y) {  
8         return (y * 10);  
9     }  
10 }  
11 A b = new B();  
12 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

Because the declaration of `b` specifies `A` as the type, but whenever we expect an `A` we can use a `B` thanks to inheritance.

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Which in Java then becomes:

```
1 class A {  
2     public int M(int x) {  
3         return (x + x);  
4     }  
5 }  
6 class B extends A {  
7     public int N(int y) {  
8         return (y * 10);  
9     }  
10 }  
11 A b = new B();  
12 System.out.println(b.M(5));
```

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```
1  class A {  
2      public A() {  
3      }  
4      public int M(int x) {  
5          return (x + x);  
6      }  
7  }  
8  class B : A {  
9      public B() {  
10     }  
11     public int N(int y) {  
12         return (y * 10);  
13     }  
14 }  
15 A b = new B();  
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

Declarations:

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```

1  class A {
2      public A() {
3      }
4      public int M(int x) {
5          return (x + x);
6      }
7  }
8  class B : A {
9      public B() {
10     }
11     public int N(int y) {
12         return (y * 10);
13     }
14 }
15 A b = new B();
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));

```

Declarations:

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Classes:

A
$A=A \rightarrow A$
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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```

1  class A {
2      public A() {
3      }
4      public int M(int x) {
5          return (x + x);
6      }
7  }
8  class B : A {
9      public B() {
10     }
11     public int N(int y) {
12         return (y * 10);
13     }
14 }
15 A b = new B();
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));

```

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Classes:

A	B
$A = A \rightarrow A$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$B = B \rightarrow B$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N = (B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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```

1  class A {
2      public A() {
3      }
4      public int M(int x) {
5          return (x + x);
6      }
7  }
8  class B : A {
9      public B() {
10     }
11     public int N(int y) {
12         return (y * 10);
13     }
14 }
15 A b = new B();
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));

```

Declarations:

PC	b
16	A

Classes:

A	B
$A = A \rightarrow A$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$B = B \rightarrow B$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N = (B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Conclusion

```

1  class A {
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```

Declarations:

b		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
A		16	null	int	A

Classes:

A	B
$A = A \rightarrow A$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$B = B \rightarrow B$ $M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N = (B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Declarations:

b		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
A		16	int	int	A

Classes:

A	B
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```

Stack:

PC
1

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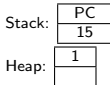
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node.

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13     }
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15 A b = new B();
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```

Stack:	PC	...		PC	ret	this
	15	...		10	null	ref 1
Heap:	1					

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```

Stack:	PC	...		PC	ret
	15	...		10	null
Heap:	1				

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```

Stack:	PC	b
	16	ref 1
Heap:	1	

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```

Stack:	PC	...		PC	ret	this	x
	16	...		5	null	ref 1	5
Heap:	1						

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10     }
11     public int N(int y) {
12         return (y * 10);
13     }
14 }
15 A b = new B();
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));

```

Stack:	PC	...		PC	ret
	16	...		5	10

Heap:	1

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Conclusion

```

1  class A {
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12         return (y * 10);
13     }
14 }
15 A b = new B();
16 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));

```

Stack:

PC	b
17	ref 1

Heap:

1

Output: 10

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Conclusion

Class inheritance

Similarly, given a method that expects a parameter of type A could accept a parameter of type C.

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Inheritance does not make all combinations possible. For example, the program below does not work: why?

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
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6  class B : A {  
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16 B b = new C();  
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```

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Conclusion

Inheritance does not make all combinations possible. For example, the program below does not work: why?

```
1  class A {  
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11 class C : A {  
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13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

There is no inheritance relationship between B and C!

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Conclusion

Which in Java then becomes:

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
5  }  
6  class B extends A {  
7      public int N(int y) {  
8          return (y * 10);  
9      }  
10 }  
11 class C extends A {  
12     public int O(int z) {  
13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 System.out.println(b.M(5));
```


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Conclusion

Class inheritance

The subtyping relationship is transitive. This means that given $X \vdash Y$ and $Y \vdash Z$, implies $X \vdash Z$.

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Conclusion

Inheritance can also perform multiple conversion steps:

```
1 class A {  
2     public int M(int x) {  
3         return (x + x);  
4     }  
5 }  
6 class B : A {  
7     public int N(int y) {  
8         return (y * 10);  
9     }  
10 }  
11 class C : B {  
12     public int O(int z) {  
13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 A a = new C();  
17 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));
```

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Which in Java then becomes:

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14     }  
15 }  
16 A a = new C();  
17 System.out.println(a.M(5));
```

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```
1 class A {  
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```

Declarations:

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Conclusion

```

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14     }
15 }
16 A a = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));

```

Declarations:

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6

Classes:

A
$M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Conclusion

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15 }
16 A a = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));

```

Declarations:

PC
11

Classes:

A	B
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$
	$N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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```

Declarations:

PC
16

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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16 A a = new C();
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```

Declarations:

PC	a
17	A

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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```

Declarations:

a		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
A		17	null	int	A

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Declarations:

a		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
A		17	int	int	A

Classes:

A	B	C
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Declarations:

PC	a
18	A

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```

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```

Stack:

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1

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Live code demo: list, empty, and node.

Conclusion

```

1  class A {
2      public int M(int x) {
3          return (x + x);
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5  }
6  class B : A {
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11 class C : B {
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13     }
14     public int O(int z) {
15         return (z - 1);
16     }
17 }
18 A a = new C();
19 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));

```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret	this
18	...		13	null	ref 1

Heap:

1

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PC	...		PC	ret
18	...		13	null

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Stack:

PC	a
19	ref 1

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PC	...		PC	ret	this	x
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16     }
17 }
18 A a = new C();
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Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret
19	...		3	10

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```

Stack:	PC	a
	20	ref 1

Heap:	1

Output: 10

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Of course, when inheriting, we can still use all methods available given a variable type.

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The code below does indeed work. Why?

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17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));  
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));
```

It is possible to call both methods M and N on an instance of B.

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Conclusion

Which in Java then becomes:

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
5  }  
6  class B extends A {  
7      public int N(int y) {  
8          return (y * 10);  
9      }  
10 }  
11 class C extends B {  
12     public int O(int z) {  
13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 System.out.println(b.M(5));  
18 System.out.println(b.N(5));
```

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16 B b = new C();  
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));  
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));
```

Declarations:

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15 }
16 B b = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Declarations:

PC
6

Classes:

A
$M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Conclusion

```

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13         return (z - 1);
14     }
15 }
16 B b = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Declarations:

PC
11

Classes:

A	B
$M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M = (A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N = (B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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14     }
15 }
16 B b = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Declarations:

PC
16

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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12     public int O(int z) {
13         return (z - 1);
14     }
15 }
16 B b = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Declarations:

PC	b
17	B

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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16 B b = new C();
17 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
18 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Declarations:

b		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
B		17	null	int	B

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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```

Declarations:

b		PC	ret	arg ₁	this
B		17	int	int	B

Classes:

A	B	C
$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$	$M=(A \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $N=(B \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$ $O=(C \times \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$

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Declarations:

PC	b
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Declarations:

PC	b
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Classes:

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Stack:

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Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret	this
18	...		13	null	ref 1

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```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret
18	...		13	null

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1

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```

Stack:

PC	b
19	ref 1

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```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret	this	x
19	...		3	null	ref 1	5

Heap:

1

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Conclusion

```

1  class A {
2      public int M(int x) {
3          return (x + x);
4      }
5  }
6  class B : A {
7      public int N(int y) {
8          return (y * 10);
9      }
10 }
11 class C : B {
12     public C() {
13     }
14     public int O(int z) {
15         return (z - 1);
16     }
17 }
18 B b = new C();
19 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
20 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret
19	...		3	10

Heap:

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18 B b = new C();
19 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
20 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Stack:

PC	b
20	ref 1

Heap:

1

Output:

10

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18 B b = new C();
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20 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret	this	y
20	...		8	null	ref 1	5

Heap:

1

Output: 10

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18 B b = new C();
19 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
20 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Stack:

PC	...		PC	ret
20	...		8	50

Heap:

1

Output: 10

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15         return (z - 1);
16     }
17 }
18 B b = new C();
19 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
20 Console.WriteLine(b.N(5));

```

Stack:

PC	b
21	ref 1

Heap:

1

Output:

10	50
----	----

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Conclusion

A major difference with Python is that, even if the instance may allow calling some methods, subtyping might disallow it.

The code below does not work. Why?

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
5  }  
6  class B : A {  
7      public int N(int y) {  
8          return (y * 10);  
9      }  
10 }  
11 class C : B {  
12     public int O(int z) {  
13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 Console.WriteLine(b.O(5));
```

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13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 Console.WriteLine(b.O(5));
```

b is declared with type B, which has no method O.

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Conclusion

Which in Java then becomes:

```
1  class A {  
2      public int M(int x) {  
3          return (x + x);  
4      }  
5  }  
6  class B extends A {  
7      public int N(int y) {  
8          return (y * 10);  
9      }  
10 }  
11 class C extends B {  
12     public int O(int z) {  
13         return (z - 1);  
14     }  
15 }  
16 B b = new C();  
17 System.out.println(b.O(5));
```

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Zero-level data types

- The subtyping relationship can start from a data type so general that it has no concrete implementation.
- This data type is called an **interface**.
- Interfaces are classes defined with the keyword **interface**. They have no fields, and no implementation of their methods.
- We say that a class implements, not inherits from, one or more interfaces.

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Zero-level data types

- Interfaces are especially useful to specify what requirements a data type must satisfy to be used in a context.
- With interfaces we are not bound to also giving a “default” implementation.

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Implementing interfaces requires very little code: in C#, a colon (:) suffices with the name of the implemented interface next to that of the defined class.

In Java, we use the keyword `implements` instead of the colon.

It is possible to implement multiple interfaces from the same class.

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The program below works: why?

```
1 interface A {  
2     int M(int x);  
3 }  
4 class B : A {  
5     public int M(int x) {  
6         return (x + x);  
7     }  
8 }  
9 A b = new B();  
10 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

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```
1 interface A {  
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5     public int M(int x) {  
6         return (x + x);  
7     }  
8 }  
9 A b = new B();  
10 Console.WriteLine(b.M(5));
```

Because the declaration of `b` specifies `A` as the type, but whenever we expect an `A` we can use a `B` thanks to the subtyping of implemented interfaces.

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Conclusion

Which in Java then becomes:

```
1 interface A {  
2     int M(int x);  
3 }  
4 class B implements A {  
5     public int M(int x) {  
6         return (x + x);  
7     }  
8 }  
9 A b = new B();  
10 System.out.println(b.M(5));
```

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Conclusion

The program below does not work: why?

```
1 interface A {  
2     int M(int x);  
3 }  
4 A a = new A();  
5 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));
```


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Conclusion

The program below does not work: why?

```
1 interface A {  
2     int M(int x);  
3 }  
4 A a = new A();  
5 Console.WriteLine(a.M(5));
```

Because A has no implementation and so cannot be instantiated: what code could we possibly execute for method M?

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Zero-level data types

Polymorphism can be used in a lot of contexts, as long as the conversion we expect of the language is provably safe.

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Conclusion

The program below works: why?

```
1 interface A {  
2     A M(A x);  
3 }  
4 class B : A {  
5     public A M(A x) {  
6         return this;  
7     }  
8 }  
9 A b = new B();  
10 Console.WriteLine(b.M(new B()));
```

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3 }  
4 class B : A {  
5     public A M(A x) {  
6         return this;  
7     }  
8 }  
9 A b = new B();  
10 Console.WriteLine(b.M(new B()));
```

Because the argument to M, which should be an A, can safely accept a B as well.

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Conclusion

Looking back

- Polymorphism makes it possible to pass different data types to other contexts, as long as the conversion is safe
- Inheritance is the basic mechanism of polymorphism
- Interfaces make this even more powerful by allowing the use of polymorphism without a concrete data type

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The best of luck, and thanks for the
attention!