

11 - Java Generics

It is the [parametric polymorphism](#) explicit bounded (invariant) of Java.

They enable **types** (classes and interfaces) to be **parameters** when defining **classes**, **interfaces** and **methods**. They provide:

- **Stronger type checks** at compile time;
- Elimination of casts;
- Possibility to implement generic algorithms;

Generic Types

A **generic type** is a generic class or interface that is parameterized over types. Example:

```
/**
 * Generic version of the Box class.
 * @param <T> the type of the value being boxed
 */
public class Box<T> {
    // T stands for "Type"
    private T t;

    public void set(T t) { this.t = t; }
    public T get() { return t; }
}
```

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The section delimited by angle brackets (<>) defines the **type parameters**, which can be used arbitrarily in the definition.

When referencing the generic `Box` class, we perform a **generic type invocation**, which replaces `T` with some concrete value, such as `Integer`:

```
Box<Integer> integerBox;
```

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In this example, `Integer` is called **type argument**, which can be any object, but not primitive types.

Every type parameter must be instantiated, either explicitly or implicitly (like a form of type inference).

Generic Methods

Similar to declaring a generic type, but the **type parameter's scope** is **limited** to the method where it is declared. Example:

```
public class Pair<K, V> {

    private K key;
    private V value;

    public Pair(K key, V value) {
        this.key = key;
        this.value = value;
    }
}
```

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```

public void setKey(K key) { this.key = key; }
public void setValue(V value) { this.value = value; }
public K getKey() { return key; }
public V getValue() { return value; }
}

public class Util {
    public static <K, V> boolean compare(Pair<K, V> p1, Pair<K, V> p2) {
        return p1.getKey().equals(p2.getKey()) &&
            p1.getValue().equals(p2.getValue());
    }
}

```

The generic method in `Util` can then be invoked either by explicitly passing the parameters or by letting the compiler infer the types:

```

```java
Pair<Integer, String> p1 = new Pair<>(1, "apple");
Pair<Integer, String> p2 = new Pair<>(2, "pear");

// Explicit
boolean same = Util.<Integer, String>compare(p1, p2);

// Type-inferred
boolean same = Util.compare(p1, p2);

```

## Bounded Type Parameters

**Bounded type parameters** are type parameters with some **restrictions** on which type argument can be passed. In particular, you can enforce upper/lower bounds:

- **Upper bound:** `<TypeVar> extends SuperType`
  - `SuperType` and any of its subtype are ok;
- **Lower bound:** `<TypeVar> super SubType`
  - `SubType` and any of its supertype are ok;

Example:

```

class NumList<E extends Number> {
 void m(E arg){
 arg.intValue();
 }
}

```

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When we want to instantiate a `NumList` object we have to use as type parameter a class that implements `Number`. This way we can invoke methods that are surely defined (since inherited).

## Type Erasure

Type erasure is a **process** done by the Java compiler:

- **Replace** all type parameters in generic types **with** their **bounds or Object** if the type parameters are unbounded. The produced bytecode, therefore, contains only ordinary classes, interfaces, and methods;
- Insert **type casts** if necessary to preserve type safety;
- **Generate bridge methods** to preserve polymorphism in extended generic types.

Type erasure ensures that **no new classes** are created for parameterized types, thus at **runtime** all the instances of the same generic type have the **same type**. Example:

```

List<Integer> intList = new ArrayList<Integer>();
List<String> strList = new ArrayList<String>();

intList.getClass() == strList.getClass() // True

```

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This means that generics **do not introduce runtime overhead** (the only overhead is caused by castings introduced at runtime, which are negligible). Also, type erasure ensure **backward compatibility** with **legacy** code.

## Invariance, Covariance and Contravariance

In Java we know that `Integer` is a subtype `Number`, but *it is not true* that `List<Integer>` is a subtype of `List<Number>`.

By abstracting it, we can say that given two concrete types `A` and `B`, `Class<A>` has **no relationship** with `Class<B>`, regardless of any relationship between `A` and `B`. Formally, we can say that **subtyping** in Java is **invariant** for **generic** classes: the relationship between `A` and `B` do not influence the relationship between `Class<A>` and `Class<B>`.

On the other hand, as expected, if `A` **extends** `B` and they are generic classes then for each type `C` we have that `A<C>` extends `B<C>`. E.g.: `ArrayList<Integer>` *is a subtype* of `List<Integer>`.

NOTE: One of the common parents of `Class<A>` and `Class<B>` is `Class<?>`, where `?` is called [wildcard](#).

## Covariance and Contravariance

2 other notions are:

- **Covariant**: if `A` is a subclass of `B` then `Class<A>` is a subclass of `Class<B>`
- **Contravariant**: if `A` is a subclass of `B` then `Class<B>` is a subclass of `Class<A>`, i.e. there is an inversion of relation.

Why has Java decided to go for invariance rather than one of those? Let's say that we have the interface:

```

interface List<T> {
 boolean add(T elt);
 T get(int index);
}

```

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Hence, when instantiated with `Number` and `Integer` we have:

- `List<Number>`:
  - `boolean add(Number elt);`
  - `Number get(int index);`
- `List<Integer>`:
  - `boolean add(Integer elt);`
  - `Integer get(int index);`

Consider now the following code:

```

List<Integer> intList = new ArrayList<>();
List<Number> numList = new ArrayList<>();

// Statement 1
numList = intList;

// Statement 2
numList.add(new Number(...));

```

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```
// Statement 3
intList = numList;

// Statement 4
Integer n = intList.get(0);
```

If **covariance** was allowed:

- Statement 1 would be **possible**, since `Integer` is a subtype of `Number`;
- Statement 2 however, would throw an **error**, as it is trying to add a `Number` to a list of `Integer`, but `Number` is not a subtype of `Integer`. On dynamic dispatching (selection of which polymorphic form to use at runtime) of `numList`, it would be invoked the `add` method of `List<Integer>`, and a type error would be raised;

If **contravariance** was allowed:

- Statement 3 would be **possible**, since `Integer` is a subtype of `Number` and thus `List<Number>` is a subtype of `List<Integer>`;
- Statement 4 however, would throw an **error**, as `intList.get(0)` returns a `Number`, but we expect an `Integer`, which is one of its subtypes.

These examples shows that the **substitution principle** ([Polymorphism > Inclusion](#)) is violated by both covariance and contravariance: `List<Number>` is neither a **supertype** nor a **subtype** of `List<Integer>`. Hence, Java only use **invariance**.

There are some cases however, where covariance and contravariance would be safe to allow:

- **Covariance** is safe if the type is **read-only**;
- **Contravariance** is safe if the type is **write-only**;

Indeed, some programming languages allows them:

- In **C#**, the type parameter of a generic class can be annotated **out** (covariant) or **in** (contravariant);
- In **Scala**, the type parameter of a generic class can be annotated **-** (covariant) or **+** (contravariant);

## Java Arrays

In Java, if `Type1` is a subtype of `Type2`, then `Type1[]` is a subtype of `Type2[]`. Thus, Java arrays are **covariant**. This is done because Java Arrays are widely used, and it was needed a simple way to use them.

Consider the method: `void sort(Object[] array)`.

Since `Object[]` is the supertype of any other array, it exploit the covariance. Without covariance, we would need to **define a new method** `sort` **for every array**! But since sorting only make use of read-only operations, covariance is safe to be used in this case.

## Problems with Array Covariance

Even if the array covariance works for sort it may still cause type errors in other cases. Consider:

```
// Defined classes Fruit, Apple, Pear (with Apple and Pear subtypes of Fruit)

Apple[] apples = new Apple[1];
Fruit[] fruits = apples; // ok by covariance

fruits[0] = new Pear();
```

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This code breaks a general **Java rule**: for every object, its **dynamic type** (type of the value of the object, known at runtime) must be a **subtype** of its **static type** (type given in the declaration). But in the example, `Pear` is not a subtype of `Apple`: every array update includes a runtime check, and **assigning** to an **array element** an **object** of a **non compatible type** throws a `ArrayStoreException`.

This scenario also shows why **Java do not support generic arrays**: the dynamic type of an array is known only at runtime, but the generics at runtime are casted to `Object` due to type erasure (and thus, it would not be possible to perform runtime checks). This would result in non-detectable errors. Since Java is **type-safe**, generics array are not supported.

## Wildcard "?"

The **wildcard** represents an unknown type, and it is written as a **question mark** (?). It can be used as:

- Type of a **parameter**, **field**, or local **variable**;
- **Return** type (though it is better programming practice to be more specific);

We will see that they become handy in 2 particular scenarios:

- When a type is used **exactly once** and the **name** is **unknown**;
- For **use-site variance**: they provide on-spot covariance/contravariance.

## When should Wildcards be used?

Follow the "**PECS**" Principle (**P**roducer **E**xtends, **C**onsumer **S**uper):

- Use `? extends T` when you want to get values (from a producer): supports covariance;
- Use `? super T` when you want to insert values (in a consumer): support contravariance;
- Do not use `?` (`T` is enough) when you both obtain and produce values.

## Wildcards for Covariance

Invariance of generic classes is correct, but it limits code reusage. Wildcards can alleviate the problem.

Consider the following code:

```
interface Set<E>{ language-java
 //adds to this all the elements in c (discarding duplicates)
 void addAll(??? c);
}
```

What is a "general enough" type for the method `addAll` ?

- `void addAll(Set<E> c)` : ok, but what if I want to add to the set all the elements of a list `List<E> c`, or what if I want to add all the elements of a `Queue<E>` ?
- `void addAll(Collection<E> c)` : better solution since `List`, `Queue` ... are all subtypes of `Collection`. The problem is that it do not take into account the elements accepted by covariance. The elements of a `List<T>` with `T` subtype of `E` should be allowed to be added to the set
- **best solution**: `void addAll(Collection<? extends E> c)`
  - match any collection of elements of type subtype of `E`

## Wildcards for Contravariance

Consider the following code (most general copy method):

```
<T> void copy(List<? super T> dst, List<? extends T> src);
```

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We exploit covariance for `src` and contravariance for `dst`.

## The Price of Wildcards

A wildcard type is anonymous/unknown, and it **reduce** the possibility of **reading/writing** of objects due the restriction of covariance and contravariance.

Consider the following code:

```
List<Apple> apples = new List<Apples>();
List<? extends Fruit> fruits = apples; // Covariance

fruits.add(new Pear()); // A
Fruit f = fruits.get(0); // B
fruits.add(new Apple()); // C
fruits.add(null); // D
```

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- **A**: compile-time error:
  - `? extends Fruit` match every subclass of `Fruit` (and thus, it doesn't know its static type), and being covariance the compiler won't allow the modification of `fruits`;
- **B**: ok:
  - Covariance, so read is ok: elements of `fruits` are surely subtype of `Fruit` and hence they can be assigned to `Fruit f`;
- **C**: compile-time error:
  - `? extends Fruit` match any subclass of `Fruit`, in this case is possible to infer that `Apple` is matched and it the statement would be correct
  - but what if there was an if statement where in the "then" branch we assigned `List<Apple>` to `fruits` and in the "else" branch we assigned `List<Pear>` to `fruits`?
  - also, can't add anything due to covariance constraints
- **D**: ok:
  - Lists that exploit covariance (as in this case) can't be modified, **we can only add** `null`;

## The Price of Wildcard Contravariance

```
List<Fruit> fruits = new ArrayList<Fruit>();
List<? super Apples> apples = fruits; //contravariance

apples.add(new Apple()); // A
apples.add(new FujiApple()); // B
apples.add(new Fruit()); // C
Fruit f = apples.get(0); // D
Object o = apples.get(0); // E
```

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- The assignment `apples = fruits` is legit: `? super Apples` match every class from `Apple` to `Object` and in particular it matches `Fruit`:
- **A**: ok
  - we can add an `Apple` since it is surely subclass of a superclass of `Apple` and this check can be done statically
- **B**: ok
  - as for **A**
- **C**: compile-time error

- if `? super Apple` is `Apple` then we can't add a new `Fruit` since it is not a subclass of `Apple` (instead it is a superclass of `Apple`)
- if `? super Apple` is `Fruit` or some higher object than the types are correct but this can't be known at static time (actually not even at runtime: in Java we have type erasure)
- **D**: compile-time error
  - while the types here are correct we see that `? super Apple` can match any type from `Apple` to `Object`. In this case it matches `Fruit` but as before there could be some branching and what is matched would be known only at runtime (actually not even at runtime: in Java we have type erasure)
  - the only way where the types are surely allowed is to assign to the most general type of all, `Object`, as in **E**
  - mind that the compiler signal error no matter what since we are reading with contravariance
- **E**: ok
  - check **D**

## Limitations of Java Generics

Mostly due to the concept of **type erasure**:

- Cannot instantiate generics types with **primitive types**:
  - `ArrayList<int>` do not compile: primitive types are not under `Object`, it would not be possible to perform the type erasure which is key to retro compatibility;
- Cannot create **instances of type parameters**:
  - In `List<T>` we can't do `new T()` since the `new` is done at runtime, and at runtime `T` is `Object`, we would only instantiate `Object`;
- Cannot declare **static fields** whose types are type parameter:
  - `public class C<T>{ public static T local; ... }`: do not know the type until instantiation;
- Cannot use `casts` or `instanceof` with parameterized types:
  - `list instanceof ArrayList<Integer>` do not compile;
  - `list instanceof ArrayList<?>` is ok;
- Cannot create **arrays** of parameterized types;
- Cannot `create`, `catch`, or `throw` objects of parameterized types (Type erasure + Run Time check);
- Cannot overload a method where the formal parameter types of each overload erase to the same raw type.