

C#_9.1 Generics

At its core, the term **generics** means **parameterized types**. *Parameterized types* are important because they enable you to create **classes, structures, interfaces, methods, and delegates** in which the type of data upon which they operate is **specified** as a **parameter**. In **pre-generics** code, **casts** were needed to **convert** between the **object type** and the **actual type** of the **data**. *Generics* add the type safety that was lacking because it is no longer necessary to employ a **cast** to translate between **object** and the **actual data type**.

❑ **Generics class:** The following program defines two classes. The first is the generic class `MyGenClass`, and the second is `GenericsDemo`, which uses `MyGenClass`.

❑ Here, **T** is the name of a **type parameter**. This name is used as a **placeholder** for the **actual type** that will be specified when a `MyGenClass` object is created. Whenever a **type parameter** is being declared, it is specified within **angle brackets**. **ob** will be a variable of the **type** bound to **T** when a `MyGenClass` object is **instantiated**. For example, if type **string** is specified for **T**, then in that **instance**, **ob** will be of type **string**.

❑ `MyGenClass<int> iOb;` creates a version of `MyGenClass` for type **int**.

❑ The type **int** is specified within the **angle brackets** after `MyGenClass`. In this case, **int** is a type argument that is bound to `MyGenClass`'s type parameter, **T**. This creates a version of `MyGenClass` in which all uses of **T** are replaced by **int**. Thus, for this declaration, **ob** is of type **int**, and the **return type** of `GetOb()` is of type **int**.

using System;

/ Here, MyGenClass is a generic class that has one type parameter called T. T will be replaced by a real type when a MyGenClass object is constructed. */*

```
class MyGenClass<T> { T ob; // declare a variable of type T
    public MyGenClass(T o) { ob = o; } // constructor has a parameter of type T
    public T GetOb() { return ob; } // Return ob, which is of type T.
}
```

```
class GenericsDemo { static void Main() {
    MyGenClass<int> iOb; // Declare a MyGenClass reference for int.
    iOb = new MyGenClass<int>(88); // Create a MyGenClass<int> object.
    int v = iOb.GetOb(); // Get the value in iOb.
    Console.WriteLine(v + "\n");
    // Create a MyGenClass object for strings.
    MyGenClass<string> strOb = new MyGenClass<string>("Generics ");
    string str = strOb.GetOb(); // Get the value in strOb.
    Console.WriteLine(str + "\n");
}}
```

👉 **Closed constructed type:** When you specify a **type argument** such as **int** or **string** for `MyGenClass`, you are creating what is referred to in C# as a **closed constructed type**. Thus, `MyGenClass<int>` is a **closed constructed type**.

👉 **open constructed type:** In essence, a **generic type**, such as `MyGenClass<T>`, is an **abstraction**. It is only after a **specific version**, such as `MyGenClass<int>`, has been **constructed** that a **concrete type** has been created. In C# terminology, a **construct** such as `MyGenClass<T>` is called an **open constructed type**, because **T** (rather than an actual type such as **int**) is specified.

❑ `iOb = new MyGenClass<int>(88);` assigns to **iOb** a reference to an instance of an **int** version of the `MyGenClass` class. Notice that when the `MyGenClass` constructor is called, the type argument **int** is also specified. This is necessary because the type of the variable (in this case, **iOb**) to which the reference is being assigned is of type `MyGenClass<int>`. Thus, the **reference** returned by **new** must also be of type `MyGenClass<int>`. If it isn't, a **compile-time error** will result. For example,

```
iOb = new MyGenClass<byte>(16); // Error! Wrong Type!
```

❑ A reference of one specific version of a generic type is **not type-compatible** with another version of the same generic type. For example, `iOb = strOb;` is in error and will not compile. Even though both **iOb** and **strOb** are of type `MyGenClass<T>`, they are references to **different types** because their type arguments differ.

❑ **A Generic Class with Two Type Parameters:** For Example `TwoGen` can be declared:

```
class TwoGen<T, V> {
```

👉 It specifies two **type parameters**, **T** and **V**, separated by a **comma**. Because it has two type parameters, **two type arguments** must be specified for `TwoGen` when an **object** is created, as:

```
TwoGen<int, string> tgObj = new TwoGen<int, string>(1024, "Using two type parameters");
```

▶ In this case, **int** is substituted for **T** and **string** is substituted for **V**.

👉 Although the two type arguments differ in this example, it is possible for both types to be the same. For example, the following line of code is valid:

```
TwoGen<double, double> x = new TwoGen<double, double>(98.6, 102.4);
```

▶ In this case, both **T** and **V** are of type **double**. Of course, if the **type arguments** were **always the same**, then **two type parameters** would be **unnecessary**.

❑ **GENERALIZED SYNTAX:** The **generics syntax** shown in the preceding examples can be **generalized**. Here is the **syntax** for declaring a **generic class**:

```
class class-name<type-param-list> { // ...
```

👉 Here is the syntax for declaring a **reference** to a **generic class** and giving it an **initial value**:

```
class-name<type-arg-list> var-name = new class-name<type-arg-list>(cons-arg-list);
```

C#_9.2 Generics Improve Type Safety (Type safe code)

Generics automatically ensure the **type safety** of all operations involving `MyGenClass`. **Generics** **eliminate** the **need** for you to use **casts** and to **type-check** code by hand. To understand the **benefits** of **generics**, first consider the following program that creates a **non-generic equivalent** of `MyGenClass` called `NotGeneric`:

☑ Notice that `NotGeneric` replaces all uses of **T** with **object**. This makes `NotGeneric` able to store **any type of object**, as can the **generic** version. However, this is **bad** for two reasons.

☠ **First**, explicit casts must be employed to retrieve the stored data. Notice this line:

```
int v = (int) iOb.GetOb();
```

⊗ Because the **return type** of `GetOb()` is now **object**, the **cast** to **int** is necessary to enable the value returned by `GetOb()` to be **unboxed** and **stored** in **v**. If you remove the **cast**, the program **will not compile**.

⊗ In the **generic version** of the program, this **cast** was **not needed** because **int** was specified as a **type argument** when **iOb** was constructed.

☠ **Second**, many kinds of type mismatch errors **cannot be found until runtime**. Consider the following sequence from near the end of the program.

```
iOb = strOb; // This compiles, but is conceptually wrong!
```

```
// v = (int) iOb.GetOb(); // results in a runtime exception.
```

⊗ Here, **strOb** is assigned to **iOb**. However, **strOb** refers to an object that contains a **string**, not an **integer**. This assignment is **syntactically valid** because all `NotGeneric` references are of the same **type**. Thus, any `NotGeneric` reference can refer to any `NotGeneric` object.

⊗ However, the statement is **semantically wrong**. In that line, the **return type** of `GetOb()` is **cast** to **int** and then an attempt is made to **assign** this value to **v**.

⊗ The **trouble** is that **iOb** now refers to an **object** that stores a **string**, not an **int**. Unfortunately, **without the use of generics**, the **compiler won't catch** this **error**. Instead, a **runtime exception** will **occur** when the **cast** to **int** is attempted.

👉 The preceding sequence can't occur when **generics** are used. If this sequence were attempted in the **generic version** of the program, the **compiler would catch it** and report an **error**, thus preventing a **serious bug** that results in a **runtime exception**.

👉 **NOTE:** **Properties, operators, indexers, and events** cannot declare **type parameters**. Thus, they **cannot be made generic**. However, they can be used in a **generic class** and make use of the **type parameters** defined by that **class**.

/ NotGeneric is functionally equivalent to MyGenClass but does not use generics. */*

using System;

```
class NotGeneric { object ob;
    public NotGeneric(object o) { ob = o; }
    public object GetOb() { return ob; } }
```

```
class NonGenDemo { static void Main() {
```

```
    NotGeneric iOb = new NotGeneric(88); // NotGeneric object.
```

```
    int v = (int) iOb.GetOb(); // Get the value in iOb, a cast is necessary.
```

```
    Console.WriteLine(v + "\n");
```

```
    NotGeneric strOb = new NotGeneric("Non-Generic"); // NotGeneric obj
```

```
    String str = (string) strOb.GetOb(); // cast is necessary.
```

```
    Console.WriteLine(str + "\n");
```

```
    iOb = strOb; // This compiles, but is conceptually wrong!
```

/ The following line results in a runtime exception. */*

```
    // v = (int) iOb.GetOb(); // runtime error: Runtime type mismatch */ }
```

C#_9.3 Constrained Types (Similar to Java's Bounded types)

C# provides **constrained types**, which is similar to Java's **Bounded types**. When specifying a type parameter, you can specify a **constraint** that the **type parameter** must satisfy. This is accomplished through the use of a **where** clause when specifying the **type parameter**, as shown here:

```
class class-name<type-param> where type-param : constraints { /*...*/}
```

Here, **constraints** is a comma-separated list of constraints.

C# defines the following **types** of **constraints**

BASE CLASS constraint	You can require that a certain base class be present in a type argument by using a base class constraint . This constraint is <i>specified by naming the desired base class</i> . ⇒ There is a variation of this constraint, called a naked type constraint , in which the base class is specified as a type parameter rather than an actual type . This enables you to establish a relationship between two type parameters .
INTERFACE constraint	You can require that one or more interfaces be implemented by a type argument by using an interface constraint . This constraint is <i>specified by naming the desired interface</i> .
CONSTRUCTOR constraint	You can require that the type argument supply a parameterless constructor . It is called a constructor constraint . It is <i>specified by new()</i> .
REFERENCE type constraint	You can specify that a type argument must be a reference type by specifying the reference type constraint: class .
VALUE type constraint	You can specify that the type argument be a value type by specifying the value type constraint: struct .
☛ Of these constraints, the base class constraint and the interface constraint are probably the most often used, but all are important.	

☐ **Base Class Constraint:** The base class constraint enables you to specify a base class that a type argument must inherit. It serves two important purposes:

- ☛ A **base class constraint** enables a **generic class** to access the members of the **base class**. It also ensures that **only those type arguments** that fulfill this constraint are valid, thus preserving **type-safety**.
- ☛ First, it lets you use the **members** of the **base class** specified by the **constraint** within the **generic class**. For example, you can call a **method** or use a **property** of the **base**. By supplying a **base class constraint**, you are letting the **compiler** know that **all type arguments** will have the **members** defined by the **base class constraint**.
- ☛ The second purpose of a **base class constraint** is to ensure that only **type arguments** that *support the specified base class can be used*. This means that for any given **base class constraint**, the type argument must be either the **base itself** or a **class** derived from that **base**. If you attempt to use a **type argument** that does not **match** or **inherit** the specified **base class**, a **compile-time error** will result.
- ✖ The **base class constraint** uses this form of the **where** clause: **where T : base-class-name**
 - ▶ Here, **T** is the **name** of the **type parameter**, and **base-class-name** is the name of the **base class**. **Only one base class can be specified**.

🔗 **C#_Example 1:** Following demonstrates the **base class constraint mechanism**. It creates a **base** called **MyStrMethods**, which defines a **public method** called **ReverseStr()** that returns a **reversed version** of its **string argument**. So, any **derived class** of **MyStrMethods** will have access to this method.

<pre>using System; class MyStrMethods { public string ReverseStr(string str) { string result = ""; foreach(char ch in str) result = ch + result; return result; } /*...*/ } class MyClass : MyStrMethods { } // MyClass inherits MyStrMethods. class MyClass2 { } // MyClass2 does not inherit MyStrMethods. /* Because of the base class constraint, all type arguments specified for Test must have MyStrMethods as a base class. */ class Test<T> where T : MyStrMethods { T obj; public Test(T o) { obj = o; } public void ShowReverse(string str) { string revStr = obj.ReverseStr(str); Console.WriteLine(revStr); } // OK to call ReverseStr() on obj because it's declared by the base class MyStrMethods. }</pre>	<pre>class BaseClassConstraintDemo { static void Main() { MyStrMethods objA = new MyStrMethods(); MyClass objB = new MyClass(); MyClass2 objC = new MyClass2(); // The following is valid because MyStrMethods is the specified base class. Test<MyStrMethods> t1 = new Test<MyStrMethods>(objA); t1.ShowReverse("This is a test."); // The following is valid because MyClass inherits MyStrMethods. Test<MyClass> t2 = new Test<MyClass>(objB); t2.ShowReverse("More testing."); // The following is invalid because MyClass2 DOES NOT // inherit MyStrMethods. // Test<MyClass2> t3 = new Test<MyClass2>(objC); // Error! // t3.ShowReverse("Error!"); }</pre>
---	--

- ☛ In this program, the class **MyStrMethods** is inherited by **MyClass**, but **not** by **MyClass2**.
- ☛ Next, notice that **Test** is a **generic class** that is declared like this: **class Test<T> where T : MyStrMethods {**
 - ▶ The **where** clause ensures that any type argument specified for **T** must have **MyStrMethods** as a **base class**.
- ☛ As you can see, the **object** passed to **Test()** is stored in **obj**. Now notice that **Test** declares the method **ShowReverse()**, shown next:
public void ShowReverse(string str){ string revStr = obj.ReverseStr(str); Console.WriteLine(revStr); }
- ☛ This method calls **ReverseStr()** on **obj**, which is a **T object**, and then displays the reversed string. The key point is that the only reason that **ReverseStr()** can be called is because the **base class** constraint requires that any type argument bound to **T** will inherit **MyStrMethods**, which declares **ReverseStr()**. If the **base class constraint** had not been used, the compiler wouldn't know that a method called **ReverseStr()** can be called on an **object** of type **T**.
- ☛ In addition to **enabling access to members** of the **base class**, the **base class constraint** enforces that only **types** that **inherit** the **base class** can be used as **type arguments**. This is why the following two lines are commented-out:
// Test<MyClass2> t3 = new Test<MyClass2>(objC); // Error!
// t3.ShowReverse("Error!");
 - ▶ Because **MyClass2** does not inherit **MyStrMethods**, it can't be used as a **type argument** when constructing a **Test** object.

✖ **Generic method with multiple constraints (stack overflow):** A generic class **Test** which has two type parameters **T, V** then its constraint for two different base would be:

```
public Test<T, V> where T : Tbase where V : Vbase{ }
```

- ☛ **multiple parameters, multiple constraints to a single parameter:** You can apply constraints to multiple parameters, and multiple constraints to a single parameter, as shown in the example on right side:

```
class Base { }
class Test<T, U>
    where U : struct
    where T : Base, new()
{ } /* Microsoft */
```

☐ **NAKED type constraint(Use a Constraint to Establish a Relationship Between Two Type Parameters):** There is a variation of the **base class constraint** that allows you to establish a relationship between **two type parameters**. Eg. consider: **class MyGenClass<T, V> where V : T { }**

- ☛ This **constraint** requires that the **type argument** passed to **T** must be a **base class** of the **type argument** passed to **V**. In this declaration, the **where** clause tells the **compiler** that the **type argument** bound to **V** must be **identical** to or **inherit** from the **type argument** bound to **T**. If this relationship is not present, a **compile-time error** will result. A constraint that uses a type parameter such as that just shown is called a **naked type constraint**. For example:

<pre>class A { /*...*/ } class B : A { /*...*/ } class MyGenClass<T, V> where V : T { /*...*/ } // Here, V must inherit T.</pre>	<pre>class NakedConstraintDemo { static void Main() { MyGenClass<A, B> x = new MyGenClass<A, B>(); // This declaration is OK because B inherits A. MyGenClass<B, A> y = new MyGenClass<B, A>(); // Results error since, A does not inherit B.*/ }</pre>
▶ Notice that class B inherits class A , hence	MyGenClass<A, B> x = new MyGenClass<A, B>(); is legal.
▶ However, the second declaration:	// MyGenClass<B, A> y = new MyGenClass<B, A>(); is illegal because A does not inherit B.

❑ **Interface Constraint:** The **interface constraint** enables you to specify an **interface** that a **type argument must implement**. The interface constraint serves the same two purposes as the **base class constraint**. The interface constraint uses this form of the where clause: **where T : interface-name**

➤ T is the name of the **type parameter**, and **interface-name** is the **name of the interface**. **More than one interface** can be specified by using a **comma-separated list**.

➤ If a **constraint** includes **both** a **base class** and **interface**, then the **base class** must be listed **first**. For example,

<pre> interface IMyInterface { void Start(); void Stop(); } class MyClass : IMyInterface { public void Start() { Console.WriteLine("Starting..."); } public void Stop() { Console.WriteLine("Stopping..."); } } class MyClass2 { } // Class MyClass2 does not implement IMyInterface. /* Because of the interface constraint, all type arguments specified for Test must implement IMyInterface */ class Test<T> where T : IMyInterface { T obj; public Test(T o) { obj = o; } public void Activate() { // OK to call Start() and Stop(); since they're declared by IMyInterface. obj.Start(); obj.Stop(); } } </pre>	<pre> class InterfaceConstraintDemo { static void Main() { MyClass objA = new MyClass(); MyClass2 objB = new MyClass2(); /* The following is valid because MyClass implements IMyInterface. */ Test<MyClass> t1 = new Test<MyClass>(objA); t1.Activate(); /* The following is invalid because MyClass2 DOES NOT implement IMyInterface. */ Test<MyClass2> t2 = new Test<MyClass2>(objB); t2.Activate(); } } </pre>
--	--

○ Notice, **MyClass**, implements **IMyInterface**. The second class, **MyClass2**, does not.

○ The **generic class Test** uses an **interface constraint** to require that **T** implement the interface **IMyInterface**. Also notice that an object of type **T** is passed to **Test's constructor** and stored in **obj**. **Test** defines a method called **Activate()**, which uses **obj** to call the **Start()** and **Stop()** methods declared by **IMyInterface**.

○ Because of the **interface constraint**, all **type arguments** specified for **Test** must implement **IMyInterface**.

○ **Test<MyClass> t1 = new Test<MyClass>(objA);** is **valid** because **MyClass** implements **IMyInterface**, satisfies the **interface constraint**.

○ **Test<MyClass2> t2 = new Test<MyClass2>(objB);** is **invalid** because **MyClass2** DOES NOT implement **IMyInterface**, doesn't satisfy the **interface constraint**.

❑ **new() Constructor Constraint:** The **new()** **constructor constraint** enables you to **instantiate an object of a generic type**. Normally, you **cannot create an instance** of a **generic type parameter**. However, the **new()** **constraint** changes this because it requires that a **type argument** supply a **parameterless constructor**. (This **parameterless constructor** can be the default constructor provided automatically when no explicit constructors are declared.)

☞ With the **new()** **constraint** in place, you can invoke the **parameterless constructor** to create an object of the **generic type**. For example:

<pre> class MyClass { public MyClass() { Console.WriteLine("Creating a MyClass instance."); /*...*/ } } class Test<T> where T : new() { T obj; public Test() { Console.WriteLine("Creating a Test instance."); // following works because of the new() constraint. obj = new T(); /* create a T object */ } } </pre>	<pre> class ConsConstraintDemo { static void Main() { Test<MyClass> t = new Test<MyClass>(); } } </pre> <p>OUTPUT: Creating a Test instance. Creating a MyClass instance.</p>
---	--

☞ First, notice the declaration of the **Test** class, shown here: **class Test<T> where T : new()** {

➤ Because of the **new()** **constraint**, any **type argument** must supply a **parameterless constructor**, which can be the default constructor or one that you create.

☞ Next, examine the **Test** **constructor**, shown here:

```

public Test() { Console.WriteLine("Creating a Test instance.");
    obj = new T(); /* create a T object */ }

```

➡ A **new object** of type **T** is created, and a reference to it is assigned to **obj**. This statement is valid only because the **new()** **constraint** ensures that a **constructor** will be available. Without the **new()** **constraint**, an error will be reported.

☞ In **Main()**, an object of type **Test** is instantiated, as:

```

Test<MyClass> x = new Test<MyClass>();

```

Notice that the **type argument** is **MyClass** and that **MyClass** defines a **parameterless constructor**. Thus, it is valid for use as a **type argument** for **Test**.

➤ Remember, it was **not necessary** for **MyClass** to explicitly declare a **parameterless constructor**. Its **default constructor** would also **satisfy the constraint**.

➤ But, if a **class** needs other **constructors** in addition to a **parameterless** one, then it would be necessary to also **explicitly declare a parameterless version**.

👉 Here are **three** important

points about using new():

👉 First, it **can** be used with **other constraints**, but it **must** be the **last constraint** in the **list**.

👉 Second, **new()** allows you to **construct an object** using only the **parameterless constructor**, even when other **constructors** are available. In other words, it is **not permissible to pass arguments** to the **constructor** of a **type parameter**.

👉 Third, you cannot use **new()** in **conjunction** with a **value type constraint**, described next.

❑ **The Reference Type Value Type Constraints:** These two constraints enable you to **indicate** that a **type argument** must be **either a reference type** or a **value type**. These are useful in the few cases in which the difference between **reference** and **value types** is important to **generic code**.

☞ **General form of the reference type constraint:** **where T : class** In this form of the **where** clause, the keyword **class** specifies that **T** must be a **reference type**.

➤ Thus, an attempt to use a **value type**, such as **int** or **bool**, for **T** will result in a **compilation error**.

☞ **General form of the value type constraint:** **where T : struct** In this case, the keyword **struct** specifies that **T** must be a **value type**.

➤ Recall that **structures** are **value types**. Thus, an attempt to use a **reference type**, such as **string**, for **T** results a **compilation error**.

☞ In both cases, when **additional constraints** are present, **class** or **struct** must be the **first constraint** in the **list**.

Example that demonstrates the reference type constraint.	Example that demonstrate a value type constraint.
<pre> using System; class MyClass { /*...*/ } class Test<T> where T : class { // Use a reference constraint. T obj; /* The following statement is legal only because T is guaranteed to be a reference type, which can be assigned the value null. */ public Test() { obj = null; } /*...*/ } class ClassConstraintDemo { static void Main() { // The following is OK because MyClass is a class. Test<MyClass> x = new Test<MyClass>(); // The next line is in error because int is a value type. /* Test<int> y = new Test<int>(); */ } } </pre>	<pre> using System; struct MyStruct { /*...*/ } class MyClass { /*...*/ } class Test<T> where T : struct { // Use a value-type constraint. T obj; public Test(T x) { obj = x; } /*...*/ } class ValueConstraintDemo { static void Main() { // Both of these declarations are legal. Test<MyStruct> x = new Test<MyStruct>(new MyStruct()); Test<int> y = new Test<int>(10); // Following declaration is illegal. CLASS or REFERENCE type. /* Test<MyClass> z = new Test<MyClass>(new MyClass()); */ } } </pre>
<p>🕒 class Test<T> where T : class { The class constraint requires that any type argument for T be a reference type. In this program, this is necessary because of what occurs inside the Test constructor:</p> <pre> public Test() { obj = null; } </pre> <p>Here, obj (which is of type T) is assigned the value null. This assignment is valid only for reference types.</p>	<p>🕒 class Test<T> where T : struct { Because T of Test now has the struct constraint, T can be bound to only value type arguments. This means that Test<MyStruct> and Test<int> are valid, but Test<MyClass> is results in a compilr-time error.</p>

<p>☹ As a general rule, you <i>cannot assign null</i> to a value type. (The exception to this rule is the nullable type, which is a special structure type that encapsulates a value type and allows the value null. See Chapter 12). i.e, without the constraint, the <i>assignment</i> would not have been valid and the <i>compile</i> would have failed.</p> <p>➤ This is one case in which the difference between value types and reference types might be important to a generic routine.</p>	<p>☹ The value type constraint is the <i>complement</i> of the reference type constraint. It simply ensures that any type argument is a value type, including a struct or an enum. (In this context, a nullable type is not considered a value type.)</p>
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C#_9.4 Multiple Constraints: Details (Recall previous section "Stack overflow" point)

❑ **One type parameter and multiple constraints:** There can be *more than one constraint* associated with a **(one) parameter**. When this is the case, use a **comma-separated list of constraints**.

- ☛ In this list, the **first constraint** must be **class** or **struct** (if present), or the **base** class (if one is specified).
 - ☹ It is **illegal** to specify **both** a **class** or "**struct**" constraint and a **base** class "constraint".
- ☛ Next must be any **interface** constraints. The **new()** constraint must be last.

✎ **For example**, this is a valid declaration: **class** MyGenClass<T> **where** T : **MyClass**, **IMyInterface**, **new()** { // ...

❑ In this case, **T** must be replaced by a **type argument** that *inherits* **MyClass**, *implements* **IMyInterface**, and has a **parameterless constructor**.

❑ **multiple type parameters with different constraints:** When using two or more type parameters, you can specify a constraint for each parameter by using a separate where clause.

✎ For example, following uses **multiple where clauses**.

using System; class TwoWheres<T, V> where T : class where V : struct { // Two Wheres has two type arguments T obj; V obj2; public TwoWheres(T t, V v){ obj1 = t; obj2 = v; } }	class TwoWheresDemo { static void Main() { // This is OK because string is a class and int is a value type. TwoWheres<string, int> obj = new TwoWheres<string, int>("test", 11); // The following is wrong because bool is not a reference type. TwoWheres<bool, int> obj2 = new TwoWheres<bool, int>(true, 11); /* } }
---	---

❑ In this example, TwoWheres takes two type arguments and both have a where clause. Pay special attention to its declaration:

class TwoWheres<T, V> **where** T : **class** **where** V : **struct** {

☞ Notice, the only thing that **separates** the **first where** from the second is **whitespace** "no comma or semicolon". No other punctuation is required or valid.

C#_9.5 DEFAULT VALUE of a Type Parameter

When writing **generic** code, there will be times when the difference between **value types** and **parameter types** is an **issue**. One such situation occurs when you want to give a variable of a **type parameter** a **default value**.

☐ For **reference types**, the default value is **null**. For **non-struct** value types, the default value is **0**. The default value for a **struct** is an **object of that struct** with *all fields set to their defaults*.

☞ Thus, trouble occurs if you want to give a **variable** of a **type parameter** a **default value**. What value would you use: **null**, **0**, or *something else*? For example, given a **generic** class called **Test** declared like this: **class** Test<T> { T obj; /* */

To give **obj** a default value, we can use: **obj = null;** /* works only for reference types */ or **obj = 0;** /* works only for numeric types and enums, but not structs */

☞ **default(type):** The solution to this problem is to use **another form of default**, shown here: **default(T)** This is the **operator form** of **default**, and it produces a **default value** of the **specified type**, no matter what type is used. Thus, continuing with the example, to assign **obj** a default value of type **T**, you would use this statement: **obj = default(T);**

This will work for **all type arguments**, whether they are **value** or **reference** types. Here is a **short program** that demonstrates **default**:

using System; class MyClass { /* ... */ } // Construct a default value of T. class Test<T> { public T obj; public Test() { // obj = null; // can't use // This statement will work only for reference types. // obj = 0; // can't use // This statement will work only for numeric value types. // Following statement works for both reference and value types. obj = default (T); /* Create a default value for any T.*/ } }	class DefaultDemo { static void Main() { // Construct Test using a reference type. Test<MyClass> x = new Test<MyClass>(); if (x.obj == null) Console.WriteLine("x.obj is null."); // Construct Test using a value type. Test<int> y = new Test<int>(); if (y.obj == 0) Console.WriteLine("y.obj is 0."); } } OUTPUT: x.obj is null. y.obj is 0.
---	--

NOTE: **Short generic declaration:** Implicitly typed variable feature can shorten a long declaration that includes an **initializer**. Since, in a **var** declaration, the **type** of the variable is determined by the type of the **initializer**. Therefore, a declaration such as

SomeClass<String, bool> someObj = **new** SomeClass<string, bool>("testing", false); can be more compactly written as
var someObj = **new** SomeClass<string, bool>("testing", false);

Although the use of **var** does shorten the code here, its primary use is with **anonymous types**, which are described in Chapter 12. Also, because **implicitly typed variables** are new to C#, it's not clear (at the time of this writing) that the preceding use of **var** will be considered a "best practice" by all C# practitioners.

C#_9.6 Generic Structures

You can create a **structure** that takes **type parameters**. The syntax for a **generic structure** is the same as for **generic classes**. For example, in the following program, the **KeyValue structure**, which stores key/value pairs, is generic:

using System; struct KeyValue<TKey, TValue> { // This structure is generic. public TKey key; public TValue val; public KeyValue(TKey a, TValue b) { key = a; val = b; } }	class GenStructDemo { static void Main() { KeyValue<string, int> kv = new KeyValue<string, int>("Tom", 20); KeyValue<string, bool> kv2 = new KeyValue<string, bool>("Fan On", false); Console.WriteLine(kv.key + " is " + kv.val + " years old."); Console.WriteLine(kv2.key + " is " + kv2.val); } }
--	---

❑ **Generic structure with constraints:** Like **generic classes**, **generic structures** can have constraints. Eg: Following **KeyValue** restricts **TValue** to **value types**:

struct KeyValue<TKey, TValue> **where** TValue : **struct** { /* . . . */

C#_9.7 Generic Methods

As the preceding examples have shown, **methods** inside a **generic class** can make use of a class' type parameter and are, therefore, **automatically generic** relative to the **type parameter**. However, it is possible to **declare a generic method** that uses one or more **type parameters** of its *own*. Furthermore, it is possible to create a **generic method** that is enclosed within a **nongeneric class**. Here is the **general form** of a **generic method**:

ret-type meth-name<type-parameter-list>(param-list) { //...

In all cases, **type-parameter-list** is a **comma-separated list** of **type parameters**. Notice that for a **generic method**, the type parameter list **follows** the **method name**.

The following program declares a **non-generic class** called **ArrayUtils** and a **static generic method** within that class called **CopyInsert()**. The **CopyInsert()** method copies the contents of one array to another, inserting a new element at a specified location in the process. It can be used with any type of array.

```
using System;
class ArrayUtils { // this is not a generic class.
    public static bool CopyInsert<T>(T e, int idx, T[] src, T[] target) { } // This is a generic method.
    /*...*/
}

class GenMethDemo { static void Main() {
    int[] nums = { 1, 2, 3 };
    ArrayUtils.CopyInsert(99, 2, nums, nums2); // Operate on an int array

    // Now, use CopyInsert on an array of strings.
    string[] strs = { "Generics", "are", "powerful." };
    ArrayUtils.CopyInsert("in C#", 1, strs, strs2); // Insert into a string array.

    // This call is invalid because the first argument is of type double, and the third and fourth arguments have element types of int.
    // ArrayUtils.CopyInsert(0.01, 2, nums, nums2);
}}
```

First, notice how **CopyInsert()** generic method is declared by this line:

```
public static bool CopyInsert<T>(T e, int idx, T[] src, T[] target) {
```

- ▶ The **type parameters** are declared after the **method name**, but before the **parameter list**.
- ▶ Also notice that **CopyInsert()** is **static**, enabling it to be called **independently** of any object. Understand, though, that **generic methods** can be either **static** or **non-static**. There is no restriction in this regard.

🔑 **type inference:** Now, notice how **CopyInsert()** is called within **Main()** by use of the normal call syntax, without the need to specify type arguments. This is because the **types** of the **type arguments** are **automatically discerned** based on the **type of data** used to call **CopyInsert()**. Based on this information, the **type of T** is **adjusted accordingly**. This process is called **type inference**.

- ▶ In the first call, **ArrayUtils.CopyInsert(99, 2, nums, nums2);** the **type of T** becomes **int** because **99** is an **int**, and the element types of **nums** and **nums2** are **int**.
- ▶ In the second call, **ArrayUtils.CopyInsert("in C#", 1, strs, strs2);** **string** types are used, and **T** is replaced by **string**.

Now, notice the commented-out code, shown here:

```
// ArrayUtils.CopyInsert(0.01, 2, nums, nums2);
```

- ▶ If you remove the comment symbols, you will receive a **compile-time error**. The reason is that the **type of the first argument** is **double**, but the **element types of nums and nums2** are **int**.
- ▶ All **three types** must be substituted for the **same type parameter, T**. Otherwise a **type-mismatch** occurs, which results in a **compile-time error**. It ensures **type safety** for generic methods.

❑ **Using Explicit Type Arguments to Call a Generic Method:** Although **implicit type inference** is adequate for most invocations of a **generic method**, it is possible to **explicitly** specify the **type argument**. To do so, specify the **type argument after the method name** when calling the **method**. Eg: here **CopyInsert()** is explicitly specified as type **string**: **ArrayUtils.CopyInsert<string>("in C#", 1, strs, strs2);**

🔑 You will need to **explicitly specify** the **type** when the **compiler cannot infer** the type of a **type parameter**.

❑ **Using a Constraint with a Generic Method:** You can add **constraints** to the **type arguments** of a **generic method** by **specifying them after the parameter list**. For example, the following version of **CopyInsert()** will work only with **reference types**:

```
public static bool CopyInsert<T>(T e, int idx, T[] src, T[] target) where T : class {
```

❑ **compiler type inference issue with generic method:** There are cases in which the **compiler cannot infer** the **type** to use for a **type parameter** when a **generic method** is called and the **type** will need to be **explicitly specified**. Among others, this situation can occur when a **generic method has no parameters**. For example, consider this **generic method**: **class SomeClass { public static T SomeMeth<T>() where T: new() { return new T(); } /*...*/ }**

- 🔑 When this method is invoked, there are **no arguments** from which the **type of T** can be **inferred**. The **return type of T** is not **sufficient** for the **inference** to take place. Therefore, this won't work: **someObj = SomeClass.SomeMeth(); // won't work**
- 🔑 Instead, it must be **invoked** with an **explicit type** specified. For example: **someObj = SomeClass.SomeMeth<MyClass>(); // fixed**

C#_9.8 Generic Delegates

Like **methods**, **delegates** can also be **generic**. To declare a **generic delegate**, use this **general form**:

```
delegate ret-type delegate-name<type-parameter-list>(arg-list);
```

★ Notice the **placement** of the **type parameter list**. It **immediately follows** the delegate's **name**.

🔑 The following program demonstrates a **generic delegate** called **Invert** that has one **type parameter** called **T**. It returns **type T** and takes an argument of **type T**.

<pre>delegate T Invert<T>(T v); // Declare a generic delegate. class GenDelegateDemo { // Return the reciprocal of a double. static double Recip(double v) { return 1 / v; } // Reverse a string and return the result. static string ReverseStr(string str) { string result = ""; foreach(char ch in str) result = ch + result; return result; } }</pre>	<pre>static void Main() { // Construct two Invert delegates. Invert<double> invDel = Recip; Invert<string> invDel2 = ReverseStr; Console.WriteLine("The reciprocal of 4 is " + invDel(4.0)); Console.WriteLine(); Console.WriteLine("Reversed ABCDEFG: " + invDel2("ABCDEFGF")); }</pre>
--	---

🔑 Don't get crazy to figure out how the **reversing** works. The technique is simple- it is just the **order of char** and **result** in the **assignment expression**: **result = ch + result;** **+A = A, B + A = BA, C + BA = CBA, D + CBA = DCBA, ...** If we use **result = result + ch;** no reversing will occur. **A + = A, A + B = AB, AB + C = ABC, ABC + D = ABCD, ...**

🔑 **delegate T Invert<T>(T v);** Notice that **T** can be used as the **return type** even though the **type parameter T** is specified after the name **Invert**.

🔑 Inside **Main()**, a **delegate** called **invDel** is **instantiated** and assigned a **reference** to **Recip()**. **Invert<double> invDel = Recip;**

- ▶ Because **Recip()** takes a **double** argument and returns a **double** value, **Recip()** is compatible with a **double instance** of **Invert**.

🔑 Similarly, the **delegate** called **invDel2** is created and assigned a reference to **ReverseStr()**. **Invert<string> invDel2 = ReverseStr;**

- ▶ Because **ReverseStr()** takes a **string** argument and returns a **string** result, it is compatible with the **string version** of **Invert**.

💀 Because of the **type-safety inherent** in **generics**, you **cannot assign incompatible methods to delegates**. For example, assuming the preceding program, this statement would be in error: **Invert<int> invDel = ReverseStr; // Error!**

🔑* Because **ReverseStr()** takes a **string** argument and returns a **string** result, it cannot be assigned to an **int** version of **Invert**.

C#_9.9 Generic Interfaces

Generic interfaces are specified just like **generic classes**. Here is an example. It creates a **generic interface** called **ITwoDCoord** that defines methods that **get** and **set x** and **y** coordinate values. Therefore, any class that implements this interface will support **x** and **y coordinates**. The **data type** of the **coordinates** is specified by a **type parameter**. **ITwoDCoord** is then implemented by **two different classes**.

<pre>// Demonstrate a generic interface. using System; /* This interface is generic. It defines methods that support two- dimensional coordinates */ public interface ITwoDCoord<T> { T GetX(); void SetX(T x); T GetY(); void SetY(T y); }</pre>	<pre>class XYCoord<T> : ITwoDCoord<T> { T X; T Y; // A class that encapsulates two-dimensional coordinates. public XYCoord(T x, T y) { X = x; Y = y; } public T GetX() { return X; } public void SetX(T x) { X = x; } public T GetY() { return Y; } public void SetY(T y) { Y = y; } }</pre>
<pre>// A class that encapsulates three-dimensional coordinates. class XYZCoord<T> : ITwoDCoord<T> { T X; T Y; T Z; public XYZCoord(T x, T y, T z) { X = x; Y = y; Z = z; } public T GetX() { return X; } public void SetX(T x) { X = x; } public T GetY() { return Y; } public void SetY(T y) { Y = y; } public T GetZ() { return Z; } public void SetZ(T z) { Z = z; } }</pre>	<pre>class GenInterfaceDemo { /* A generic method that can display the X,Y coordinates associated with any object that implements the generic interface ITwoDCoord. */ static void ShowXY<T>(ITwoDCoord<T> xy) { Console.WriteLine(xy.GetX() + ", " + xy.GetY()); } static void Main() { XYCoord<int> xyObj = new XYCoord<int>(10, 20); Console.WriteLine("The X,Y values in xyObj: "); ShowXY(xyObj); XYZCoord<double> xyzObj = new XYZCoord<double>(-1.1, 2.2, 3.1416); Console.WriteLine("The X,Y component of xyzObj: "); ShowXY(xyzObj); } }</pre>

☞ Notice how **ITwoDCoord** is declared: `public interface ITwoDCoord<T> {` a **generic interface** uses a syntax similar to that of a **generic class**.

☞ Notice how **XYCoord**, which implements **ITwoDCoord**, is declared: `class XYCoord<T> : ITwoDCoord<T> {`

➤ The **type parameter T** is specified by **XYCoord** and is also specified in **ITwoDCoord**.

✳ **IMPORTANT NOTE:** A class that implements a generic version of a generic interface must, itself, be generic. For example, this declaration would be **illegal** because **T** is not defined: `class XYCoord : ITwoDCoord<T> { // Wrong!`

☞ The **type parameter T** required by **ITwoDCoord** must be specified by the **implementing class**, which is **XYCoord** in this case. Otherwise, there is no way for the **interface** to receive the **type argument**.

☞ In **GenInterfaceDemo**, a generic method called **ShowXY()** is defined. It displays the **X, Y** coordinates of the **object** that it is passed. Notice that the **type** of its **parameter** is **ITwoDCoord**. This means that it can **operate** on any **object** that implements the **ITwoDCoord** **interface**. In this case, it means that objects of type **XYCoord** and **XYZCoord** can be used as **arguments**. This fact is illustrated by **Main()**.

□ **Generic interface with constraints:** A **type parameter** for a **generic interface** can have **constraints** in the same way as it can for a **generic class**. For example, this version of **ITwoDCoord** restricts its use to value types: `public interface ITwoDCoord<T> where T : struct {`

☞ When this version is implemented, the **implementing class** must also specify the **same constraint** for **T**, as shown here:

```
class XYCoord<T> : ITwoDCoord<T> where T : struct {
```

Because of the **value type constraint**, this version of **XYCoord** cannot be used on **class types**, for example. Thus, the following declaration would be **disallowed**:

```
XYCoord<string> xyObj = new XYCoord<string>("10", "20");// Now, this won't work.
```

➤ Because **string** is not a **value type**, its use with **XYCoord** is illegal.

□ Although a class that implements a generic version of a generic interface must, itself, be **generic**, as explained earlier, a **non-generic class** can implement a specific version of a **generic interface**. For example, here, **XYCoordInt** explicitly implements **ITwoDCoord<int>** :

<pre>class XYCoordInt : ITwoDCoord<int> { int X; int Y; public XYCoordInt(int x, int y) { X = x; Y = y; } public int GetX() { return X; } public void SetX(int x) { X = x; } public int GetY() { return Y; } public void SetY(int y) { Y = y; } }</pre>	<p>☞ Notice that ITwoDCoord is specified with an explicit int type. Therefore, XYCoordInt does not need to take a type argument because it does not pass it along to ITwoDCoord.</p> <p>☞ Although a property declaration cannot, itself, specify a type parameter, a property declared in a generic class can use a type parameter that is declared by the generic class. Therefore, the methods GetX(), GetY(), and so on in the preceding example can be made into properties that use the type parameter T.</p>
---	--

C#_9.10 Comparing two type parameters using the == or != operators

If the **type parameter** specifies a **reference** or a **base class constraint**, then **==** and **!=** are **allowed**, but they **only test for reference equality**. For example, this method will not compile:

```
public static bool SameValue<T>(T a, T b) {
    if(a == b) return true; // Won't work
    return false; }
```

Because **T** is a **generic type**, the **compiler** has no way to know precisely how two objects should be compared for **equality**. Should a bitwise comparison be done? Should only certain fields be compared? Should reference equality be used? The compiler has no way to answer these questions. At first glance, this seems to be a serious problem. Fortunately, it isn't because C# provides a mechanism by which you can determine if two instances of a **type parameter** are the same.

□ **IComparable:** To enable two objects of a **generic type parameter** to be compared, use the **CompareTo()** method defined by one of the standard interfaces: **IComparable**.

☞ This **interface** has both a **generic** and a **non-generic** form. **IComparable** is implemented by all of C#'s **built-in types**, including **int**, **string**, and **double**. It is also easy to **implement for classes** that you create.

☞ The **IComparable** interface defines only the **CompareTo()** method. Its generic form is: `int CompareTo(T obj)`

➤ It compares the **invoking object** to **obj**. It returns **zero** if the two objects are **equal**, a **positive** value if the **invoking object** is **greater** than **obj**, and a **negative** value if the **invoking object** is **less** than **obj**.

➤ To use **CompareTo()**, you must specify a **constraint** that requires every **type argument** to implement the **IComparable** interface. Then, when you need to compare two objects of the **type parameter**, simply call **CompareTo()**. For example, here is a corrected version of **SameValue()**:

```
// Require IComparable interface.
public static bool SameValue<T>(T a, T b) where T : IComparable<T> {
    if(a.CompareTo(b) == 0) return true; // fixed
    return false; }
```

❖ Because the **interface constraint** requires that **T** implement **IComparable<T>**, the **CompareTo()** method can be used to **determine equality**. Of course, this means that the **only instances of classes that implement IComparable<T>** can be passed to **SameValue()**.