

# Polymorphism

# Introduction

- Compare these function types
- The ML function is more flexible, since it can be applied to any pair of the same (equality-testable) type

```
C:      int f(char a, char b) {  
        return a==b;  
      }
```

```
ML:  - fun f(a, b) = (a = b) ;  
      val f = fn : 'a * 'a -> bool
```

# Polymorphism

- Functions with that extra flexibility are called *polymorphic*
- A difficult word to define:
  - Applies to a wide variety of language features
  - Most languages have at least a little
  - We will examine four major examples, then return to the problem of finding a definition that covers them

# Outline

- Overloading
- Parameter coercion
- Parametric polymorphism
- Subtype polymorphism
- Definitions and classifications

# Overloading

- An *overloaded* function name or operator is one that has at least two definitions, all of different types
- Many languages have overloaded operators
- Some also allow the programmer to define new overloaded function names and operators

# Predefined Overloaded Operators

ML:    **val x = 1 + 2;**  
      **val y = 1.0 + 2.0;**

Pascal:    **a := 1 + 2;**  
          **b := 1.0 + 2.0;**  
          **c := "hello " + "there";**  
          **d := ['a'..'d'] + ['f']**

# Adding to Overloaded Operators

- Some languages, like C++, allow additional meanings to be defined for operators

```
class complex {  
    double rp, ip; // real part, imaginary part  
public:  
    complex(double r, double i) {rp=r; ip=i;}  
    friend complex operator+(complex, complex);  
    friend complex operator*(complex, complex);  
};  
  
void f(complex a, complex b, complex c) {  
    complex d = a + b * c;  
    ...  
}
```

# Operator Overloading In C++

- C++ allows virtually all operators to be overloaded, including:
  - the usual operators (+, -, \*, /, %, ^, &, |, ~, !, =, <, >, +=, -=, /=, \*=, /=, %=, ^=, &=, |=, <<, >>, >>=, <<=, ==, !=, <=, >=, &&, ||, ++, --, -->\*, ,)
  - dereferencing (\*p and p->x)
  - subscripting (a[i])
  - function call (f(a,b,c))
  - allocation and deallocation (new and delete)



# Defining Overloaded Functions

- Some languages, like C++, permit the programmer to overload function names

```
int square(int x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

```
double square(double x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

# To Eliminate Overloading

```
int square(int x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

square\_i

```
double square(double x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

square\_d

```
void f() {  
    int a = square(3);  
    double b = square(3.0);  
}
```

You could rename  
each overloaded  
definition uniquely...

# How To Eliminate Overloading

```
int square_i(int x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

```
double square_d(double x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

```
void f() {  
    int a = square_i(3);  
    double b = square_d(3.0);  
}
```

Then rename each  
reference properly  
(depending on the  
parameter types)

# Implementing Overloading

- Compilers usually implement overloading in that same way:
  - Create a set of monomorphic functions, one for each definition
  - Invent a *mangled* name for each, encoding the type information
  - Have each reference use the appropriate mangled name, depending on the parameter types

# Example: C++ Implementation

```
C++:  int shazam(int a, int b) {return a+b;}  
      double shazam(double a, double b) {return a+b;}
```

```
Assembler:  shazam__Fii:  
             lda $30,-32($30)  
             .frame $15,32,$26,0  
             ...  
            shazam__Fdd:  
             lda $30,-32($30)  
             .frame $15,32,$26,0  
             ...
```

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# Coercion

- A coercion is an implicit type conversion, supplied automatically even if the programmer leaves it out

Explicit type  
conversion in Java:

```
double x;  
x = (double) 2;
```

Coercion in Java:

```
double x;  
x = 2;
```

# Parameter Coercion

- Languages support different coercions in different contexts: assignments, other binary operations, unary operations, parameters...
- When a language supports coercion of parameters on a function call (or of operands when an operator is applied), the resulting function (or operator) is polymorphic



# Example: Java

```
void f(double x) {  
    ...  
}
```

```
f((byte) 1);  
f((short) 2);  
f('a');  
f(3);  
f(4L);  
f(5.6F);
```

This **f** can be called with any type of parameter Java is willing to coerce to type **double**

# Defining Coercions

- Language definitions often take many pages to define exactly which coercions are performed
- Some languages, especially some older languages like Algol 68 and PL/I, have very extensive powers of coercion
- Some, like ML, have none
- Most, like Java, are somewhere in the middle

# Example: Java

Some operators apply *unary numeric promotion* to a single operand, which must produce a value of a numeric type:

If the operand is of compile-time type **Byte**, **Short**, **Character**, or **Integer** it is subjected to unboxing conversion. The result is then promoted to a value of type **int** by a widening conversion or an identity conversion. Otherwise, if the operand is of compile-time type **Long**, **Float**, or **Double** it is subjected to unboxing conversion. Otherwise, if the operand is of compile-time type **byte**, **short**, or **char**, unary numeric promotion promotes it to a value of type **int** by a widening conversion. Otherwise, a unary numeric operand remains as is and is not converted. In any case, value set conversion is then applied.

Unary numeric promotion is performed on expressions in the following situations:

- Each dimension expression in an array creation expression
- The index expression in an array access expression
- The operand of a unary plus operator **+**
- The operand of a unary minus operator **-**
- The operand of a bitwise complement operator **~**
- Each operand, separately, of a shift operator **>>**, **>>>**, or **<<**; therefore a long shift distance (right operand) does not promote the value being shifted (left operand) to **long**...

*The Java Language Specification, Third Edition*  
James Gosling, Bill Joy, Guy Steele, and Gilad Bracha

# Coercion and Overloading: Tricky Interactions

- There are potentially tricky interactions between overloading and coercion
  - Overloading uses the types to choose the definition
  - Coercion uses the definition to choose a type conversion

# Example

- Suppose that, like C++, a language is willing to coerce **char** to **int** or to **double**
- Which **square** gets called for **square('a')** ?

```
int square(int x) {  
    return x*x;  
}  
double square(double x) {  
    return x*x;  
}
```

# Example

- Suppose that, like C++, a language is willing to coerce **char** to **int**
- Which **f** gets called for **f('a', 'b')** ?

```
void f(int x, char y) {  
    ...  
}  
void f(char x, int y) {  
    ...  
}
```

# Outline

- Overloading
- Parameter coercion
- **Parametric polymorphism**
- Subtype polymorphism
- Definitions and classifications

# Parametric Polymorphism

- A function exhibits *parametric polymorphism* if it has a type that contains one or more type variables
- A type with type variables is a *polytype*
- Found in languages including ML, C++, Ada, and Java



# Example: C++ Function Templates

```
template<class X> X max(X a, X b) {  
    return a>b ? a : b;  
}
```

```
void g(int a, int b, char c, char d) {  
    int m1 = max(a,b);  
    char m2 = max(c,d);  
}
```

*Note that  $\>$  can be overloaded, so **X** is not limited to types for which  $\>$  is predefined.*

# Example: ML Functions

```
- fun identity x = x;  
val identity = fn : 'a -> 'a  
- identity 3;  
val it = 3 : int  
- identity "hello";  
val it = "hello" : string  
- fun reverse x =  
=   if null x then nil  
=   else (reverse (tl x)) @ [(hd x)];  
val reverse = fn : 'a list -> 'a list
```

# Implementing Parametric Polymorphism

- One extreme: many copies
  - Create a set of monomorphic implementations, one for each type parameter the compiler sees
    - May create many similar copies of the code
    - Each one can be optimized for individual types
- The other extreme: one copy
  - Create one implementation, and use it for all
    - True universal polymorphism: only one copy
    - Can't be optimized for individual types
- Many variations in between

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# Subtype Polymorphism

- A function or operator exhibits *subtype polymorphism* if one or more of its parameter types have subtypes
- Important source of polymorphism in languages with a rich structure of subtypes
- Especially object-oriented languages: we'll see more when we look at Java

# Example: Pascal

type

```
Day = (Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun);  
Weekday = Mon..Fri;
```

```
function nextDay(D: Day): Day;
```

```
begin
```

```
    if D=Sun then nextDay:=Mon else nextDay:=D+1
```

```
end;
```

```
procedure p(D: Day; W: Weekday);
```

```
begin
```

```
    D := nextDay(D);
```

```
    D := nextDay(W)
```

```
end;
```

*Subtype polymorphism:*

**nextDay** can be called with  
a subtype parameter

# Example: Java

```
class Car {  
    void brake() { ... }  
}  
  
class ManualCar extends Car  
{  
    void clutch() { ... }  
}  
  
void g(Car z) {  
    z.brake();  
}  
  
void f(Car x, ManualCar y) {  
    g(x);  
    g(y);  
}
```

*A subtype of **Car** is **ManualCar***

*Function **g** has an unlimited number of types—one for every class we define that is a subtype of **Car***

*That's subtype polymorphism*

# More Later

- We'll see more about subtype polymorphism when we look at object-oriented languages



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- Subtype polymorphism
- **Definitions and classifications**

# Polymorphism

- We have seen four kinds of polymorphic functions
- There are many other uses of *polymorphic*:
  - Polymorphic variables, classes, packages, languages
  - Another name for runtime method dispatch: when  $\mathbf{x}.\mathbf{f}()$  may call different methods depending on the runtime class of the object  $\mathbf{x}$
  - Used in many other sciences
- No definition covers all these uses, except the basic Greek: *many forms*
- Here are definitions that cover our four...

# Definitions For Our Four

- A function or operator is *polymorphic* if it has at least two possible types
  - It exhibits *ad hoc polymorphism* if it has at least two but only finitely many possible types
  - It exhibits *universal polymorphism* if it has infinitely many possible types

# Overloading

- Ad hoc polymorphism
- Each different type requires a separate definition
- Only finitely many in a finite program

# Parameter Coercion

- Ad hoc polymorphism
- As long as there are only finitely many different types can be coerced to a given parameter type

# Parametric Polymorphism

- Universal polymorphism
- As long as the universe over which type variables are instantiated is infinite

# Subtype Polymorphism

- Universal
- As long as there is no limit to the number of different subtypes that can be declared for a given type
- True for all class-based object-oriented languages, like Java