

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Generics and Polymorphism

Polymorphism

- Definition
 - Feature that allows values of *different* data types to be handled using a uniform interface
- Applicable to
 - Functions
 - Same function applied to different data types
 - Example

```
let hd = function (h::_) -> h
```
 - Data types
 - Same data type can contain different data types
 - Example

```
type 'a option =  
  None  
  | Some of 'a
```

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Two Kinds of Polymorphism

- Described by Strachey in 1967
- Ad hoc polymorphism
 - Range of types is finite
 - Combinations must be specified in advance
 - Behavior may *differ* based on type of arguments
- Parametric polymorphism
 - Code written without mention of specific type
 - May be transparently used with arbitrary number of types
 - Behavior is the *same* for different types of arguments

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Polymorphism Overview

- Ad-hoc
 - Subtype (for object-oriented languages)
 - Sometimes not considered ad-hoc, but referred to as *subtype polymorphism*
 - Overloading, including operator overloading
- Parametric
 - ML types
 - Also known as generic programming (for object-oriented languages)
 - *Bounded parametric polymorphism* combines subtype and parametric polymorphism

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Subtype Polymorphism

- Subtyping is a kind of polymorphism found in object-oriented programming languages, sometimes called *subtype polymorphism*
 - Allows a method to accept arguments of many types
 - Supported through inheritance
- Any function w/ object as parameter is polymorphic
 - If formal parameter is of class A, argument may be any object from a subclass of A

```
class A { ... }  
class B extends A { ... } // subclass  
void f(A arg) { ... }  
A a= new A();  
B b= new B();  
f(a); // f accepts argument of type A or B  
f(b);
```

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Liskov Substitution Principle

- Let $q(x)$ be a property provable about objects x of type T . Then $q(y)$ should be true for objects y of type S where S is a subtype of T .
 - I.e, if anyone expecting a T can be given an S , then S is a subtype of T .

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Overloading

- Multiple copies of function, with the same function name but different numbers or types of parameters
 - Arguments determine function actually invoked
 - Function is uniquely identified not by function name, but by name and order and number of argument type(s)
- `print(Integer i) → print_Integer(...)`
 - `print(Float f) → print_Float(...)`

```
static void print(Integer arg) { ... }  
static void print(Float arg) { ... }  
print(1); // invokes 1st print  
print(3.14); // invokes 2nd print
```

- It's an example of ad-hoc polymorphism

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Operator Overloading

- Treat operators as functions with special syntax for invocation
 - Behavior different depending on operand type
- Example: `+` in Java

```
1 + 2 // integer addition  
1.0 + 3.14 // float addition  
"Hello" + "world" // string concatenation
```

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Operator Overloading (cont.)

- User-specified operator overloading
 - Supported in languages such as Ruby, C++
 - Makes user data types appear more like native types
- Examples defining a function for the \wedge operator

```
class MyS
  def  $\wedge$ (arg)
    ...
  end
end
```

Ruby

```
class MyS {
  MyS operator $\wedge$ (MyS arg) {
    ...
  }
}
```

C++

Parametric Polymorphism

- We saw *parametric polymorphism* in OCaml
 - It's polymorphism because polymorphic functions can be applied to many different types
- Found in statically typed functional languages such as OCaml, ML, Haskell

- Example:

```
let hd = function (h::_) -> h      'a list -> 'a
```

- Also used in object oriented programming
 - Known as *generic programming*
 - Example: Java, C++

A Stack of Integers

```
class IntegerStack {
  class Entry {
    Integer elt; Entry next;
    Entry(Integer i, Entry n) { elt = i; next = n; }
  }
  Entry theStack;
  void push(Integer i) {
    theStack = new Entry(i, theStack);
  }
  Integer pop() throws EmptyStackException {
    if (theStack == null)
      throw new EmptyStackException();
    else {
      Integer i = theStack.elt;
      theStack = theStack.next;
      return i;
    }
  }
}
```

IntegerStack Client

```
IntegerStack is = new IntegerStack();
Integer i;
is.push(new Integer(3));
is.push(new Integer(4));
i = is.pop();
```

- This is OK, but what if we want other kinds of stacks?
 - Need to make one XStack for each kind of X
 - Problems: code bloat, maintainability nightmare

Polymorphism Using Object

```
class Stack {
    class Entry {
        Object elt; Entry next;
        Entry(Object i, Entry n) { elt = i; next = n; }
    }
    Entry theStack;
    void push(Object i) {
        theStack = new Entry(i, theStack);
    }
    Object pop() throws EmptyStackException {
        if (theStack == null)
            throw new EmptyStackException();
        else {
            Object i = theStack.elt;
            theStack = theStack.next;
            return i;
        }
    }
}
```

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Stack Client

```
Stack is = new Stack();
Integer i;
is.push(new Integer(3));
is.push(new Integer(4));
i = (Integer) is.pop();
```

- Now **Stacks** are reusable
 - **push()** works the same
 - But now **pop()** returns an **Object**
 - Have to downcast back to **Integer**, which is not checked until runtime

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General Problem

- When we move from an X container to an **Object** container
 - Methods that take X's as input parameters are OK
 - If you're allowed to pass Object in, you can pass any X in
 - Methods that return X's as results require downcasts
 - You only get Objects out, which you need to cast down to X
- This is a general feature of subtype polymorphism

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Parametric Polymorphism (for Classes)

- Starting in Java 1.5 we can *parameterize* the **Stack** class by its element type
- Syntax:
 - Class declaration: **class A<T> { ... }**
 - **A** is the class name, as before
 - **T** is a *type variable*, can be used in body of class (...)
 - Client usage declaration: **A<Integer> x;**
 - We *instantiate* **A** with the **Integer** type
 - Or **A<String> y;**

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Parametric Polymorphism for Stack

```
class Stack<ElementType> {
    class Entry {
        ElementType elt; Entry next;
        Entry(ElementType i, Entry n) { elt = i; next = n; }
    }
    Entry theStack;
    void push(ElementType i) {
        theStack = new Entry(i, theStack);
    }
    ElementType pop() throws EmptyStackException {
        if (theStack == null)
            throw new EmptyStackException();
        else {
            ElementType i = theStack.elt;
            theStack = theStack.next;
            return i;
        }
    }
}
```

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Stack<Element> Client

```
Stack<Integer> is = new Stack<Integer>();
Integer i;
is.push(new Integer(3));
is.push(new Integer(4));
i = is.pop();
```

- No downcasts
- Type-checked at compile time
- No need to duplicate Stack code for every usage

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Parametric Polymorphism for Methods

- String is a subtype of Object
 1. static Object id(Object x) { return x; }
 2. static Object id(String x) { return x; }
 3. static String id(Object x) { return x; }
 4. static String id(String x) { return x; }
- Can't pass an Object to 2 or 4
- 3 doesn't type check
- Can pass a String to 1 but you get an Object back

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Parametric Polymorphism, Again

- But id() doesn't care about the type of x
 - It works for *any* type
- So parameterize *the static method*:

```
static <T> T id(T x) { return x; }
Integer i = id(new Integer(3));
```

 - Notice no need to instantiate id; compiler figures out the correct type at usage

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Standard Library, and Java 1.5 onward

- Generics in Java 1.5 came with a replacement for `java.util.*`
 - `class LinkedList<A> { ... }`
 - `class HashMap<A, B> { ... }`
 - `interface Collection<A> { ... }`
- But they didn't change the JVM to add generics-how was that done?

Translation via Erasure

- Replace uses of type variables with `Object`
`class A<T> { ...T x;... }` becomes
`class A { ...Object x;... }`
- Add downcasts wherever necessary
`Integer x = A<Integer>.get();` becomes
`Integer x = (Integer) (A.get());`
- So why did we bother with generics if they're just going to be removed?
 - Because the compiler still did type checking for us
 - We know those casts won't fail at runtime

Limitations of Translation

- Some type information is not available at runtime
 - Recall type variables `T` are rewritten to `Object`
- Disallowed, assuming `T` is type variable
 - `new T()` would translate to `new Object()` (error)
 - `new T[n]` would translate to `new Object[n]` (warning)
 - Some casts/instanceofs that use `T`
 - (Only ones the compiler can figure out are allowed)
- Also produces some oddities
 - `LinkedList<Integer>.class == LinkedList<String>.class`
 - (These are uses of reflection to get the class object)

Using with Legacy Code

- Translation via type erasure
 - `class A <T>` becomes `class A`
- Thus class `A` is available as a "raw type"
 - `class A<T> { ... }`
 - `class B { A x; } // use A as raw type`
- Sometimes useful with legacy code, but...
 - It's a dangerous feature to use, plus unsafe
 - Relies on implementation of generics, not semantics