

# Java Programming 1

## Polymorphism Part 1

# Contents

- ◆ Introduction
- ◆ Examples
- ◆ The Mechanics of Polymorphism
  - Static and Dynamic Binding
  - Casting Objects
- ◆ The `instanceof` Operator
- ◆ Reference
  - Bruce Eckel, Thinking in Java, Chapter 7  
[http://www.faqs.org/docs/think\\_java/TIJ309.htm](http://www.faqs.org/docs/think_java/TIJ309.htm)

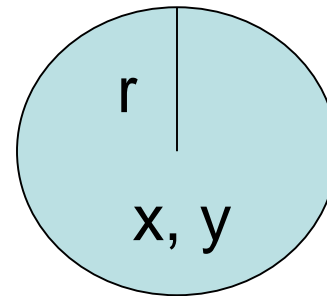
# Introduction

- ◆ Polymorphism is one of the most important concepts of object-oriented programming.
- ◆ In general, it means the occurrence of something in multiple forms.
- ◆ In programming, polymorphism is the ability for same code to be used with several different types of objects and behave differently depending on the actual type of object used.

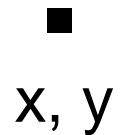
# Example: Drawing Shapes

- ◆ Write a program to maintain a list of shapes created by the user, and print the shapes when needed.
- ◆ The shapes needed in the application are:
  - points
  - lines
  - rectangles
  - circles
  - etc...

Circle



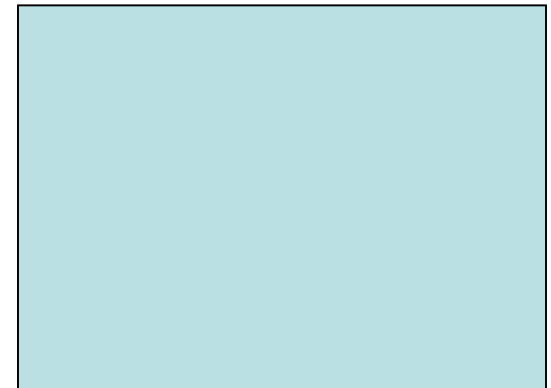
Point



x, y

w

h



Rectangle

# In Conventional Programs

- ◆ When you use the C language you should:
  - Define the *struct* data type to store parameters of the shape
    - One field is for the type of the shape: point, circle, etc.
  - Write the functions to draw each shape (separate for each shape).
  - Check the type of the shape first to select the right function to draw.

```
typedef struct shape {  
    int typeS; // point = 0, circle = 1,  
              // line = 2, rectangle = 3  
    int x, y // parameters of the shape  
    . . .  
};  
shape varShape;  
.  
.  
if (varShape.typeS == 1) then  
    DrawCircle(varShape);  
else if (varShape.typeS == 3) then  
    DrawRectangle(varShape);  
else if (varShape.typeS == 0) then  
    DrawPoint(varShape);  
else if (varShape.typeS == 2) then  
    DrawLine(varShape);
```

# Using Polymorphism

- ◆ You need only to write:
  - `varShape.Draw()`
- ◆ How to do this?

# Example 1

```
class Person {
    private String name;
    public Person(String name) {
        this.name = name;
    }
    public String introduction() {
        return "My name is " + name + ".";
    }
}

class Student extends Person {
    private String id;
    public Student(String name, String id){
        super(name);
        this.id = id;
    }
    public String getID() { return id; }
    public String introduction() {
        return "I am a student. " +
            super.introduction() + " My ID is " + id + ".";
    }
}
```

```
public class PolymorphismDemo1 {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Student s =
            new Student("Saito","s115333");
        Person p = s;
        System.out.println(s.introduction());
        System.out.println(p.introduction());
    }
}
```

- ◆ Output of this program:
- I am a student. My name is Saito. My ID is s115333 .
  - I am a student. My name is Saito. My ID is s115333.

# Comments on the Previous Slide

- ◆ Consider two simple classes:
  - Person
  - Student (this one is a subclass of Person)
- ◆ Why do they print the same output?
  - `System.out.println(s.introduction());`
  - `System.out.println(p.introduction());`
- ◆ Because the same message (*introduction()*) is sent to the same object, in this case Student.
- ◆ Why is the object the same (Student)?



# Recall: Primitive Assignment

- ◆ The act of assignment takes a copy of a value and stores it in a variable.
- ◆ For primitive types:

```
num2 = num1;
```

Before



num1    num2

After

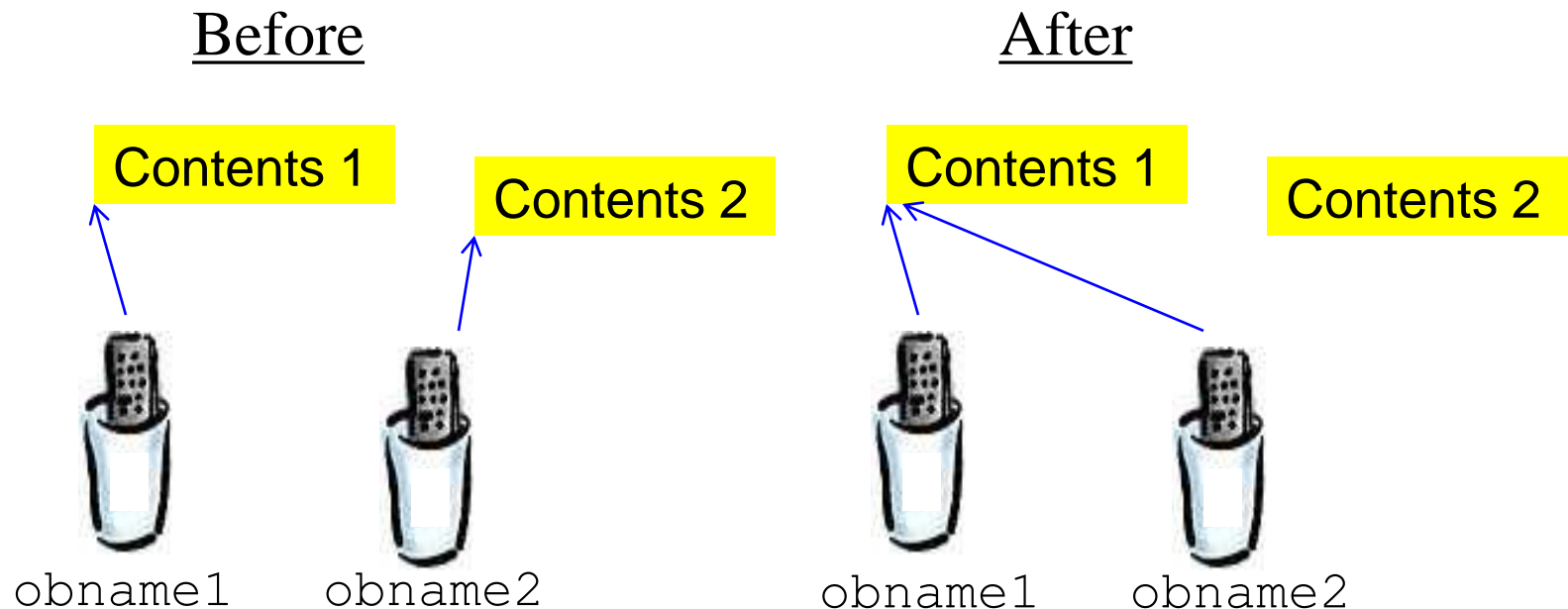


num1    num2

# Recall: Reference Assignment

- ◆ For object references, the reference (address, the location) is copied:

```
obname2 = obname1;
```



# Example 2

```
class Person {
    private String name;
    public Person(String name) {
        this.name = name;
    }
    public String introduction() {
        return "My name is " + name + ".";
    }
}

class Student extends Person {
    private String id;
    public Student(String name, String id){
        super(name);
        this.id = id;
    }
    public String getID() { return id; }
    public String introduction() {
        return "I am a student. " +
            super.introduction() + " My ID is " + id + ".";
    }
}
```

```
public class PolymorphismDemo2 {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        m(new Student("Saito", "s115333"));
        m(new Person("Tanaka"));
    }
    public static void m(Person x) {
        System.out.println(x.introduction());
    }
}
```

- ◆ Output of this program:
- I am a student. My name is Saito. My ID is s115333 .
  - My name is Tanaka.

# Comments on the Previous Slide

- ◆ Method *m* takes a parameter of the *Person* type. An object of a subtype can be used wherever its supertype value is required.
  - This feature is known as *polymorphism*.
- ◆ When the method *m(Person x)* is executed, the argument *x*'s *introduction* method is invoked. *x* may be an instance of *Student* or *Person*. Classes *Student* and *Person* have their own implementation of the *introduction* method. Which implementation is used will be determined dynamically by the Java Virtual Machine at runtime.
  - This capability is known as *dynamic binding*.

# Comments on Examples 1 and 2

- ◆ Example 1: The Java compiler cannot decide at compilation time which method must be called when the program is running:
  - Introduction() of the Person class or of the Student class
    - System.out.println(s.introduction());
    - System.out.println(p.introduction());
- ◆ Example 2: The same situation
  - System.out.println(x.introduction());
- ◆ A decision is made when the program is running.

# Static and Dynamic Binding

- ◆ Non-polymorphic methods (static methods) are “bound”
  - at compile time
  - called *early binding* or static binding.
- ◆ Polymorphic methods are “bound”
  - at run time
  - called *late binding* or dynamic binding (also called dynamic dispatch).
- ◆ Alternate views of polymorphism:
  - One objects sends a message to another object without caring about the type of the receiving object.
  - The receiving object responds to a message appropriately for its type.
- ◆ Java methods are polymorphic by default
  - *static* or *final* (*private* methods are implicitly *final*) are bound at compile time.

# Note: Polymorphic Methods

- ◆ Like an instance method, a static method can be inherited. However, a static method cannot be overridden. If a static method defined in a superclass is redefined in a subclass, the method defined in the superclass is hidden.

# Note: Polymorphic Methods

```
class Parent {  
    public static void myStaticMethod() {  
        System.out.println("A");  
    }  
    public void myInstanceMethod() {  
        System.out.println("B");  
    }  
} // End of the Parent class  
public class Child extends Parent {  
    public static void myStaticMethod() {  
        System.out.println("C");  
    }  
    public void myInstanceMethod() {  
        System.out.println("D");  
    }  
}
```

```
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    Parent o1 = new Parent();  
    Parent o2 = new Child();  
    Child o3 = new Child();  
  
    Parent.myStaticMethod(); // A  
    Child.myStaticMethod(); // C  
    o1.myStaticMethod();    // A  
    o1.myInstanceMethod();  // B  
    o2.myStaticMethod();    // A  
    o2.myInstanceMethod();  // D  
    o3.myStaticMethod();    // C  
    o3.myInstanceMethod();  // D  
    myStaticMethod();       // C  
    myInstanceMethod();     // Compiler Error  
} // End of main method  
} // End of the Child class
```



# Comments on the Previous Slide

- ◆ Notice that *o2.myStaticMethod* invokes *Parent.myStaticMethod()*. If this method were truly overridden, we should have invoked *Child.myStaticMethod*, but we didn't. Rather, when you invoke a static method, even if you invoke it on an instance, you really invoke the method associated with the "compile-time type" of the variable. In this case, the compile-time type of *o2* is *Parent*. Therefore, we invoke *Parent.myStaticMethod()*.
- ◆ However, when we execute the line *o2.myInstanceMethod()*, we really invoke the method *Child.myInstanceMethod()*. That's because, unlike static methods, instance methods CAN be overridden. In such a case, we invoke the method associated with the run-time type of the object. Even though the compile-time type of *o2* is *Parent*, the run-time type (the type of the object *o2* references) is *Child*. Therefore, we invoke *Child.myInstanceMethod* rather than *Parent.myInstanceMethod()*.

# Comments on the Previous Example

- ◆ Why do the following lines produce the results as shown in comments:

```
public class Child extends Parent {  
    ...  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        ...  
                myStaticMethod();           // C  
                myInstanceMethod();         // Compiler Error  
    } // end of the mail method  
} // end of the Child class
```

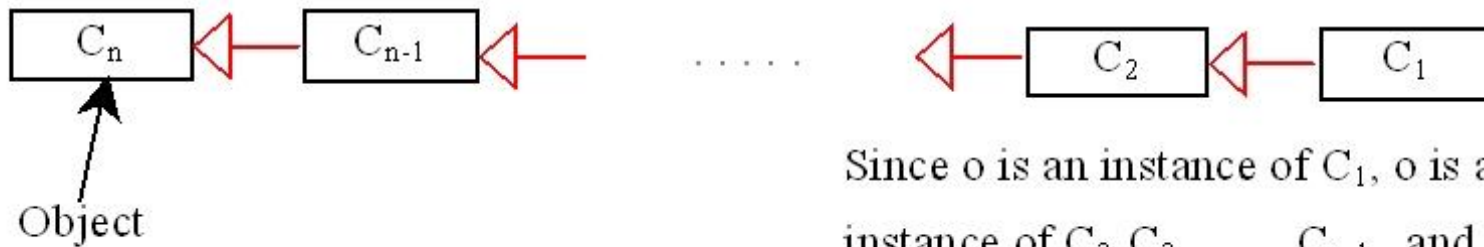
- ◆ We invoke *myStaticMethod()* from the *static main* method, which is a member of the *Child* class. We invoke a static method from a static context. This is correct.
- ◆ We tried to invoke *myInstanceMethod()* without a specification of the object. This invocation is done from the *static main* method, which is a member the *Child* class. This generates a compile-time error.

# Method Matching vs. Binding

- ◆ Matching a method signature and binding a method implementation are two issues.
  - The compiler finds a matching method according to parameter type, number of parameters, and order of the parameters at compilation time.
  - A method may be implemented in several subclasses.
- ◆ The Java Virtual Machine dynamically binds the definition of the method at runtime.

# Dynamic Binding in Java

- ◆ We can conceptually think of the dynamic binding mechanism as follows: Suppose an object  $o$  is an instance of classes  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$ , and  $C_n$ , where  $C_1$  is a subclass of  $C_2$ ,  $C_2$  is a subclass of  $C_3$ , ..., and  $C_{n-1}$  is a subclass of  $C_n$ .
- ◆ That is,  $C_n$  is the most general class, and  $C_1$  is the most specific class. In Java,  $C_n$  is the *Object* class.
- ◆ If  $o$  invokes a method  $p$ , the JVM searches the implementation for the method  $p$  in  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_{n-1}$  and  $C_n$ , in this order, until it is found. Once an implementation is found, the search stops and the first-found implementation is invoked.



Since  $o$  is an instance of  $C_1$ ,  $o$  is also an instance of  $C_2, C_3, \dots, C_{n-1}$ , and  $C_n$

# Casting Objects

- ◆ You have already used the casting operator to convert variables of one primitive type to another.
- ◆ *Casting* can also be used to convert an object of one class type to another within an inheritance hierarchy. In Example 2, the statement

`m(new Student ("Saito", "s115333"));`  
assigns the object `new Student()` to a parameter of the `Person` type. This statement is equivalent to:

```
Person o = new Student("Saito", "s115333"); // Implicit casting
                                              // It is called up-casting
m(o);
```

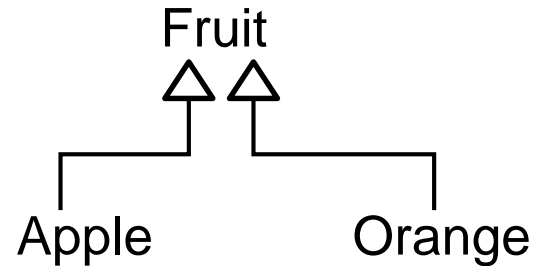
- ◆ The above statement is known as implicit casting. It is legal because an instance of `Student` is automatically an instance of `Person`.

# Why is Casting Necessary?

- ◆ Consider the following (see Example 1, Slide 7):
  - `Person o = new Student(...);`
  - `Student b = o;`
- ◆ A compilation error would occur. Why is the statement `Person o = new Student()` valid and the statement `Student b = o` not?
- ◆ This is because a `Student` object is always an instance of `Person`, but a `Person` is not necessarily an instance of `Student`. Even though you can see that `o` is really a `Student` object, the compiler is not so clever to know it.
- ◆ To tell the compiler that `o` is a `Student` object, use an explicit casting. The syntax is similar to the one used for casting among primitive data types:  
`Student b = (Student)o; // Explicit casting. It is called down-casting`

# TIP

- ◆ To help understand casting, you may also consider the analogy of fruit, apple, and orange with the *Fruit* class as the superclass for *Apple* and *Orange*.
- ◆ An apple is a fruit, so you can always safely assign an instance of *Apple* to a variable for *Fruit* (implicit casting):
  - `Fruit f = new Apple();`
- ◆ However, a fruit is not necessarily an apple, so you have to use explicit casting to assign an instance of *Fruit* to a variable of *Apple*.



```
Fruit f;  
Apple a = new Apple();  
Orange o = new Orange();  
f = a; // implicit casting, up-casting  
f = o; // implicit casting, up-casting  
if (f instanceof Apple) {  
    a = (Apple)f; // explicit casting  
                  // down-casting  
}
```

# The instanceof Operator

- ◆ Often you will get into a situation in which you need to rediscover the exact type of the object so you can access the extended methods of that type (see Example 2, slide 11):

```
Person p = new Student("Saito","s115333");
```

```
System.out.println(p.getID()); // Compile-time error:
```

```
// There is no the getID method in the Person class.
```

- ◆ Use the instanceof operator to test whether an object is an instance of a class:

```
Person p = new Student("Saito","s115333");
```

```
if (p instanceof Student) {
```

```
    System.out.println("Student ID: " + ((Student)p).getID());
```

```
}
```



# Casting-Dot Operator Precedence

- ◆ The casting operator has lower precedence than the “.” (dot) operator:
  - `((Student)p).getID()`
- ◆ Without the parentheses the cast is associated with the method (*getID* in our example) and attempts to change its return type:
  - `(Student)p.getID()`

# Summary of Polymorphism, Part 1

- ◆ Polymorphism means “multiple forms.”
  - In object-oriented programming, you have the same face (the common interface in the base class) and different forms using that face: the different definitions of the dynamically bound methods.
- ◆ Polymorphism is a feature that cannot be viewed in isolation (like a *switch* statement can, for example), but instead works only in concert, as part of a “big picture” of class relationships.