

Using Polymorphism Well

Lecture #5

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Polymorphism

- Polymorphism means having many forms
- How is this related to object-oriented programming?
 - Polymorphic reference
- Since a polymorphic reference can refer to different types of objects over time the specific method it invokes can also change from one invocation to the next

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Forms of polymorphism

Ad-hoc polymorphism

- Polymorphic functions which can be applied to arguments of different types, but which behave differently depending on the type of the argument to which they are applied
- Function **overloading** (e.g. overloading of constructors and methods)

Parametric polymorphism

- Allows a function or a data type to be written generically, so that it can handle values identically without depending on their type
- Generic programming

• Subtype polymorphism (inclusion polymorphism)

- Allows a function to be written to take an object of a certain type T, but also work correctly if passed an object that belongs to a type S that is a subtype of T
- · Subclassing, inheritance

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Overloading

- Providing more methods with the same name but different parameter types
 - Statically select most specific matching method of a type

```
public class Utility {
  public String whatAmI(Object o) { return "object"; }
  public String whatAmI(String s) { return "string"; }
  public boolean isString(Object o) { return false; }
}

public class Overloaded extends Utility {
  public boolean isString(String s) { return true; }
}

Overloads but NOT overrides inherited method boolean isString(Object o) from class Utility
```

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Overloading

```
public static void main(String[] args) {
   Overloaded overloaded = new Overloaded();

   System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(overloaded));
   System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(new String("test")));

   Object o = new String("test");

   System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(o));
   System.out.println(overloaded.isString(new String("test")));
   System.out.println(overloaded.isString(o));

   Utility utility = overloaded;

   System.out.println(utility.isString(new String("test")));
}
```

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```
Overloading
   public static void main(String[] args) {
     Overloaded overloaded = new Overloaded();
                                                            object
     System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(overloaded));
     System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(new String("test")));
     Object o = new String("test");
                                                            string
                                                            object
     System.out.println(overloaded.whatAmI(o)); -
     System.out.println(overloaded.isString(new String("test")));
     System.out.println(overloaded.isString(o));
                                                            true
                                                             false
     Utility utility = overloaded;
                                                            false
     System.out.println(utility.isString(new String("test")));
```

Overkill

- Overloading (and overriding together) can be overwhelming
- Avoid overloading whenever possible
 - Names are cheap and plentiful
- One place you cannot easily avoid it constructors
 - They all have to have the same name

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Downcasting

- Downcasting (type refinement) is the act of casting a reference of a base class to one of its derived class
 - When a variable of the base class has a value of the derived class, downcasting is possible

```
Article a = new DiscountArticle();
DiscountArticle da = (DiscountArticle) a;

This is possible since object referred by a is currently holding value of DiscountArticle class
```

- The danger of downcasting is that it is not compile-time check, but rather it is run-time check
 - Downcasting changes apparent type, so during run-time it must be checked that actual type is a subtype of apparent type

 This will only work when the o currently holding value is String. In compile-time it is OK, because String is subtype of Object

```
return (String) o;
}
String s = objectToString("a test string");
Object wrong = new Object();
s = objectToString(wrong);
```

This will work since we passed in String, so o has value of String

This will fail since we passed in Object which does not have value of String

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Downcasting example

• Class java.util.Vector has reusable methods

```
public void addElement(Object obj)
public Object elementAt(int i)
```

```
public class StringSet {
   private Vector elements;
   public void insert(String s) {
      elements.addElement(s);
   }
   public String choose() {
      return elements.elementAt(0);
      return (String) elements.elementAt(0);
}
```

Downcasting is required here

A popular example of a badly considered object-oriented design is containers of universal supertypes, like the Java containers before Java generics were introduced, which requires downcasting of the contained objects so that they can be used again.

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Avoid downcasting, since according to the LSP, an object-oriented design that requires it is flawed.

Some languages, such as OCaml, disallow downcasting altogether. In many cases downcasting can be replaced by using parametric polymorphism (e.g. generics in C++, C#, Java)

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The Liskov Substitution Principle

• Functions that use references to base (super) classes must be able to use objects of derived (sub) classes without knowing it

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LSP example

• Consider the following Rectangle class

```
public class Rectangle {
   private double width;
   private double height;
   public Rectangle(double width, double height) {
      this.width = width;
      this.height = height;
   }
   public double getWidth() { return this.width; }
   public void setWidth(double width) { this.width = width; }
   public double getHeight() { return this.height; }
   public void setHeight(double height) { this.height = height; }
   public double area() { return this.width * this.height; }
}
```

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LSP example

- Now, think about a Square class. Clearly, a square is a rectangle, so the Square class should be derived from the Rectangle class
- Observations
 - A square does not need both a width and a height as attributes, but it will inherit them from Rectangle anyway. So, each Square object wastes a little memory, but this is not a major concern
 - The inherited setWidth() and setHeight() methods are not really appropriate for a Square, since the width and height of a square are identical. So, we'll need to override setWidth() and setHeight(). (Having to override these very basic methods is a clue that this might not be an appropriate use of inheritance!)

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LSP example

Here's the Square class

```
public class Square extends Rectangle {
  public Square(double size) { super(size, size); }
  @Override
  public void setWidth(double width) {
    super.setWidth(width);
    super.setHeight(width);
}
  @Override
  public void setHeight(double height) {
    super.setHeight(height);
    super.setWidth(height);
  }
}
```

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LSP example

• Everything looks good but check this out!

```
Now call method testLSP().
public class Main {
                                                        According to the LSP, it should work
  public static void main(String[] args) {
                                                        for either rectangles or squares. Does
    Rectangle rectangle = new Rectangle(1.0, 1.0);
    testLSP(rectangle);
   Square square = new Square(1.0);
   testLSP(square);
                                                        Remember: If B is a subtype of A,
                                                        everywhere the code expects an A,
  public static void testLSP(Rectangle rectangle) {
                                                        a B can be used instead
   rectangle.setWidth(4.0);
   rectangle.setHeight(5.0);
   System.out.println("Width is 4.0 and Height is 5.0, so Area is " \pm
     rectangle.area());
   if (rectangle.area() == 20.0)
     System.out.println("Looking good!\n");
      System.out.println("Huh? What kind of rectangle is this?\n");
```

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LSP example

• Test program output

Width is 4.0 and Height is 5.0, so Area is 20.0 Looking good!

Width is 4.0 and Height is 5.0, so Area is 25.0 Huh? What kind of rectangle is this?

Looks like we violated the LSP!

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LSP example

- What is the problem here? The programmer of the testLSP() method made the reasonable assumption that changing the width of a Rectangle leaves its height unchanged
- Passing a Square object to such a method results in problems, exposing a violation of the LSP
- The Square and Rectangle classes look self consistent and valid. Yet a programmer, making reasonable assumptions about the base class, can write a method that causes the design model to break down
- Solutions can not be viewed in isolation, they must also be viewed in terms of reasonable assumptions that might be made by users of the design

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LSP example

- A mathematical square might be a rectangle, but a Square object is not a Rectangle object, because the behavior of a Square object is not consistent with the behavior of a Rectangle object!
- Behaviorally, a Square is not a Rectangle! A Square object is not polymorphic with a Rectangle object

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The Liskov Substitution Principle

- The Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP) makes it clear that the IS-A relationship is all about **behavior**
- In order for the LSP to hold (and with it the Open-Closed Principle) all subclasses must conform to the behavior that clients expect of the base classes they use
 - For example, usage of downcasting signal there is probably a problem (Why do we need explicit subclasses?)
- A subtype must have no more constraints than its base type, since the subtype must be usable anywhere the base type is usable
- If the subtype has more constraints than the base type, there would be uses that would be valid for the base type, but that would violate one of the extra constraints of the subtype and thus violate the LSP!
- The guarantee of the LSP is that a subclass can always be used wherever its base class is used!

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Substitution principle guarantee

- How do we know if saying B is a subtype of A is safe?
- If *B* is a subtype of *A*, everywhere the code expects *A*, a *B* can be used instead
- For function f(A), if f satisfies its specification when passed an object whose actual type is type A, f also satisfies its specification when passed an object whose type is B

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Subtype condition 1: Signature rule

```
class A \{ R_A f(P_A p); \}
class B inherit A \{ 
override R_B f(P_B p); \}
```

- R_B must be a subtype of R_A ($R_B \le R_A$)
 - Covariants for results
- P_B must be a supertype of P_A ($P_A \le P_B$)
 - Contravariants for parameters

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Subtype condition 1: Signature rule

- OO languages are usually stricter than this, they does not allow any variations in types (novariant)
 - Overriding method must have same return and parameter types
- For example, in Java
 - Versions < 1.5 use **overloading** in this case, so the **methods are not actually overridden**
 - Versions ≥ 1.5 of Java use @Override clause to specify the variant method overrides the method from the superclass and in addition overriding method can throw fewer exceptions

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Subtype condition 2: Methods rule

- Precondition of the subtype method must be **weaker** than the precondition of the supertype method $(pre_A \Rightarrow pre_B)$
 - The rectangle must have its width and height set to calculate its area
 - The square must have its width and height set and they must be the same to calculate its area
 - This means square has stronger precondition for calculating area than rectangle. FAIL
- Post condition of the subtype method must be **stronger** than the post condition of the supertype method ($post_R \Rightarrow post_A$)
 - The article gets actual price as its normal sales price
 - The discount article gets actual price as its normal sales price updated by the percentage discount
 - This means discount article has stronger post condition for getting actual price.
 OK

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Subtype condition 3: Properties

- Subtypes must preserve all properties described in the overview specification of the supertype
- Let q(x) be a property provable about objects x of type T.
 Then q(y) should be provable for objects y of type S where S ≤ T
- $(pre_{super} \land post_{sub}) \Rightarrow post_{super}$
- Example: Let $B \le A$
 - If *A* is immutable data type, can *B* be mutable?
 - If A is mutable data type, can B be immutable?

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Eiffel's rule

- Another approach to type substitution
- Bertrand Meyer in object-oriented language Eiffel prefers **covariant** typing
 - The subtype replacement method parameter types must be **subtypes** of the types of the parameters of the supertype method
- The subtype method preconditions must be stronger than the supertype method precondition and the subtype post conditions must be stronger than the supertype post conditions
- Note that unlike the corresponding Liskov substitution principle, $(pre_{super} \land post_{sub}) \Rightarrow post_{super}$, there is no need for pre_{super} in the covariant rule since $post_{sub} \Rightarrow post_{super}$

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