

# CSE 341: Programming Languages

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Lecture 24— Method Subtyping; Named Types; Classes vs. Types;  
(Multiple) Interfaces; Coherence

## Recall...

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- OO static typing usually means no “message not understood” (except if receiver is `nil`).
- A subsumption relation  $t_1 <: t_2$  and a subsumption rule can make a sound type system less restrictive.
- For records (objects with only getters/setters), subtypes can add fields or reorder fields, but cannot change the type of a field.

So field types must be *invariant*, else the getter or setter methods in the subtype will have an unsound type:

- If the field becomes a subtype, the getter is wrong (see last lecture).
- If the field becomes a supertype, the setter is wrong.

## Methods

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But this getter/setter stuff is really just an example of a more general phenomenon: If a supertype has a method  $m$  taking arguments of types  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  and returning an argument of type  $t_0$ , what can  $m$  take and return in a subtype?

Since this is more general, let's forget about fields:

$t ::= [t_0 \ m_1:(t_{11}, \dots), \dots, t_n \ m_n(t_{n1}, \dots)]$

Now, when is  $t_1 <: t_2$ ?

# Method Subtyping, part 1

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One sound answer: A subtype can have more methods and rearrange methods, but a method  $m$  must take arguments of the same type and return arguments of the same type.

(This answer corresponds to Java and C++ because they also support *static overloading*, which we'll discuss later.)

Can we be less restrictive and still sound?

Yes: We can let the return type be a subtype. Why:

- Some code calling  $m$  will “know more” about what's returned.
- Other code calling  $m$  will “still work” because of substitutability.

But what about the argument types...

Allowing subtypes is not sound!

## Method Subtyping, part 2

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What if we allow argument types to be supertypes? It's sound! Why:

- Some code calling  $m$  can pass a larger collection of arguments.
- Other code calling  $m$  will “still work” because of substitutability.

The jargon: Method subtyping is “contravariant” in argument types and “covariant” in return types.

The point: One method is a subtype of another if the arguments are supertypes and the result is a subtype.

This is easily one of the 5 most important points in this course.

Never, ever think argument-types are covariant. You will be tempted many times. You will never be right. Tell your friends a guy with a PhD jumped up and down!

## Connection to FP

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Functions and methods are quite similar.

When is  $t_1 \rightarrow t_2$  a subtype of  $t_3 \rightarrow t_4$ ?

When  $t_3$  is a subtype of  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  is a subtype of  $t_4$ .

Why the contravariance? For substitutability—a caller can “still” use a  $t_3$ .

Advanced point: Is there any difference? Yes, remember methods also take a `self` argument bound late.

- And in a subtype, we can assume `self` has the subtype
- But that makes it a covariant argument-type!
- This is sound because cannot change the fact that a particular value (bound to `self`) is passed.
- This is roughly why encoding late-binding in ML is awkward.

# Named Types

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In Java/C++/C#/..., types don't look like `[t10 m1:(t11,...), ..., tn0 mn(tn1,...)]`.

Instead they look like `C` where `C` is a class or interface.

But everything we just learned about subtyping still applies!

Yet the only subtyping is (the transitive closure of) declared subtypes (e.g., `class C extends D implements I,J`).

Given *types* `D`, `I`, and `J`, ensure objects produced by *class* `C`'s constructors can have subtypes (more methods, contra/co, etc.)

# The Grand Confusion

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For convenience, many languages *confuse* classes and types:

- C is a class and a type
- If C extends D, then:
  - instances of the class C inherit from the class D
  - expressions of type C can be subsumed to have type D

Do you usually want this confusion? Probably.

Do you always want “subclass implies subtype”?

- No: Recall `distTo` for `Point` and `3DPoint`.

Do you always want “subtype implies subclass”?

- No: Two classes with `display` methods may no inheritance relationship.



# Untangling Classes and Types

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- Classes define object behavior; subclassing inherits behavior
- Subtyping defines substitutability
- You often want subclasses to be subtypes; most languages give you no choice.

Now some other common features make more sense:

- “Abstract” methods:
  - Expand the supertype without providing behavior to subclass
  - Superclass does not implement behavior, so no constructors allowed (an additional static check because the *class* is abstract)
  - The static-check is the only fundamental justification (trivial to provide a method that raises an exception).
- Interfaces...

# Interfaces

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A Java interface is just a (named) object type.

By implementing an interface, you get subsumption but no behavior.

- Same thing with “multiple inheritance” when  $n - 1$  superclasses have all abstract methods. Should be called “multiple subsumance”, but *subsumance* is not a word. :)
- None of the semantic issues we previously discussed with multiple inheritance arise with interfaces.
- But there are two new issues we didn’t discuss before because they’re about typing...

# Multiple Supertype Issues

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Most types have multiple supertypes; the issues arise from multiple *immediate* supertypes.

- No least supertypes
  - Java ends up with a pretty *ad hoc* rule for  $e_1 \text{ ? } e_2 : e_3$
- “Coherence” problems: With the subtype relationship a dag, there can be multiple ways to subsume from C to D.
  - No problem with subtyping as we’ve seen, but some languages have *coercive* subtyping
  - Coercive subtyping means subsuming  $e$  from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  (e.g.,  $t_2$   $x = e$  where  $e$  has type  $t_1$ ) may evaluate  $e$  to an object and then assign  $x$  to a different (presumably related) object.

# Implicit Coercions

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Programmers just love the convenience:

- `Float x = 3;`
- `Int y = x * 1.4;`
- `String s = y;`

Languages end up with lots of rules to specify exactly where and how such coercions occur.

- Example: Narrowing to `int` for `y` happens “after” multiplication.

If we ban implicit narrowing, it’s tempting to treat coercions as subtyping and forget all the extra rules.

- `Int<:Float, Int<:String, Float<:String`
- Language can provide “built-in” coercions and/or let programmers write their own (e.g., overload the cast operator in C++)

# Coherence Problems

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For  $s=y$ , a well-defined language will not allow an implementation to choose whether  $s$  holds "4" or "4.0"! Solutions:

- Make coercions explicit (don't treat as implicit subtyping) or require only when it's ambiguous.
- Go back to specifying how and where subsumption occurs (complicated rules about "shortest paths" and such?)
- Make it so it doesn't matter what subsumption is used; expression will still be contextually equivalent.
  - Suppose subsumption from `Int` to `String` always adds ".0".
  - A coercive subtyping system with this property (path doesn't matter) is called "coherent" (just jargon).
  - Impractical to check this for user-defined coercions, but a good thing for users (that's you) to think about.

## Back to Named or Unnamed

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For preventing “message not understood”, unnamed (“structural”) types worked fine.

But many languages have named (“nominal”) types.

Which is better is a tired old argument, but fortunately it has some interesting intellectual points (unlike emacs vs. vi).

First, frame the question more narrowly: Should subtyping be nominal or structural? (Named types don’t preclude structural subtyping, e.g. casting between two otherwise-unrelated interfaces.)

## Some Fair Points

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For structural subtyping:

- Allows more code reuse, while remaining sound.
- Does not require refactoring or adding “implements clauses” later when you discover you could share some implementation.
- A simpler system (type names are just an abbreviation and convenient way to write recursive types)

For nominal subtyping:

- Reject more code, which catches bugs and treating unmeaningful method-name clashes as significant.
- Confusion with classes saves keystrokes and “doing everything twice”?
- Fewer subtypes makes type-checking (??) and efficient code-generation easier.