



HARVARD

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CS153: Compilers

Lecture 15: Subtyping

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<https://www.seas.harvard.edu/courses/cs153>

Contains content from lecture notes by Steve Zdancewic

Announcements

- HW4 Oat v1 out
 - Due Tuesday Oct 29 (7 days)
- Reference solns
 - Will be released on Canvas
 - HW2 later today
 - HW3 later this week

Today

- Types as sets of values
- Subtyping
 - Subsumption
 - Downcasting
 - Functions
 - Records
 - References

What are types, anyway?

- A **type** is just a predicate on the set of values in a system.
 - For example, the type “int” can be thought of as a boolean function that returns “true” on integers and “false” otherwise.
 - Equivalently, we can think of a type as just a subset of all values.
- For efficiency and tractability, the predicates are usually taken to be very simple.
 - Types are an **abstraction** mechanism
- We can easily add new types that distinguish different subsets of values:

```
type tp =  
  | IntT           (* type of integers *)  
  | PostT | NegT | ZeroT  (* refinements of ints *)  
  | BoolT         (* type of booleans *)  
  | TrueT | FalseT      (* subsets of booleans *)  
  | AnyT          (* any value *)
```

Modifying the typing rules

- We need to refine the typing rules too...
- Some easy cases:
 - Just split up the integers into their more refined cases:

P-INT

$i > 0$

$E \vdash i : \text{Pos}$

N-INT

$i < 0$

$E \vdash i : \text{Neg}$

ZERO

$E \vdash 0 : \text{Zero}$

- Same for booleans:

TRUE

$E \vdash \text{true} : \text{True}$

FALSE

$E \vdash \text{false} : \text{False}$

What about “if”?

- Two cases are easy:

$$\boxed{\text{IF-T}} \quad \frac{E \vdash e_1 : \text{True} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T}{E \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T} \quad \boxed{\text{IF-F}} \quad \frac{E \vdash e_1 : \text{False} \quad E \vdash e_3 : T}{E \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T}$$

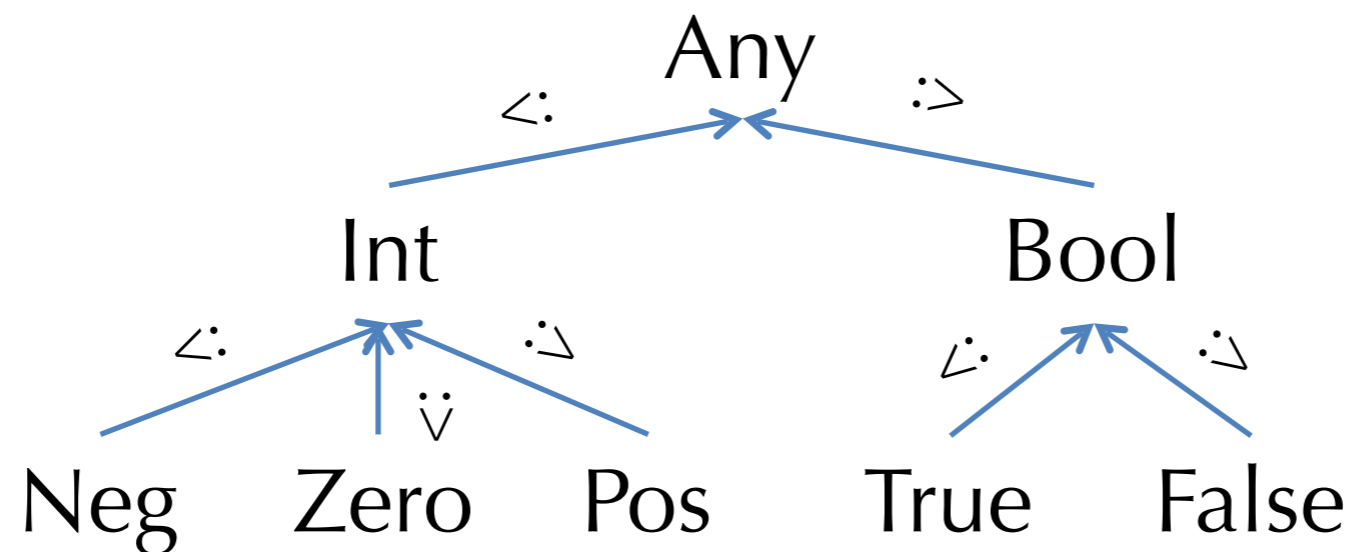
- What if we don't know statically which branch will be taken?
- Consider the typechecking problem:

$$x:\text{bool} \vdash \text{if } (x) 3 \text{ else } -1 : ???$$

- The true branch has type Pos and the false branch has type Neg.
 - What should be the result type of the whole if?

Subtyping and Upper Bounds

- If we think of types as sets of values, we have a natural inclusion relation:
 $\text{Pos} \subseteq \text{Int}$
- This subset relation gives rise to a **subtype relation**: $\text{Pos} <: \text{Int}$
- Such inclusions give rise to a **subtyping hierarchy**:



- Given any two types T_1 and T_2 , we can calculate their **least upper bound** (LUB) according to the hierarchy.
 - Example: $\text{LUB}(\text{True}, \text{False}) = \text{Bool}$, $\text{LUB}(\text{Int}, \text{Bool}) = \text{Any}$
 - Note: might want to add types for “NonZero”, “NonNegative”, and “NonPositive” so that set union on values corresponds to taking LUBs on types.

“If” Typing Rule Revisited

- For statically unknown conditionals, we want the return value to be the LUB of the types of the branches:

IF-BOOL

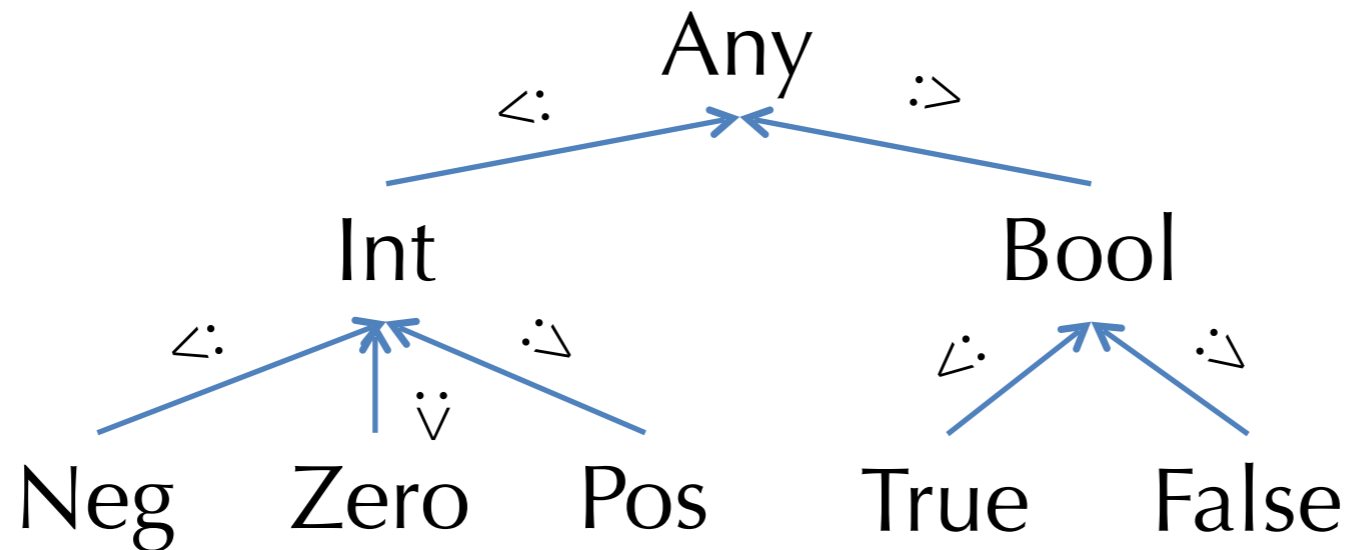
$$E \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T_1 \quad E \vdash e_3 : T_2$$

$$E \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$$

- Note: $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is the most precise type (according to the hierarchy) that describes any value with either type T_1 or type T_2
- Math notation: $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is sometimes written $T_1 \vee T_2$ or $T_1 \sqcup T_2$
 - LUB is also called the **join** operation.

Subtyping Hierarchy

- A subtyping hierarchy:



- The subtyping relation is a **partial order**:
 - Reflexive: $T <: T$ for any type T
 - Transitive: $T1 <: T2$ and $T2 <: T3$ then $T1 <: T3$
 - Antisymmetric: $T1 <: T2$ and $T2 <: T1$ then $T1 = T2$

Soundness of Subtyping Relations

- We don't have to treat *every* subset of the integers as a type.
 - e.g., we left out the type NonNeg
- A subtyping relation $T1 <: T2$ is **sound** if it approximates the underlying semantic subset relation
- Formally: write $\llbracket T \rrbracket$ for the subset of (closed) values of type T
 - i.e., $\llbracket T \rrbracket = \{v \mid \vdash v : T\}$
 - e.g., $\llbracket \text{Zero} \rrbracket = \{0\}$, $\llbracket \text{Pos} \rrbracket = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- If $T1 <: T2$ implies $\llbracket T1 \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket T2 \rrbracket$, then $T1 <: T2$ is sound.
 - e.g., $\text{Pos} <: \text{Int}$ is sound, since $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \subseteq \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - e.g., $\text{Int} <: \text{Pos}$ is not sound, since it is not the case that $\{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Soundness of LUBs

- Whenever you have a sound subtyping relation, it follows that:
$$\llbracket T1 \rrbracket \cup \llbracket T2 \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket \text{LUB}(T1, T2) \rrbracket$$
 - Note that the LUB is an over approximation of the “semantic union”
- Example: $\llbracket \text{Zero} \rrbracket \cup \llbracket \text{Pos} \rrbracket = \{0\} \cup \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
$$= \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$
$$\subseteq \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$
$$= \llbracket \text{Int} \rrbracket = \llbracket \text{LUB}(\text{Zero}, \text{Pos}) \rrbracket$$
- Using LUBs in the typing rules yields sound approximations of the program behavior (as in the IF-B rule).

IF-BOOL

$$\frac{E \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T_1 \quad E \vdash e_3 : T_2}{E \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T_1 \vee T_2}$$

Subsumption Rule

- When we add subtyping judgments of the form $T <: S$ we can uniformly integrate it into the type system generically:

$$\boxed{\text{SUBSUMPTION}} \quad \frac{E \vdash e : T \quad T <: S}{E \vdash e : S}$$

- **Subsumption** allows any value of type T to be treated as an S whenever $T <: S$.
- Adding this rule makes the search for typing derivations more difficult – this rule can be applied anywhere, since $T <: T$.
 - But careful engineering of the typing system can incorporate the subsumption rule into a deterministic algorithm.

Downcasting

- What happens if we have an `Int` but need something of type `Pos`?
 - At compile time, we don't know whether the `Int` is greater than zero.
 - At run time, we do.

- Add a “checked downcast”

$$\frac{E \vdash e_1 : \text{Int} \quad E, x : \text{Pos} \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad E \vdash e_3 : T_3}{E \vdash \text{ifPos } (x = e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T_2 \vee T_3}$$

- At runtime, `ifPos` checks whether `e1` is > 0 . If so, branches to `e2` and otherwise branches to `e3`
- Inside expression `e2`, `x` is `e1`'s value, which is known to be strictly positive because of the dynamic check.
- Note that such rules force the programmer to add the appropriate checks
 - We could give integer division the type: `Int -> NonZero -> Int`

Extending Subtyping to Other Types

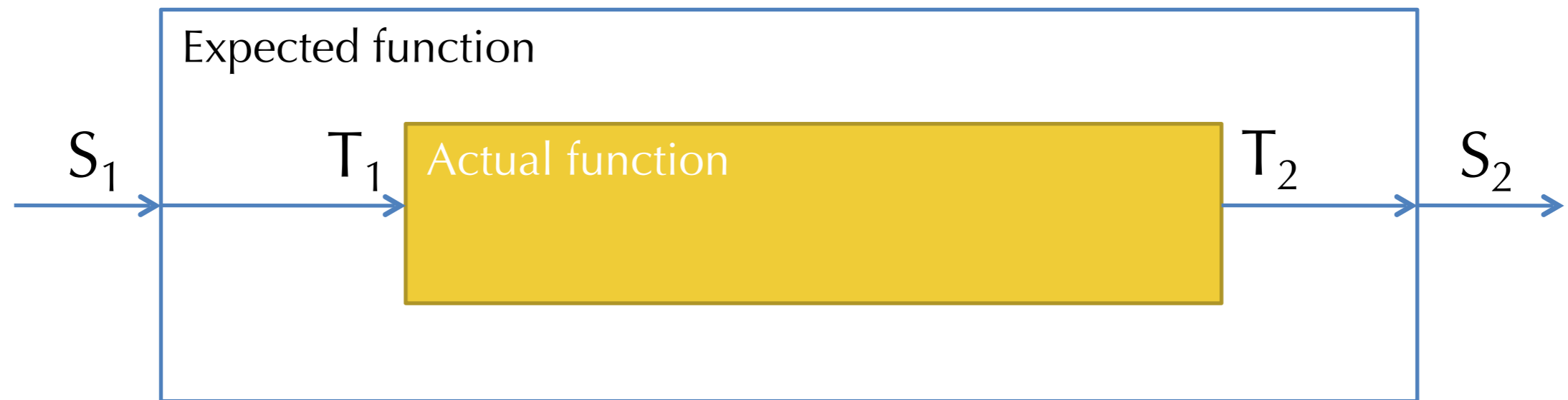
- What about subtyping for tuples?
 - When a program expects a value of type $S_1 * S_2$, when is sound to give it a $T_1 * T_2$?

$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2}{(T_1 * T_2) <: (S_1 * S_2)}$$

- Example: $(\text{Pos} * \text{Neg}) <: (\text{Int} * \text{Int})$
- What about functions?
 - When is $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 <: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$?
 - When a program expects a function of type $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$, when can we give it a function of type $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$?

Subtyping for Function Types

- One way to see it:



- Need to convert an S_1 to a T_1 and T_2 to S_2 , so the argument type is **contravariant** and the output type is **covariant**.

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2}{(T_1 \rightarrow T_2) <: (S_1 \rightarrow S_2)}$$

Immutable Records

- Record type: $\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$
 - Each lab_i is a label drawn from a set of identifiers.

RECORD

$$E \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad E \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad \dots \quad E \vdash e_n : T_n$$

$$E \vdash \{\text{lab}_1 = e_1; \text{lab}_2 = e_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n = e_n\} : \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$$

PROJECTION

$$E \vdash e : \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$$

$$E \vdash e.\text{lab}_i : T_i$$

Immutable Record Subtyping

- Depth subtyping:
 - Corresponding fields may be subtypes

DEPTH

$$\frac{T_1 <: U_1 \quad T_2 <: U_2 \quad \dots \quad T_n <: U_n}{\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\} <: \{\text{lab}_1:U_1; \text{lab}_2:U_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:U_n\}}$$

- Width subtyping:
 - Subtype record may have more fields:

WIDTH

$$\frac{m \leq n}{\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\} <: \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_m:T_m\}}$$

Depth & Width Subtyping vs. Layout

- Width subtyping (without depth) is compatible with “inlined” record representation as with C structs:



`{x:int; y:int; z:int}` $<:$ `{x:int; y:int}` [Width Subtyping]

- The layout and underlying field indices for `x` and `y` are identical.
- The `z` field is just ignored
- Depth subtyping (without width) is similarly compatible, assuming that the space used by `A` is the same as the space used by `B` whenever `A <: B`
- But... they don't mix. Why?

Immutable Record Subtyping (cont'd)

- Width subtyping assumes an implementation in which order of fields in a record matters:

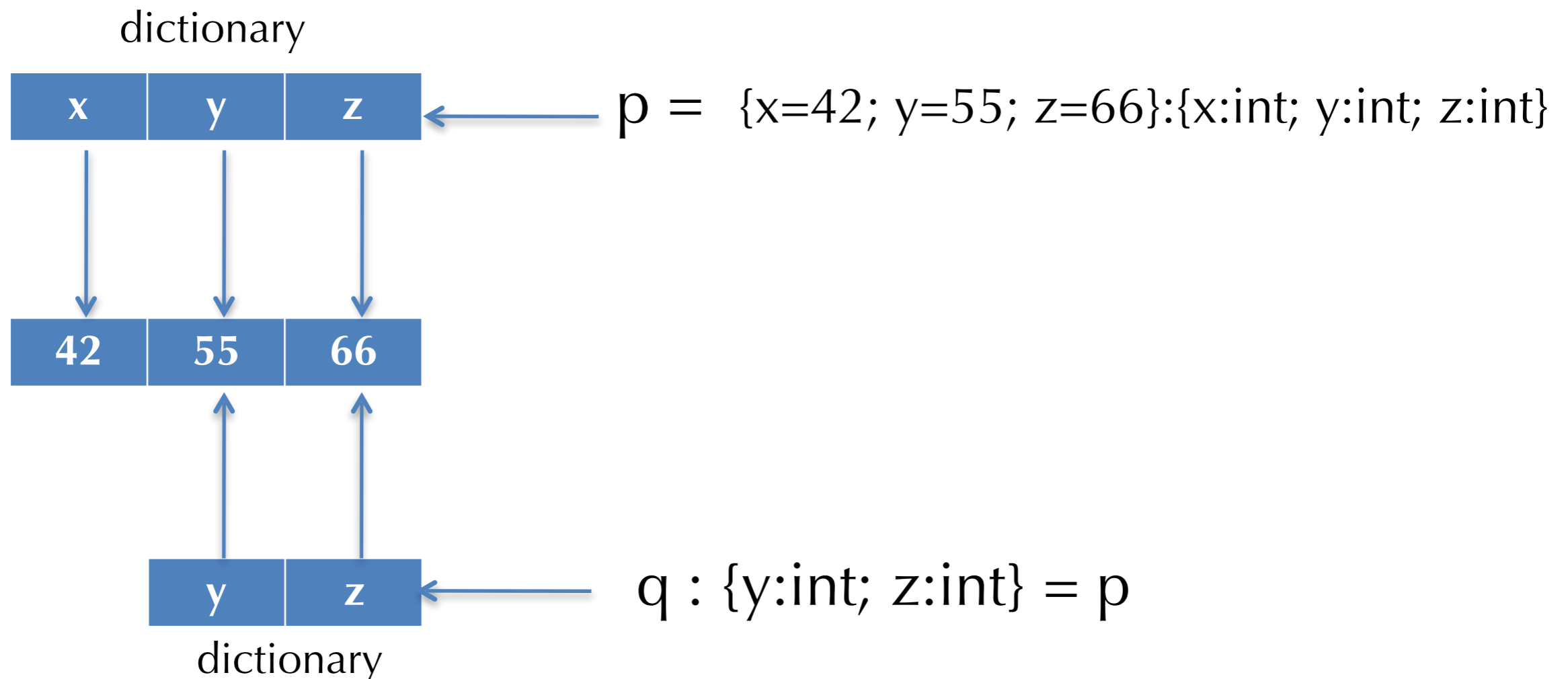
$$\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} \neq \{y:\text{int}; x:\text{int}\}$$

But: $\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\} <: \{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\}$

- Implementation: a record is a struct, subtypes just add fields at the end of the struct.
- Alternative: allow permutation of record fields:
 $\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} = \{y:\text{int}; x:\text{int}\}$
 - Implementation: compiler sorts the fields before code generation.
 - Need to know all of the fields to generate the code
- Permutation is not directly compatible with width subtyping:
 $\{x:\text{int}; z:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} = \{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\} <:/: \{y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\}$

If you want both:

- If you want permutability & dropping, you need to either copy (to rearrange the fields) or use a dictionary like this:



Mutability and Subtyping

- What about when we add mutable locations?
 - References, arrays, ...

NULL

- What is the type of `null`?

- Consider:

- `int[] a = null; // OK?`
- `int x = null; // not OK?`
- `string s = null; // OK?`

NULL

$E \vdash \text{null} : r$

- Null has any **reference** type

- Null is generic

- What about type safety?

- Requires defined behavior when dereferencing null
 - e.g., Java's `NullPointerException`

- Requires a safety check for every dereference operation (typically implemented using low-level hardware "trap" mechanisms.)

Subtyping and References

- What is the proper subtyping relationship for references and arrays?
- Suppose we have NonZero as a type and the division operation has type: $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{NonZero} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - Recall that $\text{NonZero} <: \text{Int}$
- Should $(\text{NonZero ref}) <: (\text{Int ref})$?
- Consider this program:

```
Int bad(NonZero ref r) {  
  Int ref a = r;    (* OK because (NonZero ref <: Int ref*)  
  a := 0;          (* OK because 0 : Zero <: Int *)  
  return (42 / !r) (* OK because !r has type NonZero *)  
}
```

Mutable Structures are Invariant

- Covariant reference types are unsound
 - As demonstrated in the previous example
- Contravariant reference types are also unsound
 - i.e. If $T1 <: T2$ then $\text{ref } T2 <: \text{ref } T1$ is also unsound
 - Exercise: construct a program that breaks contravariant references.
- Moral: Mutable structures are invariant:
 $T1 \text{ ref } <: T2 \text{ ref}$ implies $T1 = T2$
- Same holds for arrays, mutable records, object fields, etc.
 - Note: Java and C# get this wrong. They allow covariant array subtyping, but then compensate by adding a dynamic check on every array update!

Another Way to See It

- We can think of a reference cell as an immutable record (object) with two functions (methods) and some hidden state:
$$T \text{ ref} \approx \{\text{get: unit} \rightarrow T; \text{set: } T \rightarrow \text{unit}\}$$
 - get returns the value hidden in the state.
 - set updates the value hidden in the state.
- When is $T \text{ ref} <: S \text{ ref}$?
- Records are like tuples: subtyping extends pointwise over each component.
- $\{\text{get: unit} \rightarrow T; \text{set: } T \rightarrow \text{unit}\} <: \{\text{get: unit} \rightarrow S; \text{set: } S \rightarrow \text{unit}\}$
 - get components are subtypes: $\text{unit} \rightarrow T <: \text{unit} \rightarrow S$
 - set components are subtypes: $T \rightarrow \text{unit} <: S \rightarrow \text{unit}$
- From get, we must have $T <: S$ (covariant return)
- From set, we must have $S <: T$ (contravariant arg.)
- From $T <: S$ and $S <: T$ we conclude $T = S$.

Structural vs. Nominal Typing

- Is type equality / subsumption defined by the **structure** of the data or the **name** of the data?
- Example 1: type abbreviations (OCaml) vs. “newtypes” (a la Haskell)

```
(* OCaml: *)  
type cents = int      (* cents = int in this scope *)  
type age = int  
  
let foo (x:cents) (y:age) = x + y
```

```
(* Haskell: *)  
newtype Cents = Cents Integer  (* Integer and Cents are  
                                isomorphic, not identical. *)  
newtype Age = Age Integer  
  
foo :: Cents -> Age -> Int  
foo x y = x + y                (* Ill typed! *)
```

- Type abbreviations are treated “structurally”
- Newtypes are treated “by name”

Nominal Subtyping in Java

- In Java, Classes and Interfaces must be named and their relationships **explicitly** declared

```
(* Java: *)
interface Foo {
    int foo();
}

class C {          /* Does not implement the Foo interface */
    int foo() {return 2;}
}

class D implements Foo {
    int foo() {return 42;}
}
```

- Similarly for inheritance: programmers must declare the subclass relation via the “**extends**” keyword.
 - Typechecker still checks that the classes are structurally compatible