

# Exercise 3

## Subtyping

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### Task 1

Consider the following types written in Java-like syntax:

```
class D { A a; B foo(A a) throws RuntimeException; }
```

```
class F { C a; A foo(B a) throws RuntimeException; }
```

```
class G { A a; A foo(C a) throws Exception; }
```

```
class H { A a; A foo(A a) throws IndexOutOfBoundsException; }
```

Assume that  $B <: A$ ,  $C <: A$ , and  $IndexOutOfBoundsException <: RuntimeException <: Exception$ . Which of the following subtyping relations could be allowed by a sound type system?

- (a)  $D <: H$  and  $H <: G$
- (b)  $D <: G$  and  $H <: F$
- (c)  $D <: G$  and  $H <: G$
- (d)  $H <: D$  and  $H <: F$
- (e) None of the above

### Task 2

Assume the following class definitions in a nominally typed language:

```
class A {...}  
class B extends A {...}
```

Consider now the following two classes:

```
class Super {  
  B foo(B x) { return x; }  
}
```

```
class Sub extends Super {  
  A foo(A x) { return x; }  
}
```

According to the rules presented in the lecture, this subtyping is illegal. Briefly explain why this is the case. However, considering the substitution principle, this subtyping is *safe*. Why?

### Task 3

In this question, we are in a nominal subtyping setting. Some languages have a special type `MyType` that represents the *dynamic type* of this object.

(a) Consider the following code:

```
class Point {
    int x,y;
    boolean equals(MyType other) {
        return x == other.x && y == other.y;
    }
}

class ColorPoint extends Point {
    int color;
    override boolean equals(MyType other) {
        return super.equals(other) && color == other.color;
    }
}
```

This definition requires that the dynamic type of the parameter of `equals` is a subtype of the dynamic type of `this`.

Consider the following definitions that give static types to some variables:

```
Point p;
ColorPoint cp1, cp2;
```

and the following calls:

```
p.equals(cp1)    // A
p.equals(cp2)    // B
cp1.equals(p)    // C
cp2.equals(cp1)  // D
cp1.equals(cp2)  // E
```

Assume a sound, statically-checked type system. Which of the calls above must be forbidden and which may be allowed? Why?

- (b) Answer the same question, assuming that `ColorPoint` is *final*, i.e., we may not declare new classes as its subtypes.
- (c) Assume now that the language includes the feature of *exact types*. An exact type is written `@C` where `C` is a normal type. When we declare that an object `o` is of type `@C`, then `o` is of type `C`, but does not belong to any of the other subtypes of `C`. Assume that the definitions of our variables are changed as follows:

```
@Point p;
@ColorPoint cp1;
ColorPoint cp2;
```

Do not assume that `ColorPoint` is *final*. Which calls should be forbidden now? Why?

**Hint.** The classes shown here may be subclassed in code that is not available. The type-checker *cannot* make the assumption that there are no other class definitions elsewhere.

### Task 4

Assume we have a Java-like language with contravariant parameters where methods can declare *default values* for some of their parameters as follows:

```

class Person {
    public static Person create(
        String firstName,
        String lastName = "None",
        int age = -1
    ) { ... }
}

```

After the first parameter that has a default value, all subsequent parameters must also have a default value. If a method call has  $i$  arguments and the called method has  $j$  parameters, where  $i \leq j$ , the default values are used for the parameters  $i + 1, \dots, j$ . A call `Person.create("Emma")` is therefore equivalent to the call `Person.create("Emma", "None", -1)`.

A call with fewer arguments than parameters without default values leads to an error, and so does a call with more arguments than there are parameters. Note that a method with default arguments is a single method, **not** a set of methods with different numbers of parameters. You can assume that `String` is a final class.

**A)** Consider the following code. Assume  $C <: B <: A$ , and that there are the public constants `A_OBJ` of type `A`, `B_OBJ` of type `B`, and `C_OBJ` of type `C`.

```

class E {
    public B m(B b, A a = C_OBJ) { ... }
}

class E1 extends E {
    public C m(A b, A a) { ... }
}

class E2 extends E {
    public B m(B b = C_OBJ, A a = A_OBJ, C c = C_OBJ) { ... }
}

class E3 extends E {
    public C m(A b = B_OBJ) { ... }
}

```

**A.1** Name all of the subclass declarations shown above that should be rejected by the compiler. For each of them, write a code snippet that results in a runtime type error if the code is admitted.

**A.2** What should be the general type rule for overriding in this language?

**B)** Now assume the same language also has a new way of passing arguments: When using the star operator `*` on an array in an argument list, the elements of the array will be passed as single arguments. For example, if `a` is an array containing the values `v1` and `v2`, the call `m(x, y, *a)` is equivalent to `m(x, y, v1, v2)`. The expansion of arguments with star operators happens *before* default arguments are added to the call.

Consider the following class:

```

class Foo {
    public void bar(A a, B b1, C c = C_OBJ) {...}
}

```

Let `f00` be a reference to an object of type `Foo`. The constants `A_OBJ` etc. exist as before and the subtype relation is still  $C <: B <: A$ . Assume that the compiler accepts each of the following code snippets **B.1**, **B.2**, and **B.3**. Consider only cases where the array references are not null and the arrays do not contain null. For each of them, answer the following two questions:

1. Is it possible that the call will succeed at runtime? If so, give an example of an array that will make the call succeed.
2. Is it possible that the call will fail at runtime? If so, specify the properties that must be checked at runtime and *cannot* be checked statically to catch all possible type errors resulting from the call.

### B.1

```
void baz(C[] cArray) {
    foo.bar(A_OBJ, *cArray);
}
```

### B.2

```
void baz(A[] aArray) {
    foo.bar(*aArray);
}
```

### B.3

```
void baz(String[] stringArray) {
    foo.bar(A_OBJ, B_OBJ, *stringArray);
}
```

## Task 5

Consider the following code written in a programming language supporting structural subtyping and the access modifiers from Java:

```
class A { private A foo(A o) {...} }
class B { protected A foo(A o) {...} }
class C { A foo(A o) {...} }
class D { protected B foo(A o) {...} }
class E { A foo(B o) {...} }
```

The {...} blocks represent the actual implementation of `foo`, which you can assume to be correct, but not necessary identical for all the classes. Which of the following subtype relations does not hold?

- (a)  $B <: A$
- (b)  $E <: A$
- (c)  $C <: E$
- (d)  $D <: C$
- (e) More than one of the above

Now also consider the following class:

```
class F { }
```

Explain why  $F \not<: A$ . Write a client code that would result in a runtime error if subtypes were allowed to remove private methods from their supertypes (that is, if `F` were a subtype of `A`). In your solution, you can add one new method with the same signature to both `A` and `F`.

## Task 6

Consider the following declarations in Java:

```
interface List {
    int getSize();
}

interface Iterator {
    boolean done();
    int getCurrent();
    void next();
    void attach(List l);
}
```

List represents sequences of integers and Iterator represents a specific traversal of a list. An implementation of an iterator starts iterating over the elements of a list by first calling method attach. The following example prints all the elements found during the iteration:

```
void foo(Iterator iter, List list) {
    iter.attach(list);
    while (!iter.done()) {
        print(iter.getCurrent());
        iter.next();
    }
}
```

Does foo typecheck in Java?

Suppose that we want to have different implementations of lists. For example a linked list and an array are two different ways to implement the List interface. What problem would that cause to the implementers of the iterators? What problem would that cause to the method foo?