

Dummy title

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Unspecified Institution.

Abstract

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1 Introduction

here we examine and understand what it means for a mapping to be completed in a desirable way desirable means sound, but also maintainable

Associated types are a powerful form of generics, now integrated in both Scala and Rust. They are a new kind of member, like methods fields and nested classes. Associated types behave as 'virtual' types: they can be overridden, can be abstract and can have a default. However, the user has to specify those types and their concrete instantiations manually. We propose here a different design, where instead of relying on a new kind of member, we reuse the well known concept of nested classes. An operation, call Redirect, will redirect some nested classes in some external types. To simplify our formalization and to keep the focus on the core of our approach, we present our system on top of a simple Java like languages, with only final classes and interfaces, when code reuse is obtained by trait composition instead of conventional inheritance. For example, we could write:

```
String=...
SBox={String inner}
trait={
  Box={Elem inner}
  Elem={Elem concat(Elem that)}
  static method Box merge(Box b,Elem e){return new Box(b.inner.concat(e));}
}
Result=trait<Box=SBox>//equivalent to trait<Box=SBox, Elem=String>
Result.merge(new SBox("hello "), "world");//hello world
```

Here class SBox is just a container of Strings, and trait is code encoding Boxes of any kind of Elem with a concat method. In our examples, we assume a constructor that is just initializing the fields is always present. We will also not consider any other kind of constructors. By instantiating trait<Box=SBox>, we can infer Elem=String, and obtain the flattened code {static method SBox merge(SBox b1,SBox b2){return new SBox(b1.inner.concat(b2.inner));}} where Box and Elem has been removed, and their occurrences are replaced with SBox and String. Note how Result is a new class that could have been written directly by the programmer. There is no trace that it has been generated by trait. Moreover, trait is just a unit of code reuse, and is not a nominal type.

This example show many of the characteristics of our approach:

- (A) We can redirect mutually recursive nested classes by redirecting them all at the same time, and if a partial mapping is provided, the system is able to infer the complete mapping.



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- 48 ■ (B) **Box** and **Elem** are just normal nested classes inside of **trait**; indeed any nested class
 49 can be redirected away. In case any of their (static) methods was implemented, the
 50 implementation is just discarded. In most other approaches, abstract/associated/generic
 51 types are special and have some restriction; for example, in Java/Scala static methods
 52 and constructors can not be invoked on generic/associated types. With redirect, they are
 53 just normal nested classes, so there are no special restrictions on how they can be used.
 54 In our example, note how **merge** calls **new Box(...)**.
- 55 ■ (C) While our example language is nominally typed, nested classes are redirected over
 56 types satisfying the same structural shape. We will show how this offers some advantages
 57 of both nominal and structural typing.

58 A variation of redirect, able to only redirect a single nested class, was already presented
 59 in literature. While points (B) and (C) already applies to such redirect, we will show how
 60 supporting (A) greatly improve their value.

61 The formal core of our work is in defining

- 62 ■ **ValidRedirect**, a computable predicate telling if a mapping respect the structural shapes
 63 and nominal subtype relations.
- 64 ■ **ChoseRedirect**, an algorithm expanding a partial mapping into a complete one.
- 65 ■ And more importantly a formal definition of what properties we expect a good expanding
 66 procedure should respect, and we prove our **ChoseRedirect** respect those properties.

67 After formally defining our map expander, we show that such a feature can be very useful,
 68 by showing how many interesting examples of generics and associated types can be encoded
 69 with redirect, and as an extreme application, a whole library can be adapted to be injected
 70 in a different environment.

71 Features: Structural based generics embedded in a nominal type system. Code is Nominal,
 72 Reuse is Structural. Static methods support for generics, so generics are not just a trik to
 73 make the type system happy but actually change the behaviour Subsume associate types.
 74 After the fact generics; redirect is like mixins for generics Mapping is inferred-> very large
 75 maps are possible -> application to libraries

76 In literature, in addition to conventional Java style F-bound polymorphism, there is
 77 another way to obtain generics: to use associated types (to specify generic paramaters) and
 78 inheritance (to instantiate the paramaters). However, when parametrizing multiple types,
 79 the user to specify the full mapping. For example in Java interface A B m(); inteface
 80 BString f(); class G<TA extends A<TB>, TB>//TA and TB explicitly listed String g(TA
 81 a TB b)return a.m().f(); class MyA implements A<MyB>.. class MyB implements B ..
 82 G<MyA,MyB>//instantiation Also scala offers genercs, and could encode the example in
 83 the same way, but Scala also offers associated types, allowing to write instead....

84 Rust also offers generics and associated types, but also support calling static methods
 85 over generic and associated types.

86 We provide here a foundational model for genericity that subsume the power of F-bound
 87 polimorphims and associated types. Moreover, it allows for large sets of generic parameter
 88 instantiations to be inferred starting from a much smaller mapping. For example, in our
 89 system we could just write g= A= method B m() B= method String f() method String g(A a
 90 B b)=a.m().f() MyA= method MyB m()= new MyB(); .. MyB= method String f()="Hello";
 91 .. g<A=MyA>//instantiation. The mapping A=MyA,B=MyB

92 We model a minimal calculus with interfaces and final classes, where implementing an
 93 interface is the only way to induce subtyping. We will show how supporting subtyping
 94 constitute the core technical difficulty in our work, inducing ambiguity in the mappings.

95 As you can see, we base our generic matches the structor of the type instead of respect-
 96 ing a subtype requirement as in F-bound polymorphis. We can easily encode subtype
 97 requirements by using implements: Print=interface method String print(); g= A:implements
 98 Print method A printMe(A a1,A a2) if(a1.print().size())>a2.print.size())return a1; return a2;
 99 MyPrint=implements Print .. g<A=MyPrint> //instantiation g<A=Print> //works too

100 ————— example showing ordering need to strictly improve EI1: interface EA1: imple-
 101 ments EI1

102 EI2: interface EA2: implements EI2

103 EB: EA1 a1 EA1 a1

104 A1: A2: B: A1 a1 A2 a2 [B = EB] // A1 -> EI1, A2 -> EA2 a // A1 -> EA1, A2 ->
 105 EI2 b // A1 -> EA1, A2 -> EA2 c

106 a <=b b <=a c<= a,b a <= c

107 hi Hi class

108
$$\begin{array}{l} a ::= b \quad c \\ aa\text{hiHi}\text{class}qaq \quad a ::= b \quad c \\ a ::= b \quad c \end{array}$$

109
$$\}}[()]$$

110
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{(TOP)} \\ a \xrightarrow{b} c \quad \forall i < 3a \vdash b : \text{OK} \\ \hline \forall i < 3a \vdash b : \text{OK} \quad \begin{array}{l} a \\ b \\ c \end{array} \\ 1 + 2 \rightarrow 3 \end{array}$$

111 **2 Formal**

$id ::= t \mid C$	
$T ::= \text{This}n. Cs$	
$CD ::= C=E$	class declaration
$CV ::= C=LV$	evaluated class declaration
$D ::= id=E$	declaration
$DL ::= id=L$	partially-evaluated-declaration
$DV ::= id=LV$	evaluated-declaration
$L ::= \text{interface} \{Tz; amtz ; \} \mid \{Tz; Ms ; K\}$	literal
$LV ::= \text{interface} \{Tz; amtz ; \} \mid \{Tz; MVs ; K\}$	literal value
$amt ::= T m(Txs)$	abstract method
$mt ::= T m(Txs) e?$	method
112 $Tx ::= T x$	paramater-declaration
$M ::= CD \mid mt$	member
$MV ::= CV \mid mt$	
$Mid ::= C \mid m$	member-id
$K ::= \text{constructor}(Txs)$	constructor
$e ::= x \mid e.m(es) \mid e.x \mid \text{new } T(es)$	expression
$E ::= L \mid t \mid E <+ E \mid E(Cs=T)$	library-expression
$\mathcal{E}_V ::= \square \mid \mathcal{E}_V <+ E \mid LV <+ \mathcal{E}_V \mid \mathcal{E}_V(Cs=T)$	context of library-evaluation
$\mathcal{E}_v ::= \square \mid \mathcal{E}_v.m(es) \mid v.m(vs \mathcal{E}_v es) \mid \mathcal{E}_v.x \mid \text{new } T(vs \mathcal{E}_v es)$	
$v ::= \text{new } T(vs)$	
$p ::= DLs; DVs$	program
$S ::= Ds e$	source code

113 We use t and C to syntactically distinguish between trait and class names. A type (T)
114 has an interesting syntax, see below for what it means. An E is a top-level class expression,
115 which can contain class-literals, references to traits, and operations on them, namely our sum
116 $E <+ E$ and redirect $e(Cs = T)$. A declaration D is just an $id = E$, representing that id is
117 declared to be the value of E , we also have CD, CV, DL , and DV that constrain the forms
118 of the LHS and RHS of the declaration. A literal L has 4 components, an optional interface
119 keyword, a list of implemented interfaces, a list of members, and an optional constructor.
120 For simplicity, interfaces can only contain abstract-methods (amt) as members, and cannot
121 have constructors. A member M , is either an (potentially abstract) method mt or a nested
122 class declaration (CD). A member value MV , is a member that has been fully compiled. An
123 mid is an identifier, identifying a member. Constructors, K , contain a Txs indicating the
124 type and names of fields. An e is normal fetherweight-java style expression, it has variables
125 x , method calls $e.m(es)$, field accesses $e.x$ and object creation $newes$. $CtxV$ is the evalation
126 context for class-expressions E , and $ctxv$ is the usuall one for e 's.

127 An S represents what the top-level source-code form of our language is, it's just a sequence
128 of declarations and a main expression. The most interesting form of the grammer is a p , it is
129 a 'program', used as the context for many reductions and typing rules, on the LHS of the ;
130 is a stack representing which (nested) declaration is currently being processed, the bottom

131 (rightmost) DL represents the D of the source-program that is currently being processed.
 132 Th RHS of the $;$ represents the top-level declarations that have already been compiled, this
 133 is necessary to look up top-level classes and traits.

134 To look up the value of a type in the program we will use the notation $p(T)$, which is defined
 135 by the following, but only if the RHS denotes an LV :

$$(_; _, C=L, _)(\mathbf{This}0.C.Cs) := L(Cs)$$

$$136 \quad (id=L, p)(\mathbf{This}0.Cs) := L(Cs)$$

$$137 \quad (id=L, p)(\mathbf{This}n+1.Cs) := p(\mathbf{This}n.Cs)$$

138 To get the relative value of a trait, we define $p[t]$:

$$139 \quad (DLs; _, t=LV, _)[t] := LV[\mathbf{This}\#DLs]$$

140

141 To get a the value of a literal, in a way that can be understand from the current location

142 $(\mathbf{This}0)$, we define:

$$143 \quad p[T] := p(T)[T]$$

144

145 And a few simple auxiliary definitions:

$$Ts \in p := \forall T \in Ts \bullet p(T) \text{ is defined}$$

$$L(\emptyset) := L$$

$$146 \quad L(C.Cs) := L(Cs) \text{ where } L = \mathbf{interface?} \{ _; _, C=L, _; _ \}$$

$$L[C=E'] := \mathbf{interface?} \{ Tz; MVs C=E' Ms; K? \}$$

$$147 \quad \text{where } L = \mathbf{interface?} \{ Tz; MVs C=_ Ms; K? \}$$

We have two-top level reduction rules defining our language, of the form $Dse^{\sim\sim} > Ds'e$ which simply reduces the source-code. The first rule (*compile*) ‘compiles’ each top-level declaration (using a well-typed subset of already compiled top-level declarations), this reduces the defining expression. The second rule, (*main*) is executed once all the top-level declarations have compiled (i.e. are now fully evaluated class literals), it typechecks the top-level declarations and the main expression, and then proceeds to reduce it. In principle only one-typechecking is needed, but we repeat it to avoid declaring more rules.

```

155 Define Ds e --> Ds' e'
156 =====
157 DVs' |- Ok
158 empty; DVs'; id | E --> E'
159 (compile)----- DVs' subsetof DVs
160 DVs id = E Ds e --> DVs id = E' Ds e
161
162 DVs |- Ok
163 DVs |- e : T
164 DVs |- e --> e'
165 (main)----- for some type T
166 DVs e --> DVs e'

```

3 Compilation

Aside from the redirect operation itself, compilation is the most interesting part, it is defined by a reduction arrow $p; id | E \rightarrow E'$, the *id* represents the id of the type/trait that we are currently compiling, it is needed since it will be the name of *This0*, and we use that fact that that is equal to *This1.id* to compare types for equality. The (*CtxV*) rule is the standard context, the (*L*) rule propagates compilation inside of nested-classes, (*trait*) merely evaluates a trait reference to its defined body, (*sum*) and (*redirect*) perform our two meta-operations.

```

174 Define p; id | E --> E'
175 =====
176 p; id | E --> E'
177 (CtxV) -----
178 p; id | CtxV[E] --> CtxV[E']
179
180 id = L[C = E], p; C | E --> E'
181 (L) ----- // TODO use fresh C?
182 p; id | L[C = E] --> L[C = E']
183
184 (trait) -----
185 p; id | t -> p[t]
186
187 LV1 <+p' LV2 = LV3 p' = C' = LV3, p
188 (sum) ----- for fresh C'
189 p; id | LV1 <+ LV2 --> LV3
190
191 // TODO: Inline and de-42 redirect formalism
192 (redirect) -----LV'=redirect(p, LV, Cs, P)
193 p; id | LV(Cs=P) -> LV'

```

4 The Sum operation

The sum operation is defined by the rule $L1 < +p L2 = L3$, it is unconventional as it assumes we already have the result ($L3$), and simply checks that it is indeed correct. We believe (but have not proved) that this rule is unambiguous, if $L1 < +p L2 = L3$ and $L1 < +p L2 = L3'$, then $L3 = L3'$ (since the order of members does not matter for Ls).

The main rule for summing of non-interfaces, sums the members, unions the implemented interfaces (and uses *minimize* to remove any duplicates), it also ensures that at most one of them has a constructor. For summing an interface with a interface/class we require that an interface cannot 'gain' members due to a sum. The actual L42 implementation is far less restrictive, but requires complicated rules to ensure soundness, due to problems that could arise if a summed nested-interface is implemented. Summing of traits/classes with state is a non-trivial problem and not the focus of our paper, there are many prior works on this topic, and our full L42 language simply uses ordinary methods to represent state, however this would take too much effort to explain here.

```
Define L1 <+p L2 = L3
```

```
=====
```

```
{Tz1; Mz1; K?1} <+p {Tz2; Mz2; K?2} = {Tz; Mz; K?}
```

```
Tz = p.minimize(Tz1 U Tz2)
```

```
Mz1 <+p Mz1 = Mz
```

```
{empty, K?1, K?2} = {empty, K?} //may be too sophisticated?
```

```
interface{Tz1; amtz,amtz';} <+p interface?{Tz2;amtz;} = interface {Tz;amtz,amtz';}
```

```
Tz = p.minimize(Tz1 U Tz2)
```

```
if interface? = interface then amtz'=empty
```

The rules for summing members are simple, we take two sets of members collect all the ones with unique names, and sum those with duplicates. To sum nested classes we merely sum their bodies, to sum two methods we require their signatures to be identical, if they both have bodies, the result has the body of the RHS, otherwise the result has the body (if present) of the LHS.

```
Define Mz <+p Mz' = Mz"
```

```
-----
```

```
M, Mz <+p M', Mz' = M <+p M', Mz <+p Mz
```

```
//note: only defined when M.Mid = M'.Mid
```

```
Mz <+p Mz' = Mz, Mz':
```

```
dom(Mz) disjoint dom(Mz')
```

```
Define M <+p M' = M"
```

```
-----
```

```
T' m(Txs') e? <+p T m(Txs) e = T m(Txs) e
```

```
T', Txs'.Ts =p Ts, Txs
```

```
T' m(Txs') e? <+p T m(Txs) = T m(Txs) e?
```

```
T', Txs'.Ts =p Ts, Txs
```

```
(C = L) <+p (C = L') = L <+p.push(C) L'
```

240 5 Type System

241 The type system is split into two parts: type checking programs and class literals, and the
 242 typechecking of expressions. The latter part is mostly conventional, it involves typing judgments
 243 of the form $p; Txs \vdash e : T$, with the usual program p and variable environment Txs (often
 244 called Γ in the literature). rule $(Dsok)$ type checks a sequence of top-level declarations by
 245 simply push each declaration onto a program and typecheck the resulting program. Rule pok
 246 typechecks a program by check the topmost class literal: we type check each of it's members
 247 (including all nested classes), check that it properly implements each interface it claims to,
 248 does something weird, and finanly check check that it's constructor only referenced existing
 249 types,

250

251

252 Define $p \vdash Ok$

253 =====

254

255 $D1; Ds \vdash Ok \dots Dn; Ds \vdash Ok$ 256 $(Ds \text{ ok}) \text{ ----- } Ds = D1 \dots Dn$ 257 $Ds \vdash Ok$

258

259 $p \vdash M1 : Ok \dots p \vdash Mn : Ok$ 260 $p \vdash P1 : Implemented \dots p \vdash Pn : Implemented$ 261 $p \vdash \text{implements}(Pz; Ms) \text{ /*WTF?*/} \quad \text{if } K? = K: p.\text{exists}(K.Txs.Ts)$ 262 $(p \text{ ok}) \text{ ----- } p.\text{top}() = \text{interface? } \{P1 \dots Pn; M1, \dots, Mn$ 263 $p \vdash Ok$

264

265 $p.\text{minimize}(Pz) \text{ subseq } p.\text{minimize}(p.\text{top}().Pz)$ 266 $\text{amt1 } _ \text{ in } p.\text{top}().Ms \dots \text{amtn } _ \text{ in } p.\text{top}().Ms$ 267 $(P \text{ implemented}) \text{ ----- } p[P] = \text{interface } \{Pz; \text{amt1 } \dots$ 268 $p \vdash P : Implemented$

269

270 $(\text{amt-ok}) \text{ ----- } p.\text{exists}(T, Txs.Ts)$ 271 $p \vdash T \text{ m}(Tcs) : Ok$

272

273 $p; \text{This0 this}, Txs \vdash e : T$ 274 $(\text{mt-ok}) \text{ ----- } p.\text{exists}(T, Txs.Ts)$ 275 $p \vdash T \text{ m}(Tcs) e : Ok$

276

277 $C = L, p \vdash Ok$ 278 $(\text{cd-Ok}) \text{ -----}$ 279 $p \vdash C = L : OK$

280

281 Rule $(Pimplemented)$ checks that an interface is properly implemented by the program-
 282 top, we simply check that it declares that it implements every one of the interfaces super-
 283 interfaces and methods. Rules $(amt - ok)$ and $(mt - ok)$ are straightforward, they both
 284 check that types mentioned in the method signature exist, and ofcourse for the latter case,
 285 that the body respects this signature.

286 To typecheck a nested class declaration, we simply push it onto the program and typecheck
 287 the top-of the program as before.

288 The expression typesystem is mostly straightforward and similar to feartherwiegth Java,
 289 notable we we use $p[T]$ to look up information about types, as it properly ‘from’s paths, and
 290 use a classes constructor definitions to determine the types of fields.

```

291 Define p; Txs |- e : T
292 =====
293 (var)
294 ----- T x in Txs
295 p; Txs |- x : T
296
297 (call)
298 p; Txs |- e0 : T0
299 ...
300 p; Txs |- en : Tn
301 ----- T' m(T1 x1 ... Tn xn) _ in p[T0].Ms
302 p; Txs |- e0.m(e1 ... en) : T'
303
304 (field)
305 p; Txs |- e : T
306 ----- p[T].K = constructor(_ T' x _)
307 p; Txs |- e.x : T'
308
309
310 (new)
311 p; Txs |- e1 : T1 ... p; Txs |- en : Tn
312 ----- p[T].K = constructor(T1 x1 ... Tn xn)
313 p; Txs |- new T(e1 ... en)
314
315
316 (sub)
317 p; Txs |- e : T
318 ----- T' in p[T].Pz
319 p; Txs |- e : T'
320
321
322 (equiv)
323 p; Txs |- e : T
324 ----- T =p T'
325 p; Txs |- e : T'
326
327 - towel1:.. //Map: towel2:.. //Map: lib: T:towel1 f1 ... fn
    MyProgram: T:towel2 Lib:lib[T=This0.T] ... -

```

328 ——— References ———