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Multiversal Equality

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Previously, Scala had universal equality: Two values of any types could be compared with each other with = and \neq . This came from the fact that = and \neq are implemented in terms of Java's equals method, which can also compare values of any two reference types.

Universal equality is convenient. But it is also dangerous since it undermines type safety. For instance, let's assume one is left after some refactoring with an erroneous program where a value y has type s instead of the correct type T.

```
val x = ... // of type T
val y = ... // of type S, but should be T
x == y // typechecks, will always yield false
```

If y gets compared to other values of type T, the program will still typecheck, since values of all types can be compared with each other. But it will probably give unexpected results and fail at runtime.

Multiversal equality is an opt-in way to make universal equality safer. It uses a binary type class scala.CanEqual to indicate that values of two given types can be compared with each other. The example above would not typecheck if s or T was a class that derives CanEqual, e.g.

```
class T derives CanEqual
```

Alternatively, one can also provide a CanEqual given instance directly, like this:

```
given CanEqual[T, T] = CanEqual.derived
```

This definition effectively says that values of type τ can (only) be compared to other values of type τ when using = or \neq . The definition affects type checking but it

has no significance for runtime behavior, since = always maps to equals and \neq always maps to the negation of equals. The right-hand side CanEqual.derived of the definition is a value that has any CanEqual instance as its type. Here is the definition of class CanEqual and its companion object:

```
package scala
import annotation.implicitNotFound

@implicitNotFound("Values of types ${L} and ${R} cannot be compared with == or
sealed trait CanEqual[-L, -R]

object CanEqual:
  object derived extends CanEqual[Any, Any]
```

One can have several CanEqual given instances for a type. For example, the four definitions below make values of type A and type B comparable with each other, but not comparable to anything else:

```
given CanEqual[A, A] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[B, B] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[A, B] = CanEqual.derived
given CanEqual[B, A] = CanEqual.derived
```

The scala.CanEqual object defines a number of CanEqual given instances that together define a rule book for what standard types can be compared (more details below).

There is also a "fallback" instance named canEqualAny that allows comparisons over all types that do not themselves have a CanEqual given. canEqualAny is defined as follows:

```
def canEqualAny[L, R]: CanEqual[L, R] = CanEqual.derived
```

Even though canEqualAny is not declared as given, the compiler will still construct an canEqualAny instance as answer to an implicit search for the type CanEqual[L, R], unless L or R have CanEqual instances defined on them, or the language feature strictEquality is enabled.

The primary motivation for having canEqualAny is backwards compatibility. If this is of no concern, one can disable canEqualAny by enabling the language feature strictEquality. As for all language features this can be either done with an import

```
import scala.language.strictEquality
```

or with a command line option -language:strictEquality.

Deriving CanEqual Instances

Instead of defining CanEqual instances directly, it is often more convenient to derive them. Example:

```
class Box[T](x: T) derives CanEqual
```

By the usual rules of type class derivation, this generates the following CanEqual instance in the companion object of Box:

```
given [T, U](using CanEqual[T, U]): CanEqual[Box[T], Box[U]] =
   CanEqual.derived
```

That is, two boxes are comparable with = or \neq if their elements are. Examples:

```
new Box(1) == new Box(1L)  // ok since there is an instance for
`CanEqual[Int, Long]`
new Box(1) == new Box("a")  // error: can't compare
new Box(1) == 1  // error: can't compare
```

Precise Rules for Equality Checking

The precise rules for equality checking are as follows.

If the strictEquality feature is enabled then a comparison using x = y or $x \neq y$ between values x: T and y: U is legal if there is a given of type CanEqual[T, U].

In the default case where the strictEquality feature is not enabled the comparison is also legal if

- 1. T and U are the same, or
- 2. one of T, U is a subtype of the *lifted* version of the other type, or
- 3. neither T nor U have a reflexive CanEqual instance.

Explanations:

 lifting a type s means replacing all references to abstract types in covariant positions of s by their upper bound, and replacing all refinement types in covariant positions of s by their parent. • a type T has a *reflexive* CanEqual instance if the implicit search for CanEqual[T, T] succeeds.

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Predefined CanEqual Instances

The CanEqual object defines instances for comparing

- the primitive types Byte, Short, Char, Int, Long, Float, Double, Boolean, and Unit,
- java.lang.Number, java.lang.Boolean, and java.lang.Character,
- scala.collection.Seq, and scala.collection.Set.

Instances are defined so that every one of these types has a *reflexive* CanEqual instance, and the following holds:

- Primitive numeric types can be compared with each other.
- Primitive numeric types can be compared with subtypes of java.lang.Number (and *vice versa*).
- Boolean can be compared with java.lang.Boolean (and vice versa).
- Char can be compared with java.lang.Character (and vice versa).
- Two sequences (of arbitrary subtypes of scala.collection.Seq) can be compared with each other if their element types can be compared. The two sequence types need not be the same.
- Two sets (of arbitrary subtypes of scala.collection.Set) can be compared with each other if their element types can be compared. The two set types need not be the same.
- Any subtype of AnyRef can be compared with Null (and vice versa).

Why Two Type Parameters?

One particular feature of the CanEqual type is that it takes *two* type parameters, representing the types of the two items to be compared. By contrast, conventional implementations of an equality type class take only a single type parameter which represents the common type of *both* operands. One type parameter is simpler than two, so why go through the additional complication? The reason has to do with the fact that, rather than coming up with a type class where no operation existed before, we are dealing with a refinement of pre-existing, universal equality. It is best illustrated through an example.

Say you want to come up with a safe version of the contains method on List[T]. The original definition of contains in the standard library was:

```
class List[+T]:
    ...
    def contains(x: Any): Boolean
```

That uses universal equality in an unsafe way since it permits arguments of any type to be compared with the list's elements. The "obvious" alternative definition

```
def contains(x: T): Boolean
```

does not work, since it refers to the covariant parameter T in a nonvariant context. The only variance-correct way to use the type parameter T in contains is as a lower bound:

```
def contains[U >: T](x: U): Boolean
```

This generic version of contains is the one used in the current (Scala 2.13) version of List . It looks different but it admits exactly the same applications as the contains(x: Any) definition we started with. However, we can make it more useful (i.e. restrictive) by adding a CanEqual parameter:

```
def contains[U >: T](x: U)(using CanEqual[T, U]): Boolean // (1)
```

This version of contains is equality-safe! More precisely, given x: T, xs: List[T] and y: U, then xs.contains(y) is type-correct if and only if x = y is type-correct.

Unfortunately, the crucial ability to "lift" equality type checking from simple equality and pattern matching to arbitrary user-defined operations gets lost if we restrict ourselves to an equality class with a single type parameter. Consider the following signature of contains with a hypothetical CanEqual1[T] type class:

```
def contains[U >: T](x: U)(using CanEqual1[U]): Boolean // (2)
```

This version could be applied just as widely as the original <code>contains(x: Any)</code> method, since the <code>CanEqual1[Any]</code> fallback is always available! So we have gained nothing. What got lost in the transition to a single parameter type class was the original rule that <code>CanEqual[A, B]</code> is available only if neither <code>A</code> nor <code>B</code> have a reflexive <code>CanEqual</code> instance. That rule simply cannot be expressed if there is a single type parameter for <code>CanEqual</code>.

The situation is different under -language:strictEquality. In that case, the CanEqual[Any, Any] or CanEqual1[Any] instances would never be available, and the

single and two-parameter versions would indeed coincide for most practical purposes.

But assuming -language:strictEquality immediately and everywhere poses migration problems which might well be unsurmountable. Consider again contains, which is in the standard library. Parameterizing it with the CanEqual type class as in (1) is an immediate win since it rules out non-sensical applications while still allowing all sensible ones. So it can be done almost at any time, modulo binary compatibility concerns. On the other hand, parameterizing contains with CanEqual as in (2) would make contains unusable for all types that have not yet declared a CanEqual1 instance, including all types coming from Java. This is clearly unacceptable. It would lead to a situation where, rather than migrating existing libraries to use safe equality, the only upgrade path is to have parallel libraries, with the new version only catering to types deriving CanEqual1 and the old version dealing with everything else. Such a split of the ecosystem would be very problematic, which means the cure is likely to be worse than the disease.

For these reasons, it looks like a two-parameter type class is the only way forward because it can take the existing ecosystem where it is and migrate it towards a future where more and more code uses safe equality.

In applications where -language:strictEquality is the default one could also introduce a one-parameter type alias such as

```
type Eq[-T] = CanEqual[T, T]
```

Operations needing safe equality could then use this alias instead of the twoparameter CanEqual class. But it would only work under language:strictEquality, since otherwise the universal Eq[Any] instance would be available everywhere.

More on multiversal equality is found in a blog post and a GitHub issue.

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