

编程语言的设计原理 Design Principles of Programming Languages

Haiyan Zhao, Di Wang

赵海燕,王迪

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Part III Chap 15: Subtyping

Subsumption

Subtype relation Properties of subtyping and typing Subtyping and other features Intersection and union types



Subtyping

Motivation



With the *usual typing rule* for applications

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_1 : \mathtt{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathtt{T}_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_2 : \mathtt{T}_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2 : \mathtt{T}_{12}}$$

$$(T-APP)$$

is the term

$$(\lambda r: \{x:Nat\}, r.x) \{x=0,y=1\}$$

right?

It is not well typed

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With the usual typing rule for applications

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : T_{12}} \qquad (T-APP)$$

the term

$$(\lambda r: \{x:Nat\}, r.x) \{x=0,y=1\}$$

is *not* well typed.

This is silly: what we're doing is passing the function *a better argument* than it needs



More generally: some types are better than others, in the sense that a value of one can always safely be used where a value of the other is expected

We can *formalize this intuition* by introducing:

- 1. a *subtyping relation* between types, written S <: T
- a rule of subsumption stating that, if S <: T, then any value of type S can also be regarded as having type T, i.e.,

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : S \qquad S <: T}{\Gamma \vdash t : T} \qquad (T-SUB)$$

Principle of safe substitution

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Subtyping



Intuitions: S <: T means ...

"An element of **S** may safely be used wherever an element of **T** is expected" (Official)

- S is "better than" T
- S is a subset of T
- S is more informative / richer than T

Example



Back to the example:

$$(\lambda r: \{x:Nat\}, r.x) \{x=0,y=1\}$$

with subtyping between record types, so that, for example $\{x: Nat, y: Nat\} <: \{x: Nat\}$

by subsumption

$$\vdash \{x = 0, y = 1\} : \{x: Nat\}$$

and hence

$$(\lambda r: \{x: Nat\}, r.x) \{x=0, y=1\}$$

is *well* typed.

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Subtype Relation

The Subtype Relation: Top



It is *convenient* to have a type that is a *supertype of every type*

We introduce a new *type constant* Top, plus *a rule* that makes Top a *maximum element* of the subtype relation

i.e,

S <: Top

(S-TOP)

Cf. Object in Java.

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Subtype Relation: General rules





 Following directly from the intuition of safe substitution, Subtyping should be reflexive, and transitive



Subtyping for Record Types



"Width subtyping" : forgetting fields on the right

 $\left\{l_i: T_i^{i \in 1..n+k}\right\} <: \left\{l_i: T_i^{i \in 1..n}\right\}$ (S-RcdWidth)

The supertype has fewer fields than its subtypes

Intuition:

{x: Nat} is the type of all records with at least a numeric x field



"Width subtyping" (forgetting fields on the right):

 $\left\{l_i: T_i^{i \in 1..n+k}\right\} <: \left\{l_i: T_i^{i \in 1..n}\right\}$ (S-RcdWidth)

Intuition:

- Note that the record type with more fields is a subtype of the record type with fewer fields
- Reason: the type with more fields places stronger constraints on values, so it describes fewer values

This rule applies only to record types where the common fields are identical



"Depth subtyping" within fields:

The types of *individual fields* may change, *as long as* the type of each *corresponding field* in the two records are in the *subtype relation*





 We can use these rules to infer the subtype relation between given types





We can also use S-RcdDepth to refine the type of just a single record field (instead of refining every field), by using a so called S-REFL to obtain trivial subtyping derivations for other fields.

$$\frac{\{a: Nat, b: Nat\} <: \{a: Nat\}}{\{x: \{a: Nat\}, y: \{m: Nat\}\}} \leq \frac{\{m: Nat\}}{\{x: \{a: Nat\}, y: \{m: Nat\}\}} \leq \frac{\{n: Nat\}}{\{x: \{a: Nat\}, y: \{m: Nat\}\}} \leq \frac{\{n: Nat\}}{\{x: \{a: Nat\}, y: \{m: Nat\}\}}$$



The order of fields in a record doesn't make any difference to how we can safely use it, since the only thing that we can do with records (projecting their fields) is insensitive to the order of fields

S-RcdPerm tells us that {c:Top, b: Bool, a: Nat} <: {a: Nat, b: Bool, c:Top} and

{a: Nat, b: Bool, c:Top} <: {c:Top, b: Bool, a: Nat}

IS98.

Permutation of fields:

$$\frac{\{k_j: S_j \stackrel{j \in 1..n}{}\} \text{ is a permutation of } \{l_i: T_i \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{}\}}{\{k_j: S_j \stackrel{j \in 1..n}{}\} <: \{l_i: T_i \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{}\}}$$

Using S-RcdPerm together with S-RcdWidth & S-Trans allows us to drop arbitrary fields within records

Variations

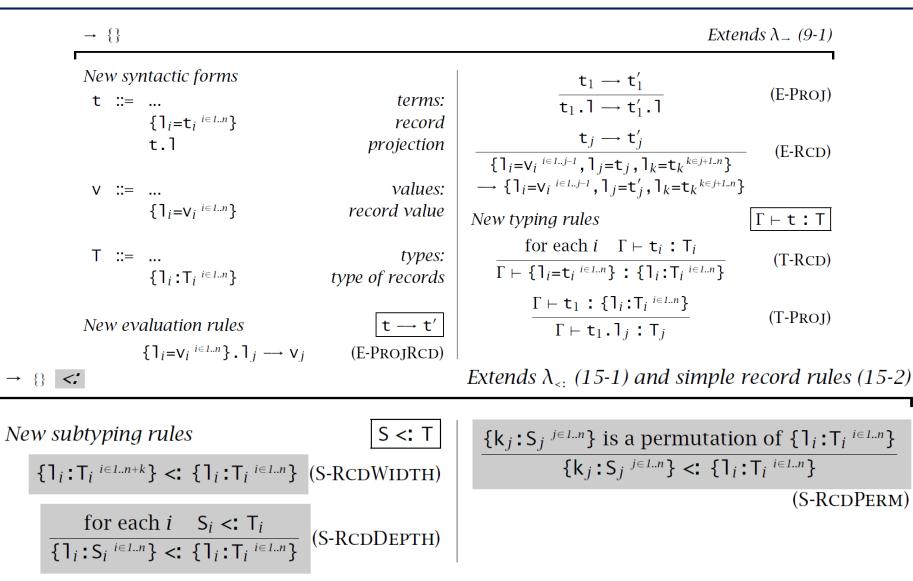


Real languages often choose *not to adopt all of these record subtyping rules,* e.g., in Java,

- A subclass may not change the argument or result types of a method of its superclass (i.e., *no depth subtyping*)
- Each class has just one superclass ("single inheritance" of classes) each class member (field or method) can be assigned a single index, adding new indices "on the right" as more members are added in subclasses (i.e., no permutation for classes)
- A class may implement multiple interfaces ("*multiple inheritance*" of interfaces) (i.e., *permutation* is allowed for *interfaces*)

Recap for subtyping







Subtyping for

functional types



A high-order language, *functions* can be passed as arguments to other *functions*

$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \qquad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$
 (S-ARROW)

The Subtype Relation: Arrow types



Note the order of T_1 and S_1 in the first premise.

The subtype relation is

- contravariant in the left-hand sides of arrows
- covariant in the right-hand sides of arrows

$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \qquad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$

$$(S-ARROW)$$



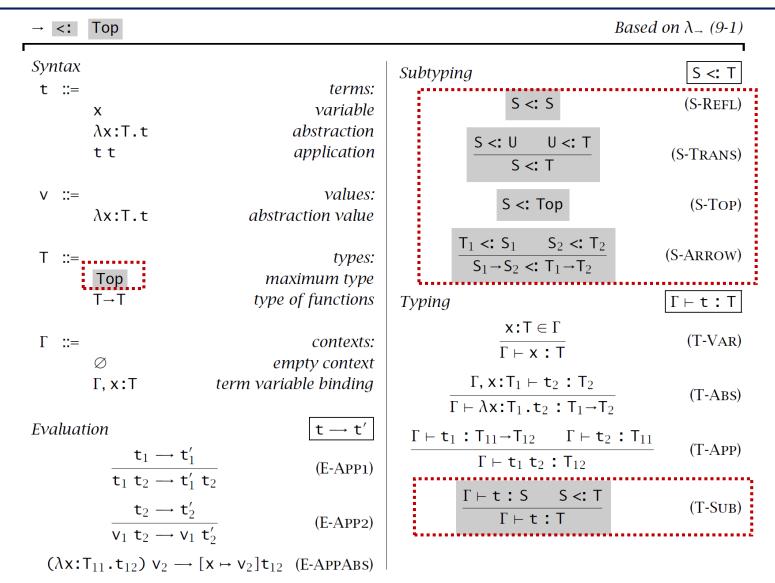
$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \qquad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$
 (S-ARROW)

Intuition: if we have a function **f** of type $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$,

- 1. f accepts elements of type S_1 ; clearly, f will also accept elements of any subtype T_1 of S_1
- 2. the type of f also tells us that it returns elements of type S_2 ; then these results can be viewed as belonging to any supertype T_2 of S_2
- i.e., any function f of type $S_1 \to S_2$ can also be viewed as having type $T_1 \to T_2$

Recap for subtyping





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A subtyping is *a binary relation* between *types* that is *closed* under the following rules

(S-Refl)	S <: S
(S-Trans)	S <: U U <: T S <: T
(S-RCDWIDTH)	$\{l_i: T_i \in 1, k\} <: \{l_i: T_i \in 1, k\}$
(S-RCDDepth)	
(S-RCDPERM)	$\frac{\{k_j: S_j \ ^{j \in 1n}\} \text{ is a permutation of } \{l_i: T_i \ ^{i \in 1n}\}}{\{k_j: S_j \ ^{j \in 1n}\} <: \{l_i: T_i \ ^{i \in 1n}\}}$
(S-Arrow)	$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \qquad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$
(S-TOP)	S <: Top

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Properties of Subtyping



Statements of progress and preservation theorems are *unchanged* from λ_{\rightarrow} .

However, Proofs become a bit *more involved*, because the typing relation is no longer *syntax directed*.

Given a derivation, we don't always know what rule was used in the last step.

e.g., the following rule could appear anywhere



When we say a set of rules is syntax-directed we mean two things:

- 1. There is *exactly one rule* in the set that applies to each syntactic form. (We can tell by the syntax of a term which rule to use.)
 - *e.g.*, In order to derive a type for t_1 t_2 , we must use T-App.
- 2. We don't have to "guess" an input (or output) for any rule.
 - *e.g.,* To derive a type for t_1 t_2 , we need to derive a type for t_1 and a type for t_2 .

An Inversion Lemma for subtyping



Lemma: If $U \le T_1 \rightarrow T_2$, then U has the form $U_1 \rightarrow U_2$, with $T_1 \le U_1$ and $U_2 \le T_2$.

Proof: By induction on subtyping derivations.

Case S-ARROW: $U = U_1 \rightarrow U_2$ $T_1 <: U_1, U_2 <: T_2$ Immediate.

Case S-REFL: $U = T_1 \rightarrow T_2$

- By S-REFL (twice), $T_1 \leq T_1$ and $T_2 \leq T_2$, as required.

Case S-TRANS: $U \lt: W \qquad W \lt: T_1 \rightarrow T_2$

- Applying the IH to the second subderivation, we find that W has the form $W_1 \rightarrow W_2$, with $T_1 <: W_1$ and $W_2 <: T_2$.
- Now the IH applies again (to the first subderivation), telling us that U has the form $U_1 \rightarrow U_2$, with $W_1 <: U_1$ and $U_2 <: W_2$.
- By S-TRANS, $T_1 \le U_1$, and, by S-TRANS again, $U_2 \le T_2$, as required.

Inversion Lemma for Typing



- Lemma: if $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: S_1. s_2: T_1 \rightarrow T_2$, then $T_1 <: S_1 \text{ and } \Gamma, x: S_1 \vdash s_2: T_2$
- **Proof:** Induction on typing derivations.
 - Case T-ABS: $T_1 = S_1, T_2 = S_2$ $\Gamma, x: S_1 \vdash S_2: S_2$
 - Case T-SUB: $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:S_1$. $s_2: U$ U: $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$
 - By the subtyping inversion lemma, U has the form of $U_1 \rightarrow U_2$, with $T_1 <: U_1$ and $U_2 <: T_2$.
 - The IH now applies, yielding $U_1 \leq S_1$ and Γ , $x:S_1 \vdash S_2 \in U_2$.
 - From $U_1 <: S_1$ and $T_1 <: U_1$, rule S-Trans gives $T_1 <: S_1$.
 - From Γ , x:S₁ \vdash s₂ : U₂ and U₂ <: T₂, rule T-Sub gives Γ , x: S₁ \vdash s₂: T₂, thus we are done

Preservation



Theorem: If $\Gamma \vdash t$: T and $t \rightarrow t'$, then $\Gamma \vdash t' : T$.

Proof: By induction on *typing derivations*.

Which cases are likely to be hard?

Preservation - Subsumption case



Case T-SUB: t : S S <: T

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By the induction hypothesis, \Gamma \vdash t' : S.
By T-SUB, \Gamma \vdash t': T.
```

Not hard!



Case T-APP:

 $t = t_1 t_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_1: T_{11} \longrightarrow T_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2: T_{11} \quad T = T_{12}$

By the inversion lemma for evaluation, there are

three rules

by which $t \rightarrow t'$ can be derived:

E-APP1, E-APP2, and E-APPABS.

Proceed by cases



Case T-APP:

$$t = t_1 \ t_2 \ \Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \longrightarrow T_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11} \qquad T = T_{12}$$

<u>Subcase</u> E-APP1 : $t_1 \rightarrow t'_1$ $t' = t'_1 t_2$

The result follows from the induction hypothesis and T-APP

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_{1} : \mathtt{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathtt{T}_{12} & \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_{2} : \mathtt{T}_{11} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_{1} \ \mathtt{t}_{2} : \mathtt{T}_{12} \\ \hline \mathtt{t}_{1} \ \hline \mathtt{t}_{1} \ \hline \mathtt{t}_{1} \ \hline \mathtt{t}_{2} \ \hline \mathtt{t}_{1} \ \hline \mathtt{t}_{2} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} (\text{T-APP}) \\ (\text{E-APP1}) \end{array}$$



Case T-APP:

$$\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2 \ \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{t}_1 : \mathbf{T}_{11} \longrightarrow \mathbf{T}_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{t}_2 : \mathbf{T}_{11} \quad \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}_{12}$$

<u>Subcase</u> E-APP2: $t_1 = v_1 \quad t_2 \rightarrow t'_2 \quad t' = v_1 \quad t'_2$

Similar.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \vdash \mathtt{t}_{1} : \mathtt{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathtt{T}_{12} & \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_{2} : \mathtt{T}_{11} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_{1} & \mathtt{t}_{2} : \mathtt{T}_{12} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathtt{t}_{2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_{2}' \\ \hline \mathtt{v}_{1} & \mathtt{t}_{2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{v}_{1} & \mathtt{t}_{2}' \end{array}$$

$$(\text{E-APP2})$$

Preservation - Application case

IS98.

Case T-APP:

$$t = t_1 t_2 \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_1: T_{11} \longrightarrow T_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2: T_{11} \qquad T = T_{12}$$

Subcase E-APPABS:

 $t_1 = \lambda x: S_{11}. t_{12}$ $t_2 = v_2$ $t' = [x \mapsto v_2] t_{12}$

by the *inversion lemma* for the typing relation ...

 $T_{11} <: S_{11} \text{ and } \Gamma, x: S_{11} \vdash t_{12}: T_{12}$

By using T-SUB, $\Gamma \vdash t_2: S_{11}$

by the substitution lemma, $\Gamma \vdash t': T_{12}$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : T_{12}} \qquad (T-APP)$$

 $(\lambda x:T_{11}.t_{12}) v_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_2]t_{12}$ (E-APPABS)

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Progress



Lemma for Canonical Forms

- 1. If v is a closed value of type $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$, then v has the form $\lambda x: S_1. t_2$.
- 2. If v is a closed value of type $\{l_i: T_i^{i \in 1..n}\}$, then v has the form

$$\left\{k_j = v_j^{j \in 1..m}\right\} \text{ with } \left\{l_i^{i \in 1..n}\right\} \subseteq \left\{k_a^{a \in 1..m}\right\}$$

- Possible shapes of values belonging to arrow and record types.
- Based on this Canonical Forms Lemma, we can still has the progress theorem and its proof quite close to that in the simply typed lambdacalculus



Subtyping with Other Features



Ordinary ascription:



 $v_1 \text{ as } T \longrightarrow v_1$ (E-ASCRIBE)

In languages with subtyping (e.g., Java/ C++), it is often called casting, and written as $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : S$

) t
$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \text{ as } T:T}$$

(T-DOWNCAST)

up-cast : a term is ascribed a supertype of the type down-cast: to assign types to terms that the typechecker cannot derive statically, and need to involve dynamic type-testing Ordinary ascription:

 $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T$ (T-ASCRIBE) $\Gamma \vdash t_1$ as T : T(E-ASCRIBE) v_1 as $T \longrightarrow v_1$ $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : S$ (T-CAST) $\Gamma \vdash t_1$ as T:T $\frac{\vdash \mathtt{v}_1 : \mathtt{T}}{\mathtt{v}_1 \text{ as } \mathtt{T} \longrightarrow \mathtt{v}_1}$ (E-CAST)

Casting (cf. Java):

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 $\frac{\langle \mathbf{k}_{j}: \mathbf{S}_{j} \stackrel{j \in 1..n}{} \rangle \text{ is a permutation of } \langle \mathbf{l}_{i}: \mathbf{T}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{k}_{j}: \mathbf{S}_{j} \stackrel{j \in 1..n}{} \rangle} \ll \langle \mathbf{l}_{i}: \mathbf{T}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{} \rangle$ (S-VARIANTPERM)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \langle l_1 = t_1 \rangle : \langle l_1 : T_1 \rangle}$$

(T-VARIANT)

Subtyping and Lists

List is a covariant type constructor

 $\begin{array}{c} S_1 <: T_1 \\ \\ \hline \\ \text{List } S_1 <: \text{List } T_1 \end{array}$





(S-LIST)



Ref is *not a covariant* (nor *a contravariant*) type constructor, but an *invariant*

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \qquad T_1 <: S_1}{\text{Ref } S_1 <: \text{Ref } T_1}$$

(S-Ref)



Ref is *not a covariant* (nor *a contravariant*) type constructor. Why?

- When a reference is *read*, the context expects a T_1 , so if $S_1 <: T_1$ then an S_1 is ok.
- When a reference is *written*, the context provides a T_1 and if the actual type of the reference is Ref S₁, someone else may use the T_1 as an S₁. So we need $T_1 <: S_1$.



Observation: a value of type *Ref T* can be used in *two different* ways:

- as a source for values of type ${\bf T}$, and
- as a sink for values of type T



Observation: a value of type *Ref T* can be used in *two different* ways:

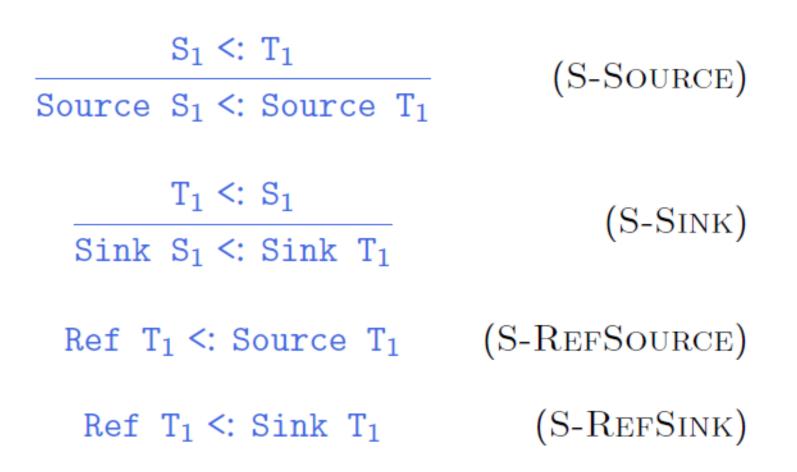
- as a source for values of type ${\tt T}$, and
- as a sink for values of type T
- Idea: Split Ref T into three parts:
 - Source T: reference cell with "read capability"
 - Sink T: reference cell with "write capability"
 - Ref T: cell with both capabilities



$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Source } T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash !t_1 : T_{11}} \qquad (\text{T-DEREF})$$

 $\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \texttt{Sink } T_{11} \qquad \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \texttt{Unit}} (\texttt{T-Assign})$







Similarly...

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \qquad T_1 <: S_1}{Array S_1 <: Array T_1} \qquad (S-ARRAY)$$

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1}{Array S_1 <: Array T_1} \qquad (S-ARRAYJAVA)$$

This is regarded (even by the Java designers) as a mistake in the design

Capabilities



Other kinds of capabilities can be treated similarly, e.g.,

- send and receive capabilities on communication channels
- encrypt/decrypt capabilities of cryptographic keys

Base Types



In a full-blown language with a rich set of base types, it's better to introduce primitive subtype relations among them

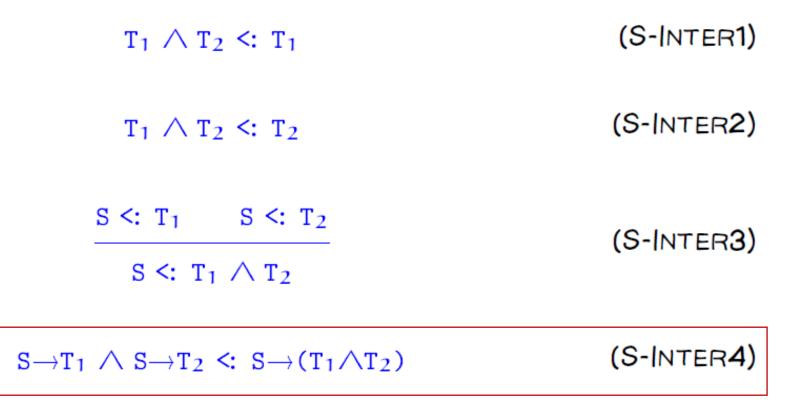
- e.g., in many languages the boolean values true and false are actually represented by the numbers 1 and 0.
- Bool <: Nat</p>
- if b then 5 else $0 \Rightarrow 5^{*}b$



Intersection and Union Types



The inhabitants of $T_1 \wedge T_2$ are terms belonging to both T_1 and T_2 — i.e., $T_1 \wedge T_2$ is an order-theoretic meet (greatest lower bound) of T_1 and T_2 .





Intersection types permit a very *flexible form* of *finitary overloading*.

+ : (Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat) \land (Float \rightarrow Float \rightarrow Float)

This form of overloading is extremely powerful.

Every strongly *normalizing untyped lambda-term* can be typed in *the simply typed lambda-calculus* with intersection types (a term is typable iff its evaluation terminates)

type reconstruction problem is undecidable (cf. ch22)

Intersection types *have not been used much* in language designs (too powerful!), but are being *intensively investigated* as type systems *for intermediate languages* in highly optimizing compilers (cf. Church project).



Union types are also useful.

 $T_1 \vee T_2$ is an untagged (non-disjoint) union of T_1 and T_2 . *No tags*: no *case* construct. The only operations we can safely perform on elements of $T_1 \vee T_2$ are ones *that make sense for both* T_1 *and* T_2 .

Note well: untagged union types in C are a source of *type safety violations* precisely because they ignores this restriction, allowing any operation on an element of $T_1 \vee T_2$ that makes sense for *either* $T_1 \circ T_2$.

Union types are being used recently in type systems for XML processing languages (cf. Xduce, Xtatic).

Bottom Type



Can we have a type that is a *subtype of every type*?

Sure. a *type constant* Bot, plus *a rule* that makes Bot a *minimal element* of the subtype relation

\rightarrow <: Bot			Extends $\lambda_{<:}$ (15-1)
<i>New syntactic forms</i> T ::= Bot	types: minimum type	<i>New subtyping rules</i> Bot <: T	S <: Т (S-Вот)

Bot is empty—there are no closed values of type Bot.

The emptiness of Bot provides a very convenient way of expressing the fact that some operations are not intended to return

Varieties of Polymorphism



- Parametric polymorphism (ML-style)
- Subtype polymorphism (OO-style)
- Ad-hoc polymorphism (overloading)

HW for Chap15



- 15.2.2
- 15.3.6