# Using modules as classes

Jérôme Vouillon*

**Abstract**

We show how classes can be combined with a ML-like module system, so that the same constructions can be used for both classes and modules. For that, we are brought to slightly extend the module system with implicit type quantification of module types.

**Introduction**

Classes and modules share a lot of properties: they offer some form of abstraction; they structure the code and facilitate its reuse. Due to this overlapping of functionalities, it is sometimes difficult in a language providing both constructions to make a choice between them. The language Objective Caml [5] possesses a rich class-based object oriented extension [7] and a powerful higher-order module system [6]. However, classes and modules are merely juxtaposed. This paper proposes a theoretical background for a system which provides only one structuring mechanism which can be used for both classes and modules. This is obtained by identifying classes to modules. Some constructs of classes are mapped to corresponding constructs in modules (for instance, class bodies are mapped to structures); other constructs of classes, such as methods, are just added to the module language. Most of these steps are easy extensions to the module language. However, we still need a small but more significant extension of the existing module systems: just as ML types are implicitly quantified, module types would also be implicitly quantified over some type variables.

This paper is organized as follows. We first give a brief introduction to Objective ML[1]. We then describe a ML-style module language. In section 3, Objective ML classes are compared to this module language, and we show how they can be combined. In section 4, we presents more formally the resulting language. In section 5, we discuss the impact of the proposed extension to modules. In section 6, we discuss type inference. In section 7, we explain what restrictions should be made to ensure soundness in presence of imperative features. In section 8, we show the limits of our integration of classes and modules. In section 9, we compare our proposal with other works.

*Author's address: INRIA-Rocquencourt, B.P. 105, F-78153 Le Chesnay Cedex, France. Email: Jerome.Vouillon@inria.fr

[1]The reader is directed to [7] for a more complete description of Objective ML.

## 1 Classes in Objective ML: an overview

The class language presented here is Objective ML, as formalized in [7], with a few minor modifications: self is not a keyword, but is explicitly bound in each method; in signatures, method types are only listed in self type.

A simple class can be defined as a *structure* containing some instance variables and some methods.

$$\texttt{class}\ \mathit{origin} = \\ \quad \texttt{struct val}\ x = 0; \texttt{method}\ \mathit{getx} = \varsigma(y)\ x\ \texttt{end}$$

This class has an instance variable $x$ initialized to 0 and a method *getx*. When this method is invoked, $y$ is bound to self (that is, the object the method belongs to.) In this case, this argument is actually ignored, and the method returns the value 0 of the instance variable. The type inferred for this class is

$$\forall(\alpha)\ \texttt{sig}\ (\langle\ \mathit{getx} : \mathit{int};\ \alpha\ \rangle)\ \texttt{val}\ x : \mathit{int}; \texttt{method}\ \mathit{getx}\ \texttt{end}$$

The type between parentheses is the self type, the type of an object of this class. It is composed of a sequence of method types. The *row variable* $\alpha$ can be instantiated in subclasses to extend the class with new methods. The other components of the signature reveal that the class contains an instance variable $x$ and that the method *getx* is indeed defined.

Objective ML actually provides a simple class language. A class can be defined as a *function* taking an initialization parameter and returning a class value. This is demonstrated by the following class.

$$\texttt{class}\ \mathit{genpoint} = \texttt{fun}\ x_0 \rightarrow \\ \quad \texttt{struct val}\ x = x_0; \texttt{method}\ \mathit{getx} = \varsigma(y)\ x\ \texttt{end}$$

The type of this class is

$$\forall(\alpha)\ \forall(\alpha')\ \big(\alpha \rightarrow \texttt{sig}\ (\langle\ \mathit{getx} : \alpha;\ \alpha'\ \rangle) \\ \qquad \texttt{val}\ x : \alpha; \texttt{method}\ \mathit{getx} \\ \quad \texttt{end}\big)$$

Then, the class expression $\big(\mathit{genpoint}\ 1\big)$ is a class whose instance variable $x$ is bound to 1. The operator `new` is

used to create objects. An object is composed of a copy of the instance variables and methods of its class, but only its methods can be directly accessed. This is reflected by its type. For instance, $(\texttt{new}\ \mathit{genpoint}\ 1)$ is an object of type $\langle\ \mathit{getx} : \mathit{int}; \epsilon\ \rangle$. In this type, the row variable has been instantiated to the empty row $\epsilon$, as the object has no other method than *getx*. The class *genpoint* could just as well be applied to a float, rather than an integer : this is a polymorphic class.

Classes can be extended by *inheritance*. The component `inherit` $c$ of a class structure includes all components of the parent structure $c$ into the current structure. The type for self must be an instance of the parent type for self. The class *cpoint* below inherits the instance variable $x$ and the method *getx* from its parent *genpoint*, and defines a new method *color*.

$$\texttt{class}\ \mathit{cpoint} = \texttt{fun}\ (c : \mathit{string}) \rightarrow \texttt{struct inherit}\ \mathit{genpoint}\ 1;\ \texttt{method}\ \mathit{color} = c\ \texttt{end}$$

The type of class *cpoint*, given below, reveals the inherited instance variable and both methods.

$$\forall(\alpha)\ \mathit{string} \rightarrow \texttt{sig}\ (\langle\ \mathit{getx} : \mathit{int};\ \mathit{color} : \mathit{string};\ \alpha\ \rangle)\ \texttt{val}\ x : \mathit{int};\ \texttt{method}\ \mathit{getx};\ \texttt{method}\ \mathit{color}\ \texttt{end}$$

A new definition of a method would override any inherited definition.

## 2 ML-style modules

We now present the module system that will be compared to the class language of the previous section. A simple module is composed of a *structure* containing several components: type definitions, values, sub-modules.

$$\texttt{module}\ \mathit{intOrder} = \texttt{struct type}\ t = \mathit{int};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less}\ (x : t)\ (y : t) = x < y\ \texttt{end}$$

A module component can be accessed using the dot notation: the function *intOrder.less* compares two objects of type *intOrder.t* which is equal to type *int*.

A module *signature* lists the types of its components.

$$\texttt{sig type}\ t = \mathit{int};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less} : t \rightarrow t \rightarrow \mathit{bool}\ \texttt{end}$$

A module can also be a *functor*, expecting to be applied to another module conforming to a given interface, and returning a new module.

$$\texttt{module}\ \mathit{listOrder} = \texttt{functor}\ (\mathit{ord} : \texttt{sig type}\ t;\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less} : t \rightarrow t \rightarrow \mathit{bool}\ \texttt{end}) \rightarrow \texttt{struct type}\ t = \mathit{ord.t\ list};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less}\ (l1 : t)\ (l2 : t) = \ldots\ \texttt{end}$$

The signature of this functor is

$$\texttt{functor}\ (\mathit{ord} : \texttt{sig type}\ t;\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less} : t \rightarrow t \rightarrow \mathit{bool}\ \texttt{end}) \rightarrow \texttt{sig type}\ t = \mathit{ord.t\ list};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less} : t \rightarrow t \rightarrow \mathit{bool}\ \texttt{end}$$

This functor can be applied to the previous module, yielding a module of type

$$\texttt{sig type}\ t = \mathit{intOrder.t\ list};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{less} : t \rightarrow t \rightarrow \mathit{bool}\ \texttt{end}$$

A module can *extend* another module, including the components of this module (the `open` construct has the same meaning as in SML: components from the opened module are bound in the current module).

$$\texttt{module}\ \mathit{intOrder2} = \texttt{struct open}\ \mathit{intOrder};\ \texttt{val}\ \mathit{min}\ x\ y = \texttt{if}\ \mathit{less}\ x\ y\ \texttt{then}\ x\ \texttt{else}\ y\ \texttt{end}$$

The module *intOrder2* above contains the same components as the module *intOrder*, plus the value *min*.

## 3 Comparison between classes and modules

A small class language and a module language was presented in the previous sections. These languages are very similar: they both have structures, abstraction and application. Figure 1 provides an informal comparison of the syntax of these two languages, emphasizing their similarities. There are, however, some differences, and the remainder of this section will show how we can get rid of them.

A first difference is that a class abstraction maps values to class values, whereas a functor maps modules to modules. Then, structures do not contain the same components. Types also differ significantly. Class types are quantified and class structure components may have non-closed types: free type variables can occur in self type and in instance variable types. On the contrary, all core types occurring in a module type must be closed (and so, module types do not need to be quantified.) Finally, class signatures contain a distinguished component holding self type.

There is however no incompatibility. This will be shown in the remaining of this section, where we will review the differences in more details.

Class abstractions can be encoded as functors: an expression $\texttt{fun}\ x \rightarrow m$ would be translated into the expression

$$\texttt{functor}\ (z : \texttt{sig val}\ x : \tau\ \texttt{end}) \rightarrow m[z.x/x]$$

There is actually a problem here, as the type $\tau$ is usually unknown. A solution will be provided latter in this section.

It seems natural to allow structures to contain both class and module components. Inheritance (`inherit`) and inclusion (`open`) are actually the same operation: indeed, they both include all components of another structure. Value components (`val`) also have a compatible semantics.

Class type quantification is a more serious problem. It is possible to encode explicit quantification in the module language [3]: $\forall(\alpha)\ m$ can be rewritten as

$$\texttt{functor}\ (z : \texttt{sig type}\ t\ \texttt{end}) \rightarrow m[z.t/\alpha]$$

However, a value will have to be explicitly provided for type $t$ to remove the quantification. This does not mix well with a core language with implicit polymorphism such as ML. For instance, the creation of an object of class *genpoint* (presented in section 1) would have to be verbosely written:

$$\mathit{genpoint}\ \left(\texttt{sig type}\ t = \mathit{int};\ \texttt{val}\ x = 1\ \texttt{end}\right)$$

We therefore propose to allow the implicit quantification of module types, using the following natural rules to introduce and eliminate quantification:

Class and module expressions

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $c ::= z$ | $m ::= p$ | Access to a named value |
| $\mid \texttt{fun}\ z \to c$ | $\mid \texttt{functor}\ (z : \phi) \to m$ | Abstraction |
| $\mid c\ e$ | $\mid m\ m$ | Application |
| $\mid \texttt{struct}\ b\ \texttt{end}$ | $\mid \texttt{struct}\ b\ \texttt{end}$ | Structure |
| $b ::= \epsilon \mid d;\ b$ | $b ::= \epsilon \mid d;\ b$ | |

Structure components

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $d ::= \texttt{inherit}\ c$ | $d ::= \texttt{open}\ m$ | Inheritance / inclusion |
| $\mid \texttt{val}\ x = e$ | $\mid \texttt{val}\ x = e$ | Value |
| $\mid \texttt{method}\ y = \varsigma(x)\ e$ | | Method |
| | $\mid \texttt{type}\ t = \tau$ | Type |
| | $\mid \texttt{module}\ z = m$ | Module |
| | $T ::= \tau \mid \forall(\alpha)\ T$ | Type scheme |
| $\Phi ::= \phi \mid \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi$ | | Class type scheme |

Class and module types

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $\phi ::= \tau \to \phi$ | $\phi ::= \texttt{functor}\ (z : \phi) \to \phi$ | Functional type |
| $\mid \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}$ | $\mid \texttt{sig}\ \chi\ \texttt{end}$ | Signature type |
| $\chi ::= \epsilon \mid \psi;\ \chi$ | $\chi ::= \epsilon \mid \psi;\ \chi$ | |

Signature components

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $\psi ::= \texttt{val}\ x : \tau$ | $\psi ::= \texttt{val}\ x : T$ | Value |
| $\mid \texttt{method}\ m$ | | Method |
| | $\mid \texttt{type}\ t = \tau$ | Manifest type |
| | $\mid \texttt{type}\ t$ | Abstract type |
| | $\mid \texttt{module}\ z : \phi$ | Module |

Figure 1: Comparison between a class language and a module language

$$\frac{A \vdash m : \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi}{A \vdash m : \Phi[\tau/\alpha]} \qquad \frac{A \vdash m : \Phi \qquad \alpha \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash m : \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi}$$

It appears useful to limit the implicit generalization of type variables at the top of structures. This can be done by explicitly binding type variables:

$$\frac{A;\ \big(\mathtt{var}\ \alpha = \tau\big) \vdash m : \Phi}{A \vdash \big([\alpha]\ m\big) : \Phi}$$

During the typing of the module expression $m$, the type variable $\alpha$ is bound to some type $\tau$. Then, the free variables of $\tau$ cannot be generalized in $m$, as they occur in the environment. With this extension, the expression $\big(\mathtt{fun}\ x \to m\big)$ can be encoded as

$$[\alpha]\ \mathtt{functor}\ (z : \mathtt{sig}\ \mathtt{val}\ x : \alpha\ \mathtt{end}) \to m[z.x/x]$$

Other differences in types are all minor: self type can be considered as just another component of a signature; the type of values is not generalized in class signatures, but simply because this is not useful.

## 4 Presentation of the extended module system

We now describe the full module system. The module system presented here is a variant of the one proposed by Xavier Leroy [6]. In this variant, names appearing in a program are not annotated by stamps. Stamps only appear in types, where they are really necessary to resolve possible ambiguities. The core language is left mostly unspecified.

### 4.1 Syntax

The syntax is presented in figure 2. Variables $z$, $t$, $x$ and $y$ are names (for module, type, value and method components of structures, respectively.) Names are not subject to $\alpha$-conversion. Types are denoted by Greek letters. Type schemes are denoted by the capital letter associated to the small letter denoting the corresponding types. The tildes ($\tilde{}$) over these syntactic types differentiate them from the enriched types that will be necessary for typing.

The following additions have been made to the syntax. Types are enriched with recursive types and object types. The module expression $[\alpha]\ m$ explicitly binds the type variable $\alpha$ in $m$. The component $\mathtt{method}\ y = \varsigma(x)\ e$ defines a method; during an invocation of this method, its body $e$ is evaluated with the variable $x$ bound to the object the method belongs to. The component $\mathtt{inherit}\ m$ includes the components of the structure $m$ into the current structure. Module types are quantified. A signature $\big(\mathtt{sig}\ (\tilde{\tau})\ \tilde{\chi}\ \mathtt{end}\big)$ is composed not only of a sequence of component types $\tilde{\chi}$, but also contains the self type $\tilde{\tau}$. The signature component $\mathtt{method}\ y$ indicates that the module defines the method $y$.

### 4.2 Typing rules

More precise types, presented in figure 3, are required for typing: names may be ambiguous and are thus annotated by a stamp, forming identifiers (this is the only difference between the syntactic types previously described and the types in this figure.) Identifiers are subject to $\alpha$-conversion. However, only the stamp part can be renamed: names must still remain fixed. Types are considered equal modulo renaming of their bound identifiers.

| | |
|---|---|
| $\tilde{p} ::= z \mid \tilde{p}.z$ | Access path |
| $e ::= x \mid \tilde{p}.x \mid \mathtt{new}\ m$<br>$\mid \mathtt{fun}\ x \to e \mid \ldots$ | Expression |
| $\tilde{T} ::= \tilde{\tau} \mid \forall(\alpha)\ \tilde{T}$ | Core type scheme |
| $\tilde{\tau} ::= t \mid \tilde{p}.t \mid \alpha \mid \tilde{\tau} \to \tilde{\tau}$<br>$\mid \mu(\alpha)\ \tilde{\tau} \mid \langle \tilde{\omega} \rangle$ | Core type |
| $\tilde{\omega} ::= \epsilon \mid \alpha \mid y : \tilde{\tau};\ \tilde{\omega}$ | Object type |
| $m ::= \tilde{p} \mid \mathtt{struct}\ b\ \mathtt{end}$<br>$\mid \mathtt{functor}\ (z : \tilde{\Phi}) \to m$<br>$\mid m\ m \mid (m : \tilde{\Phi}) \mid [\alpha]\ m$ | Module expression |
| $b ::= \epsilon \mid d;\ b$ | Module body |
| $d ::= \mathtt{val}\ x = e$<br>$\mid \mathtt{method}\ y = \varsigma(x)\ e$<br>$\mid \mathtt{module}\ z = m$<br>$\mid \mathtt{type}\ t = \tilde{\tau}$<br>$\mid \mathtt{inherit}\ m$ | Module component |
| $\tilde{\Phi} ::= \tilde{\phi} \mid \forall(\alpha)\ \tilde{\Phi}$ | Module type scheme |
| $\tilde{\phi} ::= \mathtt{functor}\ (z : \tilde{\Phi}) \to \tilde{\Phi}$<br>$\mid \mathtt{sig}\ (\tilde{\tau})\ \tilde{\chi}\ \mathtt{end}$ | Module type |
| $\tilde{\chi} ::= \epsilon \mid \tilde{\psi};\ \tilde{\chi}$ | Module body type |
| $\tilde{\psi} ::= \mathtt{val}\ x : \tilde{T}$<br>$\mid \mathtt{method}\ y$<br>$\mid \mathtt{module}\ z : \tilde{\Phi}$<br>$\mid \mathtt{type}\ t \mid \mathtt{type}\ t = \tilde{\tau}$ | Module component type |

Figure 2: Syntax

$p ::= z_i \mid p.z$ — Type access path

$T ::= \tau \mid \forall(\alpha)\, T$ — Core type scheme

$\tau ::= t_i \mid p.t \mid \alpha \mid \tau \to \tau \mid \mu(\alpha)\ \tau \mid \langle\, \omega \,\rangle$ — Core type

$\omega ::= \epsilon \mid \alpha \mid y : \tau;\ \omega$ — Object type

$\Phi ::= \phi \mid \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi$ — Module type scheme

$\phi ::= \texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi) \to \Phi \mid \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}$ — Module type

$\chi ::= \epsilon \mid \psi;\ \chi$ — Module body type

$\psi ::= \texttt{val}\ x_i : T \mid \texttt{method}\ y \mid \texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi \mid \texttt{type}\ t_i \mid \texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau$ — Module component type

Figure 3: Types

An environment is a sequence containing signature components and bindings of a type variable to a type. An identifier cannot be bound twice in an environment (*i.e.* a name cannot be bound twice with the same stamp, but it is possible to bind two identifiers with the same name and different stamps.)

$$A ::= \epsilon \mid A;\ \psi \mid A;\ \big(\texttt{var}\ \alpha_i = \tau\big)$$

The notation $A(n)$ stands for the rightmost binding of an identifier of name $n$ in the environment $A$. We write $\mathrm{FV}(A)$ and $\mathrm{FV}(\tau)$ for the free type variables of respectively an environment $A$ and a type $\tau$. The operation $A + \chi$ discharges the binding of the module body $\chi$ inside the environment $A$. It is defined by $A + \big(\psi;\ \chi\big) = \big(A;\ \psi\big) + \chi$ and $A + \epsilon = A$. The operation $\phi +_A \phi'$ concatenates the module signatures $\phi$ and $\phi'$. It is defined by $\big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) +_A \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau')\ \chi'\ \texttt{end}\big) = \texttt{sig}\ (\tau')\ \chi + \chi'\ \texttt{end}$ when $A \vdash \tau \approx \tau'$, where the operation $\chi + \chi'$ is defined by $\big(\psi;\ \chi\big) + \chi' = \psi;\ \big(\chi + \chi'\big)$ and $\epsilon + \chi' = \chi'$.

The typing rules assign module types to module expressions ($A \vdash m : \Phi$.) They make use of a notion of type equivalence $A \vdash T \approx T'$ and a subtyping relation between module type schemes $A \vdash \Phi <: \Phi'$. Both judgments are standard (except their extension to type schemes.) They are defined in appendix A. The relation $\approx$ is extended to module types ($A \vdash \Phi \approx \Phi'$) as the equivalence relation associated to the preorder $<:$. The translation of types $A \vdash \tilde{T} : T$ and $A \vdash \tilde{\Phi} : \Phi$ (annotating names with stamps) is presented in appendix B.

So as to make the typing rules more readable, some implicit assumptions are systematically made: all types appearing in the typing rules must be well-formed, and the bound variables of module types must be disjoint from the bound variables of the environment. Well-formedness of types is defined in appendix C: all type constructors appearing free in a type or a module type must be bound in the environment; moreover, two components of the same signature cannot have the same name.

Figure 4 gives the typing rules for the core module language. These typing rules are usual. In rule Variable, the type of the module $z$ is enriched in order to reflect that its type components come from the module identifier $z_i$, using the strengthening operator $\Phi/z_i$ described in appendix D. In rule Projection, the type $\Phi$ of module $z_i$ may depend on other components of the structure $\chi$. The type of $\tilde{p}.z$ is thus a type $\Phi'$, equivalent to $\Phi$ but not depending on these components. Other rules are straightforward.

Figure 5 recalls the typing rules for instantiation and generalization of module types previously presented in section 3. The rules Inst and Gen are the direct transposition to module types of the standard rules for instantiation and generalization of type schemes. The rule Quant prevents the generalization of type variables bound by the syntactic type variable $\alpha$ during the typing of the module expression $m$.

The typing rules for the class components of structures are contained in figure 6. Rule Inherit is mostly syntactic sugar: rule Then-2 accomplish the actual merge of two module signatures. A method is typed like a function (rule Method); the argument type of this function must be the self type $\tau$, while its result type must be the type of method $y$ in $\tau$.

The typing rule for the operator `new` is adapted from Objective ML. The type of the object `new` $m$ is the self type $\tau$, and all its methods must be defined (rightmost premise.)

(New)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) \qquad A \vdash \tau \approx \langle\, y : \tau_y \,\rangle^{(\texttt{method}\ y) \in \chi}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{new}\ m\big) : \tau}$$

### 4.3 Translation from Objective ML

The language presented above contains all syntactic elements of Objective ML, except class abstraction and class application. This elements can however be considered as syntactic sugar. The translation $[\![e]\!]$ of an Objective ML expression $e$ is defined by induction on the syntax. We only present the rules for class abstraction and application. Other rules are trivial.

$$[\![\texttt{fun}\ x \to c]\!] = [\alpha]\ [\alpha']\ \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z : \texttt{sig}\ (\alpha')\ \texttt{val}\ x : \alpha\ \texttt{end}) \to [\![c]\!][z.x/x]\big)$$

$$[\![c\ e]\!] = [\![c]\!]\ \big(\texttt{struct}\ \texttt{val}\ x = [\![e]\!]\ \texttt{end}\big)$$

## 5 Impact of the extension

Our extension is conservative. In particular, it preserves the expressiveness of the extended module system. We conjecture its soundness. Indeed, the addition of module type quantification should alter only locally, in an harmless way, a proof of soundness. We have not undertaken such a proof though, by lack of a simple semantics for modules. We have not been able to found a simple reduction semantics. It may actually be possible to adapt the one proposed by Judicaël Courant [2] to our language. However, this semantics is not eager. Furthermore, it does not allow to reduce inheritance: an object body would have to keep a hierarchical structure.

The extension allows to make type parameterization of functors implicit. Without the extension, abstract types

(Variable)
$$\frac{A(z) = \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big)}{A \vdash z : \Phi/z_i}$$

(Projection)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{p} : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) \qquad \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big) \in \chi \qquad A + \chi \vdash \Phi \approx \Phi'}{A \vdash \tilde{p}.z : \Phi'}$$

(Structure)
$$\frac{A \vdash b : \phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{struct}\ b\ \texttt{end}\big) : \phi}$$

(Constraint)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \Phi' \qquad A \vdash \tilde{\Phi} : \Phi \qquad A \vdash \Phi' <: \Phi}{A \vdash (m : \tilde{\Phi}) : \Phi}$$

(Functor)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\Phi}' : \Phi' \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi'\big) \vdash m : \Phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z : \tilde{\Phi}') \to m\big) : \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi') \to \Phi\big)}$$

(App)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi_1') \to \Phi_1\big) \qquad A \vdash m' : \Phi_2' \qquad A \vdash \Phi_2' <: \Phi_1' \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi_2'\big) \vdash \Phi_1 \approx \Phi_2}{A \vdash \big(m\ m'\big) : \Phi_2}$$

(Empty)
$$\frac{}{A \vdash \epsilon : (\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \epsilon\ \texttt{end})}$$

(Then-1)
$$\frac{A \vdash d : \psi \qquad A;\ \psi \vdash b : \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}}{A \vdash \big(d;\ b\big) : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \psi;\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big)}$$

(Value)
$$\frac{A \vdash e : T}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{val}\ x = e\big) : \big(\texttt{val}\ x_i : T\big)}$$

(Module)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \Phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{module}\ z = m\big) : \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big)}$$

(Type)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\tau} : \tau \qquad \mathrm{FV}(\tau) = \emptyset}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{type}\ t = \tilde{\tau}\big) : \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big)}$$

Figure 4: Typing rules for core structure and module expressions

(Inst)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi}{A \vdash m : \Phi[\tau/\alpha]}$$

(Gen)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \Phi \qquad \alpha \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash m : \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi}$$

(Quant)
$$\frac{A;\ \big(\texttt{var}\ \alpha_i = \tau\big) \vdash m : \Phi}{A \vdash \big([\alpha]\ m\big) : \Phi}$$

Figure 5: Typing rule for module type quantification

(Then-2)
$$\frac{A \vdash d : \phi \qquad A + \phi \vdash b : \phi'}{A \vdash \big(d;\ b\big) : \big(\phi +_A \phi'\big)}$$

(Inherit)
$$\frac{A \vdash m : \phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{inherit}\ m\big) : \phi}$$

(Method)
$$\frac{A \vdash \big(\texttt{fun}\ x \to e\big) : \tau' \to \tau \qquad A \vdash \tau' \approx \langle\, y : \tau;\ \omega \,\rangle}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{method}\ y = \varsigma(x)\ e\big) : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau')\ \texttt{method}\ y\ \texttt{end}\big)}$$

Figure 6: Typing rules for inheritance and methods

in the signature of functor arguments are used for parameterizing modules over types. This is demonstrated by the following example, the type of a functor implementing sets.

```
functor
    (ord : sig type u; val compare : u → u → int end) →
    sig
      type t; val empty : t; val add : t → ord.u → t; ...
    end
```

When applying a functor of this type, both the type $u$ of the set elements and the function *compare* for comparing elements must be provided. With our extension, the type $u$ is not required anymore: the functor can be rewritten to have the following type.

```
∀(α) (functor
        (ord : sig val compare : α → α → int end) →
        sig
          type α t; val empty : α t;
          val add : α t → α → α t; ...
        end)
```

Then, when applying the functor, only the comparison function will have to be provided; the type of the elements will be inferred. This type can even be polymorphic, which is not possible without the extension. Indeed, the result of the application of a functor of the preceding type to a structure of type

```
sig val compare : ∀(α) α → α → int end
```

have type

```
∀(α) sig
       type α t; val empty : α t;
       val add : α t → α → α t; ...
     end
```

which is equivalent to type

```
sig
   type α t; val empty : ∀(α) α t;
   val add : ∀(α) α t → α → α t; ...
end
```

In the second functor type, the type $t$ has a type parameter, which is constrained to be the quantification variable $\alpha$[2]. It is indeed necessary to make it explicit that the type $t$ depends on the variable $\alpha$: For instance, let us assume that our sets have a function *max* that returns the greatest element of the set. In the last module type, the type $\forall(\alpha)\ t \to \alpha$ would not be correct for this function, while $\forall(\alpha)\ \alpha\, t \to \alpha$ is.

## 6 Type inference

This extension does not add much complexity to type inference of modules: type inference is mostly unchanged except for the addition of generalization and instantiation of module types. So that type constructors do not get unified to type variables bound outside of their scope, unification under a prefix must be used. This is simple, and easy to implement (and is already implemented in Objective Caml, that allows module components to have non-closed types.) Caml modules do not always have principal signatures: some modules can be given two incompatible signatures. This does not appear to be a problem though. Indeed, if the signatures of functor parameters are considered given, principal signatures (with respect to these constraints) can be inferred. Unification under a prefix has principal solutions. So, our extension preserves this property. Furthermore, a module system with principal signatures can be extended while preserving principal signatures.

## 7 Imperative features

So as to ensure type safety, value-only polymorphism [9] should *a priori* be extended to module expressions. That is, only module expressions that are syntactically module values (paths and functors, but neither structures nor functor applications) should be generalized[3]. The rational is that the evaluation of these expressions cannot produce side-effects. However, this results in a important loss of expressiveness: the example of polymorphic sets in section 5 is not valid anymore. This does not appear to be a problem for classes though, as classes are usually functors.

A way to circumvent this problem is to enrich module types, so as to distinguish functors that evaluates without producing any side-effects from other functors. Indeed, it is sound to generalize the type of the result of an application of such a functor.

## 8 Limitations and future work

Even though our proposal combines classes and modules in one construction, the choice between the two programming styles remains: one can either provide an abstract type and functions manipulating values of this type:

```
module stack : sig type α t; ... end = struct
   type α t = α list;
   val empty = [];
   val push l x = x :: l;
   val pop (x :: l) = (x, l);
   ...
end
```

or define some methods providing the same functionalities:

```
module stack = [α] struct
   val impl = ([] : α list);
   method push =
     ς(y) fun x → {⟨impl = x :: impl⟩};
   method pop =
     ς(y) let (x :: l) = impl in (x, {⟨impl = l⟩});
   ...
end
```

(The expression $\{\langle x = e\rangle\}$ evaluates to a copy of self where the value component $x$ is bound to the result of the evaluation of expression $e$.)

In this case, it is actually possible for the same module to provide both styles.

```
module stack = [α'] struct
   type α t = α list;
   val empty = [];
   val push x l = x :: l;
   val pop (x :: l) = (x, l);
   ...;
   val impl = (empty : α' t);
   method push =
     ς(y) fun x → {⟨impl = push impl x⟩};
   method pop =
     ς(y) let (x, l) = pop impl in (x, {⟨impl = l⟩});
   ...
end
```

However, for each function, a corresponding method must still be written, consisting actually (at least in this case) in just stub code calling the function.

It would be interesting to be able to write any module so that it can be used for both styles of programming, without having any stub code to write. As a first step toward this goal, one can notice that it is possible to automatically generate a module providing the functionalities of the first module *stack* from the class *stack*:

```
module stack' : sig type α t; ... end = struct
   type α t = α stack;
   val empty = new stack;
   val push s x = s#push x;
   val pop s = s#pop;
   ...
end
```

Furthermore, this wrapping can easily be generalized to any class definition: a module can be associated to any class; this module exports the type of the objects of this class (in the example above, this is $\alpha\ \alpha$), a function corresponding to the object creator (*empty*) and a function for each method (*push*, *pop*, ...), that invokes the method.

However, classes written as a wrapper around an abstract datatype seems to be a common pattern, which makes the previous wrapping much less interesting. As an example, one can consider the implementation of sets as balanced

[2] Constrained type abbreviations are presented in [7]; another variant was previously used in [1].

[3] The rule for module subtyping corresponding to generalization should also be modified.

trees. It seems more natural to define balanced trees using an abstract datatype (so that they can be manipulated using pattern matching), and then eventually provide a class that hides this implementation. But it is not clear how such a class could be generated automatically, in a regular way, in the general case. A module may define several datatypes, and only one of them should be chosen (a module for sets would probably export both the type of elements and the type of sets). The first argument of some functions may not have the right type: for instance, a function adding an element to a set could take the element, rather than the set, as first argument. A function such as set difference takes two arguments of the same type. It is somewhat arbitrary to distinguished one or the other. Another problem of such a function is that it implies that an object must access the implementation of another object (which should be private.)

## 9 Related works

Reppy and Riecke already proposed to encode classes in modules [8]. They use Object ML, an extension of SML with simple objects and subtyping, but no classes. Their encoding requires no further extension. As a consequence, it is somewhat verbose. For instance, a creation function must be explicitly defined; this function creates a new object and explicitly fills the different members of the object. Some syntactic sugar should be provided in order to simplify the encoding, but it is not clear how this could be done. On the other hand, it should be possible to adapt our proposal to Object ML. As Object ML classes are not polymorphic, type quantification of modules would not even be necessary.

Type quantification of module expressions has also been suggested by Stefan Kahrs [4]. His proposal differs from ours in several points. We illustrate this by an example:

```
struct
  module z1 = functor (z' : sig type t; ... end) →
                  struct ... end;
  typevar α;
  type t1 = α;
  module z2 = z1 (struct type t = t1; ... end)
end
```

Type variables are explicitly introduced, using a new binder `typevar`. A type definition in the scope of a type variable implicitly depends on this type variable (which can appear on the right-hand side of the type definition, as this is the case here for type $t_1$.) As a consequence, when used outside of the scope of the type variable, the defined type constructor takes an additional parameter (for instance, the type constructor $t_1$ becomes parameterized outside the scope of the structure). This proposal seems to be roughly equivalent to ours. For instance, the previous example can be adapted as follows (the type $t$ is made implicit, while the type $t_1$ is explicitly parameterized):

```
struct
  module z1 = [α] functor (z' : sig ... end) →
                  struct ... end;
  type α t1 = α;
  module z2 = z1 (struct ... end)
end
```

However, it seems more difficult to support imperative features with his proposal: in signatures, type components may need some annotations. For instance, let us assume that the structure in the definition of module $z_2$ above contains an exception definition: `exception` $E$ `of` $t$. The type $t$ of the exception must not be polymorphic. But, as type parameters may be implicit, this cannot be locally enforced, and must somehow appear in the signature of module $z_1$. Indeed, in the definition of module $z_2$, the type $t$ is then bound to type $t_2$ which expands to type $\alpha$. As a consequence, this type variable should be generalized. On the other hand, with our proposal, the exception definition would be `exception` $E$ `of` $\alpha$, and one would just have to prevent the generalization of the type variable $\alpha$.

## 10 Conclusion

We have been able to smoothly combine the class language of Objective ML with a module language. Our proposal thus brings a better comprehension of classes and modules, and how they relates. It requires a small extension to module typing: structure components are allowed to have non-closed types, and module types can be quantified (this extension would not be necessary for a class language which does not support parametric classes.) This extension is interesting in itself.

While combining classes and modules reduces the complexity of a language providing both, in our proposal modules must still be used either as usual modules or as classes. It is still not possible to use the same definition both as a module and a class.

## References


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## A Equivalence and subtyping relations

### Type access path

$$\frac{\big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big) \in A}{A \vdash z_i : \Phi}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash p : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) \qquad \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big) \in \chi \qquad A + \chi \vdash \Phi \approx \Phi'}{A \vdash p.z : \Phi'}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash p : \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi}{A \vdash p : \Phi[\tau/\alpha]}$$

### Type equivalence

(rules for congruence, reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity omitted)

$$\frac{\big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big) \in A}{A \vdash t_i \approx \tau}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash p : \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end} \qquad \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big) \in \chi}{A \vdash p.t \approx \tau}$$

### Module subtyping

$$\frac{A \vdash \tau_1 \approx \tau_2}{A \vdash \tau_1 <: \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \Phi_2' <: \Phi_1' \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi_2'\big) \vdash \Phi_1 <: \Phi_2}{A \vdash \texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi_1') \to \Phi_1 <: \texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi_2') \to \Phi_2}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \tau_1 \approx \tau_2 \qquad \forall d_2 \in \chi_2 \cdot \exists d_1 \in \chi_1 \cdot A + \chi_1 \vdash d_1 <: d_2}{A \vdash (\texttt{sig}\ (\tau_1)\ \chi_1\ \texttt{end}) <: (\texttt{sig}\ (\tau_2)\ \chi_2\ \texttt{end})}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash T_1 <: T_2}{A \vdash (\texttt{val}\ x_i : T_1) <: (\texttt{val}\ x_i : T_2)}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \Phi_1 <: \Phi_2}{A \vdash (\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi_1) <: (\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi_2)}$$

$$\frac{}{A \vdash (\texttt{method}\ y) <: (\texttt{method}\ y)}$$

$$\frac{}{A \vdash (\texttt{type}\ t_i) <: (\texttt{type}\ t_i)} \qquad \frac{}{A \vdash (\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau) <: (\texttt{type}\ t_i)}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \tau \approx \tau'}{A \vdash (\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau) <: (\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau')}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash t_i \approx \tau}{A \vdash (\texttt{type}\ t_i) <: (\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau)}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \Phi_1[\tau/\alpha] <: \Phi_2}{A \vdash \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi_1 <: \Phi_2} \qquad \frac{A \vdash \Phi_1 <: \Phi_2 \qquad \alpha \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash \Phi_1 <: \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi_2}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash T_1[\tau/\alpha] <: T_2}{A \vdash \forall(\alpha)\ T_1 <: T_2} \qquad \frac{A \vdash T_1 <: T_2 \qquad \alpha \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash T_1 <: \forall(\alpha)\ T_2}$$

### Module type scheme equivalence

$$\frac{A \vdash \Phi_1 <: \Phi_2 \qquad A \vdash \Phi_2 <: \Phi_1}{A \vdash \Phi_1 \approx \Phi_2}$$

## B Type translation

### Core type

(structural rules omitted)

(Type-Name)
$$\frac{\big(\texttt{type}\ t_i[= \tau\,]\big) \in A}{A \vdash t : t_i}$$

(Type-Projection)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{p} : \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end} \qquad \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big) \in \chi}{A \vdash \tilde{p}.t : \tau}$$

(Type-Var)
$$\frac{A(\alpha) = (\texttt{var}\ \alpha_i = \tau)}{A \vdash \alpha : \tau}$$

(Type-Quant)
$$\frac{A;\ \big(\texttt{var}\ \alpha_i = \alpha'\big) \vdash \tilde{T} : T \qquad \alpha' \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash \forall(\alpha)\ \tilde{T} : \forall(\alpha')\ T}$$

### Signature

(Sig-Empty)
$$\frac{}{A \vdash \epsilon : \epsilon}$$

(Sig-Then)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\psi} : \psi \qquad A;\ \psi \vdash \tilde{\chi} : \chi}{A \vdash \big(\tilde{\psi};\ \tilde{\chi}\big) : \big(\psi;\ \chi\big)}$$

(Sig-Value)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{T} : T}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{val}\ x : \tilde{T}\big) : \big(\texttt{val}\ x_i = T\big)}$$

(Sig-Module)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\Phi} : \Phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{module}\ z : \tilde{\Phi}\big) : \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi\big)}$$

(Sig-Manifest-Type)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\tau} : \tau \qquad \mathrm{FV}(\tau) = \emptyset}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{type}\ t = \tilde{\tau}\big) : \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big)}$$

(Sig-Abstract-Type)
$$\frac{}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{type}\ t\big) : \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i\big)}$$

(Sig-Method)
$$\frac{}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{method}\ y\big) : \big(\texttt{method}\ y\big)}$$

(Signature)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tau : \tau' \qquad A \vdash \chi : \chi'}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) : \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau')\ \chi'\ \texttt{end}\big)}$$

(Sig-Functor)
$$\frac{A \vdash \tilde{\Phi}' : \Phi' \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi'\big) \vdash \tilde{\Phi} : \Phi}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z : \tilde{\Phi}') \to \tilde{\Phi}\big) : \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z : \Phi') \to \Phi\big)}$$

(Sig-Quant)
$$\frac{A;\ \big(\texttt{var}\ \alpha_i = \alpha'\big) \vdash \tilde{\Phi} : \Phi \qquad \alpha' \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash \forall(\alpha)\ \tilde{\Phi} : \forall(\alpha')\ \Phi}$$

## C Type well-formedness

**Type well-formedness ($A \vdash T$ type)**

(structural rules omitted)

$$\frac{\big(\texttt{type}\ t_i[\,=\tau\,]\big) \in A}{A \vdash t_i \text{ type}}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash p : \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end} \qquad \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big) \in \chi}{A \vdash p.t \text{ type}}$$

**Module type well-formedness ($A \vdash \Phi$ module type)**

$$\frac{}{A \vdash \epsilon \text{ decl}} \qquad \frac{A \vdash T \text{ type} \qquad A \vdash \chi \text{ decl}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{val}\ x_i = T;\ \chi\big) \text{ decl}}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \chi \text{ decl}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{method}\ y;\ \chi\big) \text{ decl}}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \tau \text{ type} \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau\big) \vdash \chi \text{ decl}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau;\ \chi\big) \text{ decl}}$$

$$\frac{A;\ \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i\big) \vdash \chi \text{ decl}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{type}\ t_i;\ \chi\big) \text{ decl}}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \phi \text{ module type} \qquad A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \phi\big) \vdash \chi \text{ decl}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \phi;\ \chi\big) \text{ decl}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}A \vdash \tau \text{ type} \qquad A \vdash \chi \text{ decl} \\ \text{no name bound twice in } \chi\end{array}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end}\big) \text{ module type}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}A \vdash \Phi' \text{ module type} \\ A;\ \big(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi'\big) \vdash \Phi \text{ module type}\end{array}}{A \vdash \big(\texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi') \to \Phi\big) \text{ module type}}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \Phi \text{ module type} \qquad \alpha \notin \mathrm{FV}(A)}{A \vdash \forall(\alpha)\ \Phi \text{ module type}}$$

## D Strengthening

(structural rules omitted)

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
(\texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi') \to \Phi)/p & \longrightarrow & \texttt{functor}\ (z_i : \Phi') \to \Phi/(p\ z_i) \\
(\texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi\ \texttt{end})/p & \longrightarrow & \texttt{sig}\ (\tau)\ \chi/p\ \texttt{end} \\
(\texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi)/p & \longrightarrow & \texttt{module}\ z_i : \Phi/p.z \\
(\texttt{type}\ t_i)/p & \longrightarrow & \texttt{type}\ t_i = p.t \\
(\texttt{type}\ t_i = \tau')/p & \longrightarrow & \texttt{type}\ t_i = p.t
\end{array}$$