

Environmental Acquisition Revisited

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ABSTRACT

In 1996, Gil and Lorenz proposed programming language constructs for specifying environmental acquisition in addition to inheritance acquisition for objects. They noticed that in many programs, objects are arranged in containment hierarchies and need to obtain information from their container objects. Therefore, if languages allowed programmers to specify such relationships directly, type systems and run-time environments could enforce the invariants that make these programming patterns work.

In this paper, we present a formal version of environmental acquisition for class-based languages. Specifically, we introduce an extension of the CLASSICJAVA model with constructs for environmental acquisition of fields and methods, a type system for the model, a reduction semantics, and a type soundness proof. We also discuss how to scale the model to a full-scale Java-like programming language.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

D.3.3 [Programming Languages]: Language Constructs and Features—*classes and objects*; D.1.5 [Programming Techniques]: Object-oriented Programming; D.2.3 [Software Engineering]: Coding Tools and Techniques—*object-oriented programming*

General Terms

Languages, Design

Keywords

environmental acquisition, object-oriented languages, object containment, object composition

1. INTRODUCTION

Programs often manipulate hierarchical containers or tree-shaped forms of data. For example, a PLT Scheme [5] pro-

gram that uses the MrEd library [6] for implementing a graphical user interface nests panels inside of a window to arrange the basic GUI widgets. Or, a Java program that uses the XML library creates a tree representation from some text that it reads.

Indeed, the idea of using hierarchical data representations of this kind is so standard that the collection of object-oriented (program) design patterns [10] contains special patterns, like the composite and interpreter patterns, for designing an appropriate set of classes. As many people have observed [12, 15], however, patterns almost naturally suggest new constructs for programming languages. Specifically, if a language codifies a pattern with a new construct, the compiler and the run-time system can enforce the pattern's programming invariants or, alternatively, can signal violations as soon as they recognize them.

Consider the case of hierarchical data. Typically, the design of hierarchical data implies that each item has a unique container, if it has one at all. Using the equivalent terminology of nested containers, an item is inside of (at most) one container, which in turn may be inside of another container and so on. Based on this property, programs tend to compute properties of an item that are a function of the item's uniquely determined environment. That is, items *acquire* properties from their environments and compute with them. Of course, this only works if the program establishes, maintains, and uses the hierarchy properly at all times, including so-called "friend pointers" from an item to its container (also known as "two-way links" in the UML community [8, p. 155]).

Gil and Lorenz [11] recognized this problem of *environmental acquisition* and proposed constructs for specifying such relationships directly within programs.¹ Their proposal was informal; it neither specified a formal type system for environmental acquisition nor stated a soundness theorem for a specific model. Since then, environmental acquisition has found its way into Python [22, 9] as a part of the Zope project [16]. Also, the second author has used environmental acquisition for a systems administration project where computers, switches, and ethernet cards acquire policies and other network information from their containers [17].

In this paper, we resume and continue this language design experiment. Specifically, we present a typed version of envi-

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¹As Gil and Lorenz point out, an object's *environment* may incorporate many different kinds of related objects. We restrict ourselves, as they do, to the environment provided by an object's containers.

```

class JComponent extends Container // ...
{
  // ...
  public JRootPane getRootPane() {
    return SwingUtilities.getRootPane(this);
  }
  // ...
}

class SwingUtilities // ...
{
  // ...
  public static JRootPane getRootPane(Component c) {
    if (c instanceof RootPaneContainer) {
      return ((RootPaneContainer)c).getRootPane();
    }
    for( ; c != null; c = c.getParent()) {
      if (c instanceof JRootPane) {
        return (JRootPane)c;
      }
    }
    return null;
  }
  // ...
}

```

Code from Java's Swing API [20].

Figure 1: root panes in Swing

ronmental acquisition for a class-based object-oriented programming language. Our goal is to show language designers how environmental acquisition helps programmers; what it takes to type constructs for environmental acquisition; and when the run-time system needs to check the invariants for acquisition relationships. A formal model, based on CLASSICJAVA [7], provides the framework in which we discuss the design decisions and in which we can prove a type soundness theorem. Finally, we use the model to formulate a challenge for the designers of type systems concerning the elimination of run-time checks.

The paper consists of seven sections. The next section introduces environmental acquisition with concrete examples. Then the third section briefly recalls those elements of CLASSICJAVA that matter for this paper. The fourth section is dedicated to JACQUES, an extension of CLASSICJAVA with constructs for specifying the environmental acquisition of fields and methods, its type system, and its formal semantics. In the fifth section we discuss several decisions concerning the design of JACQUES. The sixth section sketches how to scale our model to a full object-oriented language. The seventh section sketches related efforts, their limitations, and how we might incorporate their methods into future versions of JACQUES. The final section suggests some future work, especially on an improved type system for keeping track of acquisitions.

2. MOTIVATING EXAMPLES

As environmental acquisition relies on an object containment hierarchy, it has a strong connection with design patterns where such hierarchies play central roles, particularly the composite pattern and its close relative, the interpreter pattern. The focus of these patterns is often propagating information towards the root of an object tree. Acquisition

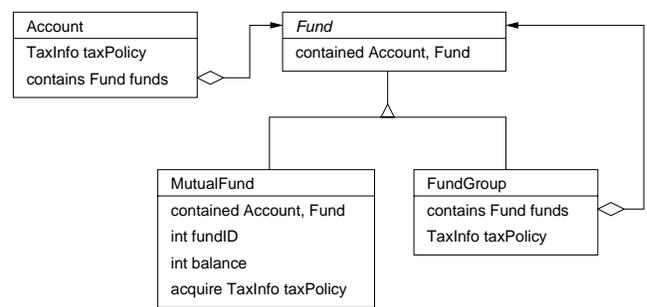


Figure 2: acquisition example: investment accounts

becomes relevant if the application must propagate information *away* from the root.

For example, consider GUI development toolkits, which are typically implemented with the composite pattern. In Java's Swing toolkit [21], for instance, all graphical components are subclasses of `JComponent`; several components like `JPanel` may contain other components. Every operating-system-level window in a Swing program has a single root pane; this pane contains the window's menu bar and other capabilities. Therefore, components that need to access the menu bar must have access to their containing root pane. Currently, the `JComponent.getRootPane` method retrieves the root pane by chasing explicit pointers up the panel containment hierarchy, as shown in figure 1. As GUI components are added, destroyed, and moved, the library maintains these pointers. With environmental acquisition, each individual component could simply acquire a reference to the root pane from its container, avoiding the need to write error-prone pointer-management code directly and instead leaving that responsibility to the run-time system.

Following Gamma et al, we take our next example of acquisition in the composite pattern from the financial sector. See figure 2 for the class diagram. The `Account` class represents an individual's account with a mutual fund firm; each account contains several `Fund` instances. It is frequently the case that an investor may have several types of funds within the same account; some funds may be standard investments, while others may be part of an IRA. To keep these funds separate for tax purposes, it is convenient to group multiple funds into a `FundGroup` instance. Now, transactions on a particular fund must take the fund's tax policy into account. With environmental acquisition, we simply declare the policy for the account as a whole, allow fund groups to override that policy for their funds, and have each fund acquire the policy from its nearest container.

For a final example, extracted from DrScheme [4], consider a class-writing wizard for use in a program development environment; see figure 3 for a UML diagram of the relevant classes. This wizard allows the user to define a new class or set of classes by specifying their properties graphically; the `produce` method in the `ClassUnionWizard` class generates the corresponding declarations in the target programming language. The system allows the user to define classes in several different manners. For example, the `ClassInfo` wizard constructs a single class, and the `UnionInfo` wizard constructs a sum-of-products type, as seen in the interpreter pattern.

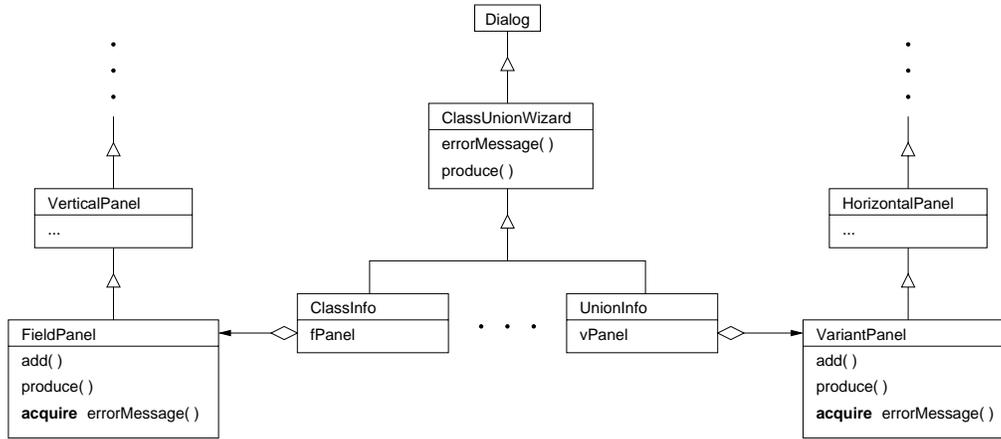
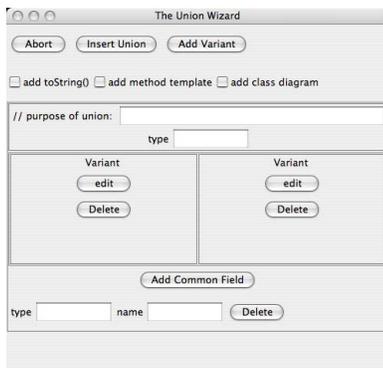


Figure 3: acquisition example: class wizard



Control interface

Work area

Error window

Figure 4: class wizard dialog

```

P      = defn* e
defn   = class c extends c {field* meth*}
field  = t fd
meth   = t md(arg*) {e}
arg    = t var
e      = new c | var | null | e : c.fd | e : c.fd = e
        | e.md(e*) | super ≡ this : c.md(e*)
        | cast t e | let var = e in e
var    = a variable name or this
c      = a class name or Object
fd     = a field name
md     = a method name
t      = c (a type name)

```

Figure 5: CLASSICJAVA syntax

Each dialog contains three main visual components: a control interface at the top, an error window at the bottom, and a large work area in the center that is specialized to the specific wizard; see figure 4. For example, the `UnionInfo` wizard contains a work area with one panel for each variant of the data type being developed. Since these variant panels are complicated in their own right, we have not included this code in `UnionInfo` but removed it to the `VariantPanel` class, instances of which are contained in the main dialog box.

A wizard typically cannot detect all of the errors in a design until it attempts to emit code via the `produce` method. In the `UnionInfo` class, this method simply invokes the same method on each of its `VariantPanel`s. If one of those detects an error, it must report it by communicating the error message up to the main dialog box for display in its error panel. Since, however, `VariantPanel` inherits from `HorizontalPanel` and not from `ClassUnionWizard`, it must use some other mechanism to access the `errorMessage` method. In other words, it must *acquire* this method from its containers.

This acquisition link also makes it easier to extend `UnionInfo`'s behavior later. In particular, if we wanted to subclass this to direct all error reports to a log file on disk, in addition to sending them to the window, we could simply place the `VariantPanel` objects into the extended `UnionInfo`; the pan-

els would acquire the extended `errorMessage` method, and we would achieve the desired behavior with no changes to `VariantPanel`.

Without acquisition, we could achieve the same behavior through either of two strategies. First (and currently), we could wrap the `errorMessage` method in a Scheme closure and pass this as an argument to the `VariantPanel` constructor; this panel object could then simply invoke the closure to report an error. Second, we could manage the container pointer manually, and the `VariantPanel` object could chase pointers to find the `errorMessage` method.

3. CLASSIC JAVA

CLASSICJAVA [7] is a formal model of the sequential core of Java [13] that includes inheritance, method overriding, and field mutation; the model could easily apply to similar OO languages, like C# [3] or Eiffel [19]. We summarize CLASSICJAVA in this section and refer the reader to the original paper for the full details.

Figure 5 specifies the syntax for CLASSICJAVA programs. The underlined portions of the syntax are added by the type checking and elaboration phase in order to make certain context-sensitive details available to the operational seman-

tics. For instance, evaluating a `super` expression requires knowledge of the location of the expression in the original program in order to perform method lookup correctly. Similarly, field accesses must know the static type of the object whose field is being accessed in order to resolve shadowed fields correctly. The underlined annotations provide all necessary information for these cases.

Figure 6 describes the six type judgments necessary to define CLASSICJAVA’s static semantics; we refer the reader to the original paper for the definition of these judgments. The CLASSICJAVA semantics also requires several additional relations; those that are relevant to our work are defined in figure 7. The dynamic semantics (a small-step operational semantics with evaluation contexts) requires access to the program’s class definitions P and an explicit store \mathcal{S} . Finally, we represent an instance as an ordered pair $\langle c, \mathcal{F} \rangle$, where c is the object’s class tag and \mathcal{F} is a finite map from tagged field names (i.e., $c.fd$) to values.

CLASSICJAVA satisfies a type soundness theorem:

Theorem 1 (Type Soundness for CLASSICJAVA)

If $\vdash_P P \Rightarrow P' : t$ and $P' = \text{defn}_1 \dots \text{defn}_n e$, then either

- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \mapsto^* \langle \text{obj}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$ and $\mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) = \langle t', \mathcal{F} \rangle$ and $t' \leq_P t$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \mapsto^* \langle \text{null}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \mapsto^* \langle \text{error: bad cast}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \mapsto^* \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \uparrow$.

4. JACQUES

JACQUES is an extension to CLASSICJAVA. It supports environmental acquisition of both fields and methods. In this section, we first describe JACQUES’s syntax, type system, and operational semantics; then we state and sketch a proof of type soundness for JACQUES. In the following section, we discuss our design choices and how the formal model helped making them.

To describe object containment in JACQUES programs, we use two directed graphs: the class containment graph and the object containment graph. The class containment graph for a program P contains one node for each class defined in P ; there is an edge from class c_1 to class c_2 if and only if c_1 ’s declaration indicates that it may be contained in c_2 (section 4.1). The class containment graph is orthogonal to the class inheritance tree, and it is a static property of program P .

In contrast, the object containment graph describes the state of the program at a particular point in its execution. This graph (section 4.4) contains one node for each object instance in the program’s store, and an edge from object x to object y exactly when x is contained in y .

Finally, while JACQUES supports most of CLASSICJAVA’s capabilities, we disallow field shadowing, to simplify the description of field acquisition. In section 6, we discuss the issue of adding field shadowing and other features of Java to JACQUES.

4.1 Syntax

To support acquisition along containment links between objects, we must have some way to distinguish between

```

defn      = class c extends c contained c* {
              field*
              contains field*
              acquires field*
              meth*
              acquires acqmeth*}
acqmeth   = t md(t*)

```

Figure 8: JACQUES syntax extensions

those links that represent containment in the sense of a containment hierarchy and those that do not. Therefore, in JACQUES, the programmer must explicitly tag those fields that represent a containment relationship. JACQUES also requires explicit acquisition, i.e., classes must explicitly declare the fields they acquire from their environment. Figure 8 extends CLASSICJAVA’s class definition syntax with these annotations.

The `contains` and `acquires` keywords divide the field definitions into three groups. Consider the class definition

```

class A ... {
  X x
  contains Y y
  acquires Z z ...
}

```

and let \mathbf{a} be an instance of A . Fields in the first two groups (here, x and y) are parts of \mathbf{a} , and fields in the last group (z) are not directly in \mathbf{a} but are rather acquired from \mathbf{a} ’s context. Further, only objects in fields in the second group (here, y) are considered to be *contained* in \mathbf{a} , and therefore only they may acquire fields from \mathbf{a} .

Similarly, the `acquires` keyword splits the method definitions into two groups. Methods in the first group behave as in CLASSICJAVA. Methods in the second group, on the other hand, are acquired from the object’s context; therefore, their definitions need not include anything beyond their signatures.

Finally, the (possibly empty) sequence of classes specified after the `contained` keyword places restrictions on the types of objects that may contain objects of the class being defined. In particular, if an instance a of class c is contained in anything, the container’s type must be a subtype of one of the classes specified in c ’s container list. As a consequence, if this list is empty, then a may not be contained (in the spirit of environmental acquisition) in any object.

4.2 Types

Both the static and dynamic semantics must be able to distinguish between the three kinds of fields and the two kinds of methods. Therefore, we adjust CLASSICJAVA’s abstract representation of fields and methods. A field definition is now a triple $\langle t, fd, s \rangle$, where t is the field’s type, fd is its name, and s is a tag indicating the kind of field; s is one of `normal`, `contained`, or `acquired`.

Similarly, a method definition is a 5-tuple $\langle md, T, V, e, s \rangle$, where md , T , V , and e are as before, and s is a tag indicating where the method originated; s may be either `normal` or `acquired`. (The third and fourth elements of the tuple are meaningless for acquired methods, but we leave them in to simplify the definition of, e.g., \in_P .)

$\vdash_p P \Rightarrow P' : t$	program P elaborates to P' with type t
$P \vdash_d \text{defn} \Rightarrow \text{defn}'$	class definition defn elaborates to defn'
$P, t \vdash_m \text{meth} \Rightarrow \text{meth}'$	method meth in class t elaborates to meth'
$P, \Gamma \vdash_e e \Rightarrow e' : t$	e elaborates to e' with type t in Γ
$P, \Gamma \vdash_s e \Rightarrow e' : t$	e elaborates to e' and has type t using subsumption in Γ
$P \vdash_t t$	type t exists

Figure 6: CLASSICJAVA type judgments

\prec_P	immediate subclass $c \prec_P c' \iff \text{class } c \text{ extends } c' \{ \dots \} \text{ is in } P$
\leq_P	subclass \leq_P is defined to be the reflexive-transitive closure of \prec_P
\in_P	field is declared in a class $\langle c, fd, t \rangle \in_P c \iff \text{class } c \dots \{ \dots t \text{ fd } \dots \} \text{ is in } P$
\in_P	method is declared in a class $\langle md, (t_1 \dots t_n \rightarrow t), (var_1 \dots var_n), e \rangle \in_P c \iff \text{class } c \dots \{ \dots t \text{ md}(t_1 \text{ var}_1 \dots t_n \text{ var}_n) \{ e \} \dots \} \text{ is in } P$
\in_P	field is contained in a class $\langle c', fd, t \rangle \in_P c \iff \langle c', fd, t \rangle \in_P c' \text{ and } c' = \min\{c'' \mid c \leq_P c'' \text{ and } \exists t'. \langle c'', fd, t' \rangle \in_P c''\}$
\in_P	method is contained in a class $\langle md, T, V, e \rangle \in_P c \iff \langle md, T, V, e \rangle \in_P c' \text{ and } c' = \min\{c'' \mid c \leq_P c'' \text{ and } \exists e', V'. \langle md, T, V', e' \rangle \in_P c''\}$

Figure 7: CLASSICJAVA relations

Finally, we also use an adjusted instance representation: $\langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ where c is the class tag, ctnr is a (possibly null) reference to the instance's container, and \mathcal{F} is a finite map from field names to values. We also define three selector functions: classTag , ctnr , and fields map an instance triple to its class tag, container reference, and field function, respectively.

JACQUES's semantics requires many of the relations and predicates defined in figure 7, with appropriate modifications to several, including \in_P and \in_P . The additional necessary predicates are straightforward; their definitions are provided below and in figure 9.

The predicate $\text{canAcq}_P(c, \langle t, fd, s \rangle)$ determines if it is safe for class c to acquire field $\langle t, fd, s \rangle$. This acquisition is safe if the class containment graph implies that, for all possible environments for instances of c , the nearest enclosing class that provides the field fd provides it with a compatible type. Formally, we define $\text{canAcq}_P(c, \langle t, fd, s \rangle)$ to be true if and only if every unsafe path that starts with c in the class containment graph has a safe prefix. An unsafe path is one that ends in a class c'' such that

- $\langle t'', fd, s'' \rangle \in_P c''$, and
- $t'' \not\leq_P t$.

A safe path is one that ends in a class c' such that

- $\langle t', fd, s' \rangle \in_P c'$, and
- $s' \neq \text{acquired}$, and
- $t' \leq_P t$.

In other words, no traversal of the class containment graph finds a field of the desired name and an incompatible type before it finds a field with a compatible type. Note that we allow the existence of paths that never find a field of

the desired name, and we even allow the absence of any paths that find the desired field. Forbidding these conditions would not strengthen the type system: even if all paths from a class c reach the field, we must still check at run-time for the possibility that an object of type c has a null container.

Similarly, the predicate canAcqMeth_P checks whether it is safe for class c to acquire a method md ; it differs only in the type compatibility requirements. Formally, $\text{canAcqMeth}_P(c, \langle md, (t_1 \dots t_n \rightarrow t), V, e, s \rangle)$ is true if and only if every unsafe path that starts with c in the class containment graph has a safe prefix. Here, an unsafe path is one that ends in a class c'' such that $\langle md, (t_1'' \dots t_m'' \rightarrow t''), V'', e'', s'' \rangle \in_P c''$ and one of the following is true:

- $m \neq n$, or
- $t'' \not\leq_P t$, or
- $m = n$ and for some $i \in [1, n]$, $t_i \not\leq_P t_i''$.

A safe path is one that ends in a class c' where

- $\langle md, (t_1' \dots t_n' \rightarrow t'), V', e', s' \rangle \in_P c'$, and
- $s' \neq \text{acquired}$, and
- $t' \leq_P t$, and
- $t_i \leq_P t_i'$ for all $i \in [1, n]$.

With these relations on the class graph, we can define the type elaboration rules for JACQUES; figure 10 specifies the necessary changes to CLASSICJAVA's rules. In addition to the rules shown, there are straightforward variations of CLASSICJAVA's GET, CALL, and SUPER to account for the change in field and method representations. Also, because we no longer support field shadowing, we add $\text{ClassFieldsOK}(P)$ as an antecedent to the PROG_{*j*} rule, and neither the GET_{*j*}

$ClassFieldsOK(P)$	no field definition shadows a field defined in a superclass $\langle t_1, fd, s_1 \rangle \in_P c_1$ and $\langle t_2, fd, s_2 \rangle \in_P c_2$ and $c_1 \neq c_2 \implies c_1 \not\leq_P c_2$
$containers_P(c)$	set of all possible containers of instances of class c $containers_P(\mathbf{Object}) = \emptyset$ $containers_P(c) = \{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$ where class $c \dots$ contained $c_1 \dots c_n$ $\{\dots\}$ is in P
$acqFields_P(c)$	set of all acquired fields in class c $acqFields_P(\mathbf{Object}) = \emptyset$ $acqFields_P(c) = acqFields_P(c') \cup \{\langle t, fd, \mathbf{acquired} \rangle \mid \langle t, fd, \mathbf{acquired} \rangle \in_P c\}$ where class c extends $c' \dots \{\dots\}$ is in P
$acqMethods_P(c)$	set of all acquired methods in class c $acqMethods_P(\mathbf{Object}) = \emptyset$ $acqMethods_P(c) = \{\langle md, T, V, e, \mathbf{acquired} \rangle \mid \langle md, T, V, e, \mathbf{acquired} \rangle \in_P c\}$ where class $c \dots \{\dots\}$ is in P
\sqsubset_P	class may be contained $c_1 \sqsubset_P c_2 \iff$ there exists $c' \in containers_P(c_1)$ such that $c_2 \leq_P c'$

Figure 9: JACQUES relations

DEFN _j	$P \vdash_t t_j$ for all $j \in [1, m]$	$P \vdash_t c_j$ for all $j \in [1, n]$	$P, c \vdash_m meth_i \Rightarrow meth'_i$ for all $i \in [1, p]$
	$\forall f \in acqFields_P(c) . canAcq_P(c, f)$	$\forall m \in acqMethods_P(c) . canAcqMeth_P(c, m)$	
	$containers_P(c') \subseteq containers_P(c)$	$t_i \sqsubset_P c$ for all $i \in [k+1, \ell]$	
	<hr/>		
	$P \vdash_d$ class c extends c' contained $c_1, \dots, c_n \Rightarrow$	class c extends c' contained c_1, \dots, c_n	
	$\{t_1 fd_1 \dots t_k fd_k$	$\{t_1 fd_1 \dots t_k fd_k$	
	contains $t_{k+1} fd_{k+1} \dots t_\ell fd_\ell$	contains $t_{k+1} fd_{k+1} \dots t_\ell fd_\ell$	
	acquires $t_{\ell+1} fd_{\ell+1} \dots t_m fd_m$	acquires $t_{\ell+1} fd_{\ell+1} \dots t_m fd_m$	
	$meth_1 \dots meth_p$	$meth'_1 \dots meth'_p$	
	acquires $acqmeth_1 \dots acqmeth_q\}$	acquires $acqmeth_1 \dots acqmeth_q\}$	
	<hr/>		
SET _j	$P, \Gamma \vdash_s e_1 \Rightarrow e'_1 : t' \quad \langle t, fd, s \rangle \in_P t'$		
	$s \neq \mathbf{acquired} \quad P, \Gamma \vdash_s e_2 \Rightarrow e_2 : t$		
	<hr/>		
	$P, \Gamma \vdash_e e_1.f d = e_2 \Rightarrow e'_1.f d = e'_2 : t$		

Figure 10: JACQUES type elaboration rules

nor the SET_j rule annotates field reference or assignment expressions. Further, SET_j prohibits assignments to acquired fields; see section 5.5 for the rationale for this restriction.

The DEFN_j rule contains most of the changes that support acquisition. First, it verifies that class c 's environments provide the necessary fields and methods with compatible types. This indirectly requires that if c or any of its superclasses acquire any fields or methods, then c must have at least one container. Second, c 's containers must be a superset of c 's superclass's containers, to preserve behavioral subtyping.² Third, it must ensure that all of the classes that can be in c 's contained fields allow themselves to be contained in c , as required by the soundness proof. The DEFN_j rule could also verify that class A can contain instances of class B if and only if B can be contained in A . While warnings of violations of this invariant are likely to be useful to the programmer, they are not required for type soundness.

²As we move down the inheritance hierarchy, the set of possible containers must increase monotonically. However, a subclass may also add new acquired fields or methods; this further constrains the set of possible containers. There is no inconsistency hidden here; it simply creates a trade-off that the programmer must consider during the design of class hierarchies.

4.3 Semantics

JACQUES's semantics is like that of CLASSICJAVA, with some modifications and additions; the changes are defined in figure 11, with additional supplementary functions defined in figure 12. In particular, many of these rules perform the additional run-time checks necessary to ensure that acquisition is well-defined. In particular, the $aget_j$, $acall_j$, and $asuper_j$ rules ensure that references to acquired fields or methods happen when the object is in a sufficiently rich environment; if not, the rules raise an "incomplete context" exception. Similarly, the $ct-set_j$ rule, for assignment to a contained field, ensures that the field's new contents are not already contained elsewhere and that the assignment does not create an acquisition cycle. If either condition fails, the rules raise an "already contained" or "container cycle" exception as appropriate.

4.4 Jacques Soundness

To study the properties of JACQUES's type system and semantics, we have implemented the model in PLT Redex [18], a system for debugging reduction systems. This implementation does not yet support either method acquisition or field assignment, but it raises our confidence that the proof of the following type-soundness theorem is correct.

$e = \dots \mid obj$	
$v = obj \mid \text{null}$	
$E = [] \mid E.fd \mid E.fd = e \mid v.fd = E \mid E.md(e \dots) \mid v.md(v \dots E e \dots)$	
$\mid \text{super} \equiv v : c.md(v \dots E e \dots) \mid \text{cast } t E \mid \text{let } var = E \text{ in } e$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{new } c], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[obj], S[obj \mapsto \langle c, \text{null}, \mathcal{F} \rangle] \rangle$	[new _j]
$\text{where } obj \notin \text{dom}(S) \text{ and } \mathcal{F} = \{fd \mapsto \text{null} \mid \langle t, fd, s \rangle \in_P c \text{ and } s \neq \text{acquired}\}$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[\mathcal{F}(fd)], S \rangle$	[get _j]
$\text{where } \mathcal{F} = \text{fields}(S(obj)) \text{ and } fd \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{F})$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[\text{getAcqField}_P(S, obj, fd)], S \rangle$	[aget _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } \text{getAcqField}_P(S, obj, fd) \neq \perp$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: incomplete context}, S \rangle$	[xaget _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } \text{getAcqField}_P(S, obj, fd) = \perp$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd = v], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[v], \text{updateField}(S, obj, fd, v) \rangle$	[set _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{normal} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd = \text{null}], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[\text{null}], \text{updateCtdField}(S, obj, fd, \text{null}) \rangle$	[n-ct-set _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd = v], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: already contained}, S \rangle$	[x-ct-set _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } v \in \text{dom}(S) \text{ and } \text{ctnr}(S(v)) \neq \text{null}$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd = v], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: container cycle}, S \rangle$	[cycle-set _j]
$\text{where } \langle t, fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } v \in \text{dom}(S) \text{ and } \text{canReach}_P(S, obj, v)$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.fd = v], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[v], \text{updateCtdField}(S, obj, fd, v) \rangle$	[ct-set _j]
$\text{where } v \in \text{dom}(S) \text{ and } \langle t, fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } \text{ctnr}(S(v)) = \text{null} \text{ and } \neg \text{canReach}_P(S, obj, v)$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[e_b[obj'/\text{this}, v_1/var_1, \dots, v_n/var_n]], S \rangle$	[acall _j]
$\text{where } \langle md, T, V, e, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } \langle obj', e_b \rangle = \text{getAcqMethod}_P(S, obj, md)$	
$P \vdash \langle E[obj.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: incomplete context}, S \rangle$	[xacall _j]
$\text{where } \langle md, T, V, e, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(S(obj))$	
$\text{and } \text{getAcqMethod}_P(S, obj, md) = \perp$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{super} \equiv obj : c'.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[e[obj/\text{this}, v_1/var_1, \dots, v_n/var_n]], S \rangle$	[super _j]
$\text{where } \langle md, T, (var_1, \dots, var_n), e, \text{normal} \rangle \in_P c'$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{super} \equiv obj : c'.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[e[obj'/\text{this}, v_1/var_1, \dots, v_n/var_n]], S \rangle$	[asuper _j]
$\text{where } \langle md, T, \overline{-}, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P c' \text{ and } \langle obj', e \rangle = \text{getAcqMethod}_P(S, obj, md)$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{super} \equiv obj : c'.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: incomplete context}, S \rangle$	[xasuper _j]
$\text{where } \langle md, T, \overline{-}, \text{acquired} \rangle \in_P c' \text{ and } \text{getAcqMethod}_P(S, obj, md) = \perp$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{cast } t' obj], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[obj], S \rangle$	[cast]
$\text{where } S(obj) = \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle \text{ and } c \leq_P t'$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{let } var = v \text{ in } e], S \rangle \mapsto \langle E[e[v/var]], S \rangle$	[let]
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{cast } t' obj], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: bad cast}, S \rangle$	[xcast]
$\text{where } S(obj) = \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle \text{ and } c \not\leq_P t'$	
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{cast } t' \text{null}], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, S \rangle$	[ncast]
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{null}.fd], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, S \rangle$	[nget]
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{null}.fd = v], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, S \rangle$	[nset]
$P \vdash \langle E[\text{null}.md(v_1 \dots v_n)], S \rangle \mapsto \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, S \rangle$	[ncall]

Figure 11: JACQUES operational semantics

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{getAcqField}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{null}, fd) &= \perp \\
\text{getAcqField}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, fd) &= \begin{cases} \mathcal{F}(fd) & \text{if } fd \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{F}) \\ \text{getAcqField}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{ctnr}, fd) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
&\quad \text{where } \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle = \mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) \\
\\
\text{getAcqMethod}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{null}, fd) &= \perp \\
\text{getAcqMethod}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, fd) &= \begin{cases} \langle \text{obj}, e_b \rangle & \text{if } \langle md, T, V, e_b, \text{normal} \rangle \in_P \text{classTag}(\mathcal{S}(\text{obj})) \\ \text{getAcqMethod}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{ctnr}, md) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
&\quad \text{where } \text{ctnr} = \text{ctnr}(\mathcal{S}(\text{obj})) \\
\\
\text{updateField}(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, fd, v) &= \mathcal{S}[\text{obj} \mapsto \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F}[fd \mapsto v] \rangle] \\
&\quad \text{where } \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle = \mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) \\
\\
\text{updateCtdField}(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, fd, v) &= \text{updateField}(\mathcal{S}_2, \text{obj}, fd, v) \\
&\quad \text{where } \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle = \mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) \text{ and} \\
&\quad \mathcal{S}_1 = \text{updateContainer}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{F}(fd), \text{null}) \text{ and} \\
&\quad \mathcal{S}_2 = \text{updateContainer}(\mathcal{S}_1, v, \text{obj}) \\
\\
\text{updateContainer}(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, \text{ctnr}) &= \begin{cases} \mathcal{S} & \text{if } \text{obj} = \text{null} \\ \mathcal{S}[\text{obj} \mapsto \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
&\quad \text{where } \langle c, _ , \mathcal{F} \rangle = \mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) \\
\\
\text{canReach}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{obj}, v) &\iff \text{obj} = v \text{ or } (\text{ctnr} \neq \text{null} \text{ and } \text{canReach}_P(\mathcal{S}, \text{ctnr}, v)) \\
&\quad \text{where } \text{ctnr} = \text{ctnr}(\mathcal{S}(\text{obj}))
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 12: JACQUES supplementary functions

Theorem 2 (Type Soundness for JACQUES)

If $\vdash_P P \Rightarrow P' : t$ and $P' = \text{defn}_1 \dots \text{defn}_n e$, then either

- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \uparrow$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{obj}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$ and $\text{classTag}(\mathcal{S}(\text{obj})) \leq_P t$;
or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{null}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{error: bad cast}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{error: dereferenced null}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$;

or

- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{error: incomplete context}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{error: already contained}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$; or
- $P' \vdash \langle e, \emptyset \rangle \hookrightarrow^* \langle \text{error: container cycle}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$.

A comparison of theorem 1 and theorem 2 indicates that JACQUES can throw additional exceptions that do not occur in CLASSICJAVA programs. The last three exceptions are forced upon us by acquisition, and we cannot avoid them without a complex analysis, a more sophisticated type system, or different linguistic mechanisms. Put differently, we have succeeded in making acquisition just as safe as ML, as many errors can be caught statically, but some run-time checks (and exceptions) remain necessary.

The soundness proof follows the standard method [23] as applied to CLASSICJAVA [7]. In addition to the subject reduction and uniform evaluation lemmas, we also require some definitions and supporting lemmas beyond those used in the CLASSICJAVA soundness proof; they are stated below.

Definition 1 (Object Containment)

We write $P, \mathcal{S} \vdash \text{obj}_1 \sqsupseteq \text{obj}_2$ to indicate that obj_1 contains obj_2 in store \mathcal{S} and program P . Formally:

$$\begin{aligned}
P, \mathcal{S} \vdash \text{obj}_1 \sqsupseteq \text{obj}_2 &\iff \\
&\mathcal{S}(\text{obj}_1) = \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle \text{ and } \mathcal{F}(fd) = \text{obj}_2 \\
&\text{for some } fd \text{ such that } \langle c', fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P c.
\end{aligned}$$

Definition 2 (Object Containment Graph)

For a given store \mathcal{S} , we construct a directed graph $G_{\mathcal{S}}$, called the object containment graph, as follows:

$$G_{\mathcal{S}} = (V, E)$$

where

$$V = \text{rng}(\mathcal{S}) \text{ and } E = \{ \langle x, y \rangle \in V^2 \mid \text{ctnr}(x) = y \}.$$

In other words, there is a node in $G_{\mathcal{S}}$ for each object in \mathcal{S} , and an edge from each node to its container.

Next we need to adapt the environment-store consistency relation from the proof of theorem 1 to the new context.

Definition 3 (Environment-Store Consistency)

We write $P, \Gamma \vdash_{\sigma} \mathcal{S}$ to indicate that the type environment Γ and the store \mathcal{S} are consistent with one another, given the program P . Formally:

$$\begin{aligned}
P, \Gamma \vdash_{\sigma} \mathcal{S} &\iff \\
&\text{obj} \in \text{dom}(\Gamma) \implies \text{obj} \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \\
&\wedge \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma) \\
* \wedge G_{\mathcal{S}} &\text{ has no cycles and is of finite size} \\
\wedge [\mathcal{S}(\text{obj}) = \langle c, \text{ctnr}, \mathcal{F} \rangle \implies & \\
&\Gamma(\text{obj}) = c \\
&\wedge \text{dom}(\mathcal{F}) = \{ fd \mid \langle t, fd, s \rangle \in_P c, s \in \{ \text{normal}, \text{contained} \} \} \\
&\wedge \text{rng}(\mathcal{F}) \subseteq \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{ \text{null} \} \\
&\wedge (\mathcal{F}(fd) \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \wedge \langle c', fd, s \rangle \in_P c \implies \\
&\quad \text{classTag}(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{F}(fd))) \leq_P c' \\
* \wedge (\mathcal{F}(fd) = \mathcal{F}(fd') \neq \text{null} \wedge \langle t, fd, \text{contained} \rangle \in_P c \wedge & \\
&\quad \langle t', fd', \text{contained} \rangle \in_P c \implies fd = fd' \\
* \wedge \text{ctnr} = \text{null} \implies \neg \exists \text{obj}' \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}). P, \mathcal{S} \vdash \text{obj}' \sqsupseteq \text{obj} & \\
* \wedge \text{ctnr} \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \implies P, \mathcal{S} \vdash \text{ctnr} \sqsupseteq \text{obj} & \\
* \wedge \text{ctnr} \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \implies & \\
&\exists c' \in \text{containers}_P(c). \text{classTag}(\mathcal{S}(\text{ctnr})) \leq_P c' \\
* \wedge (P, \mathcal{S} \vdash \text{obj} \sqsupseteq \text{obj}') \implies \text{ctnr}(\mathcal{S}(\text{obj}')) = \text{obj} & \\
* \wedge \text{ctnr} \in \text{dom}(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{ \text{null} \} &
\end{aligned}$$

Those clauses marked with $*$ are added to CLASSICJAVA for JACQUES. In order, they place the following requirements on the store:

- No object may have two **contained** fields that refer to the same object. This allows us to set an object’s container to null when we remove it from its container without breaking any other invariants.
- If obj ’s container is null, then there exists no object that contains obj .
- If obj ’s container is obj' , then obj' contains obj .
- If obj has class tag c and container obj' , then obj' must have a class tag that is a subtype of one of class c ’s containers.
- If obj contains obj' , then obj' must specify obj as its container.
- An object’s container is either a valid object reference or null.

Lemma 1 (Containment Path Consistency)

If $P, \Gamma \vdash_{\sigma} S$ and $\mathcal{S}(obj) = \langle c, ctrn, \mathcal{F} \rangle$ and $ctrn \neq \text{null}$, then there exists a class $c' \in \text{containers}_P(c)$ such that

$$\text{classTag}(\mathcal{S}(ctrn)) \leq_P c'.$$

This lemma follows fairly directly from $P, \Gamma \vdash_{\sigma} S$. Since G_S is finite and acyclic, all paths have finite length, and therefore a simple induction on the length of the path proves that all paths in the object containment graph are consistent with the class containment graph. We use this result in the proof of the subject reduction lemma to ensure that the results of getAcqField_P and getAcqMethod_P have the expected types.

5. JACQUES DESIGN ISSUES

In developing JACQUES, we encountered several interesting design problems. We rejected some design alternatives because they break type safety; for others, we based our decisions on pragmatics. In this section, we discuss these design choices and provide rationales. We use the program in figure 13 as a running example.

5.1 Containment Cycles

The object containment graph cannot have cycles, as Gil and Lorenz explain. This does not mean, however, that the *class* containment graph should be acyclic as well. As stated in section 2, acquisition is often useful in conjunction with the composite pattern. It is frequently essential in this pattern that objects be allowed to contain other instances of their own class (or a superclass). For a concrete example, consider a GUI toolkit library in which classes such as `Panel` and `Button` are subclasses of `Component`. If instances of `Panel` cannot contain other instances of `Panel` or instances of (subclasses of) `Component`, then programmers have too little freedom to compose objects. Therefore, we allow cycles within the class containment graph. Acquisition remains well-defined as long as the *object* containment graph has no cycles, and the *ct-set_j* reduction enforces this restriction at runtime.

This design choice is orthogonal to type safety. As discussed in section 4.4, we have proved type soundness with cycles in the class containment graph.

5.2 Acquisition by Value and by Name

In their original description of acquisition, Gil and Lorenz do not address field assignment and how it interacts with acquisition. With assignment, it becomes important to determine when acquisition takes place. We considered two options, which we call “acquisition-by-value” and “acquisition-by-name,” by analogy with call-by-value and call-by-name. The primary difference between the two is the point at which the acquiring object receives the value of the container’s field.

In our running example (figure 13) with acquisition-by-value, the acquiring object `anItem` receives the value of its acquired fields when it is placed in its container `aCtnr`. Subsequent modifications to `aCtnr`’s fields are not automatically visible to `anItem`. With acquisition-by-name, on the other hand, `anItem` receives the value of its acquired fields anew each time the fields are referenced. Therefore, modifications to `aCtnr`’s fields are automatically visible to `anItem`. In both cases, type soundness is preserved as long as the value in `aCtnr.fd` has a type compatible with that declared for `anItem.fd`.

The choice of acquisition-by-value raises two questions:

1. If we remove `anItem` from its container `aCtnr`, does it preserve the field values it acquired from `aCtnr`, or do those fields now become undefined?
2. If we then add `anItem` to another container `aCtnr'`, does it preserve its existing field values, or does it replace them with the values then current in its new container?

With acquisition-by-name, in contrast, the answers to these questions follow directly from the definition above. This ambiguity leads us to believe that acquisition-by-name is the better mechanism, from both a semantic as well as a pragmatic perspective.

5.3 Types of Acquired Fields

In the example of figure 13, `anItem` acquires the field `fd` from its environment, specifically the container `aCtnr`. The class `Container1` defines `fd` to have type `Prop1`, but `Item` acquires it with `Property`’s interface. Since `Prop1` is a subtype of `Property`, this acquisition is safe. In general, acquiring classes may expect a more general type for their acquired fields than their environments actually provide. For increased flexibility, the definition of JACQUES, through the *canAcq_P* predicate, allows just this sort of type variance. (Note that this is similar to, though not exactly the same as, the traditional notion of contravariance: we have `Prop1 ≤P Property` but `Item ≯P Container1`, so the idea of one type getting larger while the other gets smaller is not applicable.)

5.4 Types of Acquired Methods

In our example, `Item` acquires the method `meth` with argument type `Prop2` and result type `Property`. This is safe so long as the method that is actually executed as a result of calls to `anItem.meth` (that is, the method provided by the context) allows a more general type for its arguments and returns a value of a more specific type. So, since `Prop2 ≤P Property` and `Prop1 ≤P Property`, `Item` can safely acquire `meth` from `Container1`. The definition of *canAcqMeth_P* allows this flexibility. This is only safe, however, because JACQUES does not support method overloading. As we scale acquisi-

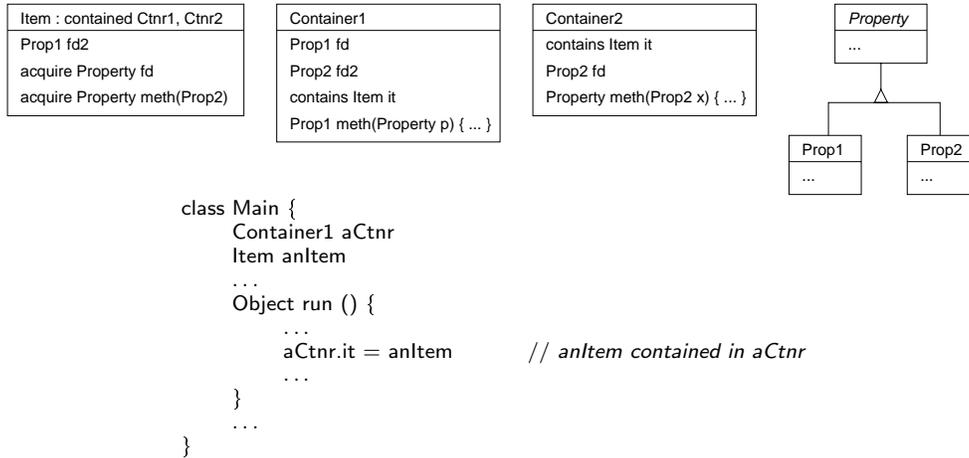


Figure 13: JACQUES running example

tion to a language with method overloading, we may have to restrict method acquisition to use invariant types.

5.5 Assignment to Acquired Fields

Allowing assignment to acquired fields with “contravariant” typing as described above is not type-safe. In our running example, an assignment such as

```
anItem.fd = new Prop2()
```

would type-check because `anItem.fd` is declared to have type `Property`. However, since `anItem` acquires the field `fd` from `aCtnr`, and `aCtnr.fd` has type `Prop1`, allowing assignments such as the above would break type safety. There are three possible strategies that would allow assignment to `anItem.fd` while preserving type safety:

1. The type of an acquired field must match exactly in the acquiring class and the container. In our example, this would correspond to requiring `Item` to acquire the field `fd` with type `Prop1` (which would in turn prevent `Container2` from containing `Item`).
2. We could restrict the assignment statement while preserving variance in acquired field types. In this case, the value on the right-hand side of an assignment must have exactly the same type as the left-hand side; subtyping would no longer be allowed here.
3. We could preserve the variance in acquired field types and simply disallow all assignments to acquired fields.

The second option has several drawbacks. First, as long as we preserve subsumption throughout the rest of the language, this restriction could only be performed by a dynamic check, which would complicate the semantics yet further. Second, it would restrict the types allowed on the left-hand side of an assignment statement. In Java, for instance, the left-hand side of such an assignment statement could not have an interface type. Because interfaces can never be instantiated directly, it would be impossible for the value of the right-hand side to have exactly the same type as the left. This would severely constrain assignment statements.

Finally, it would forbid subsumption in a particular context. Not only would this create asymmetry in the language design, it would do so in a particularly restrictive fashion, due to the frequent occurrence of assignment statements in object-oriented programs.

Therefore, we must choose between the first and third options. JACQUES implements the third option, as we conjecture that it is more pragmatically useful than the first. Without the benefit of experience with acquisition in real-world software projects, though, we cannot answer this question definitively, and we need to revisit this issue once we have gained more experience.

5.6 Changing Containers

With the ability to mutate fields in existing objects comes the ability to mutate the object containment graph after it has been established. While this ability may be necessary in some applications, we want to preserve the invariant that `aCtnr` contains `anItem` if and only if `anItem`’s container is `aCtnr`. This allows both objects, but particularly `aCtnr`, to make useful assumptions about the object containment graph at runtime.

For this reason, we prohibit programs from moving an object from one container to another in a single assignment statement, because it can easily break the containment hierarchy property. This restriction is enforced by the *x-ct-set_j* reduction, which requires an object’s container pointer to be null before it can be added to a container. An alternative would be to follow Alan Kay’s maxim of replacing assignment with higher-level forms of mutation operations [14], specifically a *switch-container* operation.

5.7 Forwarding and Delegation Semantics

Gil and Lorenz discuss the choice between forwarding and delegation semantics for acquired methods. To define these terms as applied to environmental acquisition, consider our running example, in which `anItem` acquires the method `meth` from `aCtnr`; recall that `Item` $\not\leq_P$ `Container1`. Under forwarding semantics, when `Main` invokes `anItem.meth`, this is bound to `aCtnr` during the execution of the method’s body. With delegation semantics, this is instead bound to `anItem`.

By type rule METH_j , the body of `Container1.meth` is elaborated under the assumption that `this` has type `Container1` (or any subtype). Hence, the body can refer to arbitrary features of `Container1`, such as `fd2`. If, instead, `this` were suddenly bound to `anItem` at runtime, references to properties of `Container1` may become undefined or ill-typed. Specifically, a reference to `this.fd2` would reduce to a value of type `Prop1` rather than `Prop2` as expected. We thus conclude that forwarding semantics for environmental acquisition is the only safe possibility in a statically typed language.

5.8 Guarded Field References

As defined, `JACQUES` throws an exception upon a reference to an acquired field if the object in question is not in an environment that provides the expected field. In their original formulation, Gil and Lorenz propose guarded field references as a protection against this exception. A guarded field reference is simply a field reference expression that includes a default value to be used if the object is not in a suitable environment. If the compiler can prove that, for a particular field reference, the object is always in a suitable environment, the programmer may omit the default.

Since `JACQUES`'s type system cannot prove this for *any* field reference, *all* references would have to have guards in order to preserve safety. As a result, proving type soundness with guards is not markedly different from proving it with the incomplete context exception. Further, we conjecture that in practice, most programmers would specify `null` as their guard expression, thus hiding the incomplete context exception within a null pointer exception and thus severely hindering their own debugging efforts. Therefore, we have chosen to omit guards and to raise an exception in cases where an object's environment does not suffice. If practical experience suggests that such guards are practically useful, we may add them to the language later.

6. SCALING TO FULL JAVA

To scale `JACQUES`'s design to full Java [13] or C# [3], we must address two features of the larger language that our model does not include: concurrency and field shadowing. It seems that acquisition can co-exist with concurrency without any more than the normal difficulties associated with concurrent programs. In particular, if one thread changes the object containment graph while another is traversing that graph to look up an acquired field value, the results are undefined. It would be possible to define an acquired field reference to be an atomic operation via a Java `synchronized` block, but this seems unnecessary; the difficulties that can arise in situations like this are no worse than those which may arise in concurrent Java programs that involve heavy pointer manipulation.

Java-style field shadowing presents a more complicated challenge. In the case where an object acquires a shadowed or shadowing field from its container, it is no longer clear which field should be visible to the acquiring object. Consider the following class definitions:

```
class A extends Object ... {X x ... }
class B extends A ... {X x ... }
class C extends Object contained A { ... acquires X x ... }
```

If `c`, an instance of `C`, is contained within `b`, an instance of `B`, it is most consistent with Java's current behavior if `c`

acquires `A.x` rather than `B.x`, as `c` acquires properties from its container as viewed through `A`'s interface. However, the language should provide the programmer with a means of overriding this default when necessary, much as Java allows the programmer to cast the object in a field reference expression to select which overloaded field is used.

7. RELATED WORK

The recent work in ownership types [2, 1] introduces constraints on the object composition graph in order to preserve certain desirable invariants, much as we do. In such a type system, the programmer annotates all field declarations, local variable declarations, method arguments, and method return types with ownership information. The type system then ensures that all paths from the root of the object containment graph to an object must pass through the object's owner. Consequently, if an object is owned by its container, only its container may refer to it. This restricts object aliasing and makes it easier to reason about object-oriented programs in the face of field mutation.

While ownership types and types for environmental acquisition both restrict the shape of the object containment graph, the similarities end there. While ownership constraints could help ensure that an object has at most one container, we believe that preventing aliasing to the degree achieved by their system is overly restrictive. In `JACQUES`, we explicitly allow an object to possess a reference to the contents of another object's contained field, so long as this additional reference does not imply a containment relationship. Further, we could remove the need for the "already contained" exception without complicating the type system further by disallowing direct assignment to contained fields and providing a `switch-container` operation that manipulates the object containment graph while preserving all desired invariants. Finally, ownership types do not appear to help our existing system's most severe drawback, namely the inability to detect at compile time whether an object will be in an environment that provides all of the necessary acquired fields and methods.

8. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we have resumed Gil and Lorenz's language design experiment in environmental acquisition. We have extended `CLASSICJAVA` to provide a formal operational semantics and a formal type system for a language that includes acquisition, thus placing the mechanism on a firm theoretical grounding.

We have also explored several of the design alternatives in the formal context, and we have found that type soundness means that many of these alternatives can only be resolved in certain ways. Soundness alone is not sufficient to resolve all of the design choices, however, so we clearly need more experience with acquisition to make the appropriate choices.

This research suggests three additional projects. First, we need to implement acquisition by modifying an existing class system, so that we can conduct program design experiments in the context of a full programming language. Second, we must search existing class libraries and frameworks for instances of environmental acquisition via pointer chasing or callbacks to collect a wide range of examples for this feature. Third, we must investigate the use of more advanced type systems for acquisition. These include the ability to

infer certain types, such as the list of possible containers for a class, and the use of resource-aware type systems to ensure that certain exceptions (most notably the “incomplete context” exception) cannot be generated.

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