

Cecil

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Cecil

- Inspired by Self:
 - A classless object model
 - Uniform use of messages for everything
- Inspired by CLOS:
 - Multiple dispatching
 - Extends both OO and functional programming styles
- Inspired by Trellis:
 - Static typechecking
 - Optional
 - Support mixing dynamically and statically typed code

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Bindings

- Use `let` to define (local and global) variables
- add `var` keyword to allow assignment, otherwise immutable
- must initialize at declaration

```
let inc := 1;
let var count := 0;
count := count + inc;
```

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Functions

- Use `method` to define functions
- last expression evaluated is returned
- can overload name for different numbers of arguments

```
let var count := 0;
method foo(a, b, c) {
  count := count + 1;
  let var d := a + b;
  let e := frob(d, c);
  d := d + e;
  d + 5 }
method frob(x, y) { x - frob(y) + 1 }
method frob(x) { - x / 5 }
```

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Closures: first-class functions

- Code in braces is a 0-argument function value

```
let closure := { factorial(10) + 5 };
```
- Evaluation of closure delayed until `eval` is sent:

```
eval(closure) fi 3628805
```
- To allow arguments, add `&(x, y, z)` prefix; invoke passing extra arguments to `eval`:

```
let closure2 := &(n){ factorial(n) + 5 };
...
eval(closure2, 10) fi 3628805
```
- Like ML's `fn`, Self's blocks
 - anonymous, lexically scoped, first-class

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Glitch: returning closures

- In current Cecil implementation, by default, closures cannot safely be returned out of their lexically enclosing scope
 - a glitch in the Vortex implementation, not the Cecil language
 - can crash Vortex mysteriously
 - prevents currying, `compose`, closures in data structures, ...

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Avoiding the glitch

- n To allow a closure to be returned, use &&:

```
method add_x(x) { &&(y){ x + y } }

let add_2 := add_x(2);
let add_5 := add_x(5);

eval(add_2, 4) fi 6
eval(add_5, 4) fi 9
```

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Using closures in control structures

- n As in Self, all traditional (and many non-traditional) control structures are implemented as regular Cecil functions, with closures passed by callers supporting the necessary evaluation-only-on-demand

- n For simple lazy or repeated evaluation:

```
if(test, { then_value }, { else_value })
test1 & { test2 }
while({ test }, { body })
```

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More examples

- n For iteration with arguments:

```
for(start, stop, &(i){ body })
do(array, &(elem){ body })
do_associations(table, &(key,value){ body })
```

- n For exception handling:

```
fetch(table, key, { if_absent })
```

- n For 3-way branching:

```
compare(i, j, {if_lt}, {if_eq}, {if_gt})
```

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An example

```
-- this is a factorial method
method factorial(n) {
  if(n = 0,
    { 1 },
    { n * factorial(n - 1) }) }

-- call factorial here:
factorial(7)
```

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Non-local returns

- n Support exiting a method early with a non-local return from a nested closure

- n like ^ in Self

- n like a return statement in C

```
{ ...; ^ result }
{ ...; ^ } -- return void
```

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Example

```
method fetch(table, key, if_absent) {
  do_associations(table, &(k, v){
    if(k = key, { ^ v });
  });
  eval(if_absent) }
method fetch(table, key) {
  fetch(table, key, {
    error("key " ||
      print_string(key) ||
      " not found") }) }

fetch(zips, "Seattle", { 98195 })
```

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Objects

- To define a new kind of ADT, use an `object` declaration

```
object Point;
```

- No classes!

- To make a new "instance" of that ADT, use an `object isa ...` expression

```
method new_point() {  
  object isa Point }
```

- No special constructors!

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Methods of objects

- To define a method "in" an object, write the method outside the object but **specialize** the method to the object by adding `@obj` after the first argument (which acts like the receiver argument)

```
method area(p@Point) {  
  p.x * p.y }  
method shift(p@Point, dx, dy) {  
  p.x := p.x + dx;  
  p.y := p.y + dy; }
```

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Fields of objects

- To declare an instance variable, use a `field` declaration

- specialize the field to the object "containing" the field
- add `var` keyword to allow assignment, otherwise immutable
- fields can be given default initial values at declaration
- fields can be given initial values at object creation
 - supports immutable, initialized fields!

```
var field x(p@Point) := 0;  
var field y(p@Point) := 0;  
method new_point(x0, y0) {  
  object isa Point { x := x0, y := y0 } }
```

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Fields accessed by messages

- Field declarations implicitly produce 1 or 2 accessor methods:
 - get accessor: given object, return field contents
 - set accessor (for `var` fields): given object & field's new contents, modify field
- Manipulate field contents solely by invoking these methods

```
var field x(p@Point) := 0;  
→  
method x(p@Point) {  
  ... fetch p.x's contents, initially 0 ... }  
method set_x(p@Point, new_value) {  
  ... update p.x to be new_value ... }  
  
-- increment p.x:  
set_x(p, x(p) + 1);
```

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Syntactic sugar

- For syntactic convenience, any call can be written using dot notation:

```
p.x          x(p)  
p.x := p.x + 1  set_x(p, x(p)+1)  
p.shift(3,4)  shift(p, 3, 4)
```

- Infix & prefix operators (e.g. `+`) are really messages, too

```
method +(p1@Point, p2) {  
  new_point(p1.x + p2.x, p1.y + p2.y) }
```

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Inheritance

- Make new ADTs from old ones via `isa` inheritance clause

```
object ColoredPoint isa Point;
```

- child/parent, a.k.a. subclass/superclass
- inherit all method & field declarations
 - child has own field contents, unlike Self
- can add new methods & fields, specialized on child object
- can override methods & fields

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Example

```
object ColoredPoint isa Point;
-- inherit all Point fields and methods
-- add some new ones:
field color(cp@ColoredPoint);
method new_colored_point(x0, y0, c0) {
  object isa ColoredPoint {
    x := x0, y := y0, color := c0 } }

let p := new_colored_point(3,4,"Blue");
print(p.color); fi "Blue"
p.shift(2,-2); -- invoke inherited method
print(p.x);    fi 5
```

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Overriding of methods

- Child can override inherited method by defining its own

```
object Point;
method draw(p@Point) { ... }

object ColoredPoint isa Point;
method draw(p@ColoredPoint) { ... }

let p := new_point(3,4);
p.draw; -- invoke's Point's draw

let cp := new_colored_point(5,6,"Red");
cp.draw; -- invokes ColoredPoint's draw
```

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Resends

- Often, overriding method includes overridden method as a subpiece
- Can invoke overridden method from overriding method using `resend`
 - called `super` in some other languages

```
method draw(p@Point) {
  Display.plot_point(p.x, p.y);
}
method draw(p@ColoredPoint) {
  Display.set_color(p.color);
  resend;
}
```

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Overriding of fields

- Since fields accessed through accessor methods, can override accessor methods with regular methods, & vice versa

```
object Origin isa Point;
method x(o@Origin) { 0 }
method y(o@Origin) { 0 }
```

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Accessing fields

- Because fields accessed through messages, like methods, clients can't tell how message implemented
 - can differ in different child objects
 - can change through program evolution & maintenance

```
let p := ...; -- Point or Origin object
print(p.x); -- how is x implemented?
```

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Overloaded methods and dynamic dispatching

- Can overload methods two ways:
 - same name but different numbers of arguments
 - same name & number of arguments, but different specializer objects
- Specializer-based overloading resolved by using run-time class of receiver argument (a.k.a. dynamic dispatching, message sending)
 - unlike static overloading, which uses only the static type known at the call site

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Multimethods

- Any argument, not just the receiver, can be specialized to an object

```
method =(p1@Point, p2@Point) {  
  p1.x = p2.x & { p1.y = p2.y }  
}  
  
method =(cp1@ColoredPoint, cp2@ColoredPoint){  
  cp1.x = cp2.x & { cp1.y = cp2.y } &  
  { cp1.color = cp2.color } }
```

- A message invokes the **unique most-specific applicable** method

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Examples

```
method =(p1@Point, p2@Point) { ... }  
method =(cp1@ColoredPoint, cp2@ColoredPoint){ ... }  
  
let p1 = new_point(...);  
let p2 = new_point(...);  
let cp1 = new_colored_point(...);  
let cp2 = new_colored_point(...);  
  
print(p1 = p2); -- only Point-Point applies  
print(p1 = cp2); -- ditto  
print(cp1 = p2); -- ditto  
print(cp1 = cp2); -- both apply, CP-CP wins
```

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Method lookup rules

- Find all methods with the right name and number of arguments that **apply**
 - A method applies if the actual run-time objects are equal to or inherit from all the method's specializers, where present
 - Report "message not understood" if no applicable methods
- Pick the applicable method whose specializers are **uniformly most specific**
 - A specializer is more specific than another if it inherits from the other
 - A method overrides another if all of its specializers are at least as specific as the other's
 - Report "message ambiguous" if no single best method

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Multimethod overriding

- One multimethod overrides another if
 - for all the other's specializers, the first method's corresponding specializers are equal to or inherit from the other's, and
 - either:
 - at least one of the first's specializers strictly inherits from the other's, or
 - one of the first's formals is specialized while the other's is not

```
method foo(p1@Point, p2@Point) { ... }  
overridden by  
method foo(p1@Point, p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }  
  
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint, p2) { ... }  
overridden by  
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint, p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }
```

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Ambiguous methods

- Two methods may be mutually ambiguous: neither overrides the other

```
method foo(p1@Point, p2) { ... }  
ambiguous with  
method foo(p1, p2@Point) { ... }  
  
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint, p2@Point) { ... }  
ambiguous with  
method foo(p1@Point, p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }
```

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Resolving ambiguities

- Can resolve ambiguities by defining an overriding method

```
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint, p2@Point) { ... }  
method foo(p1@Point, p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }  
  
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint,  
          p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }
```

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Directed resends

- n Overriding method can choose one or more ambiguously inherited methods using a **directed resend**

```
method foo(p1@ColoredPoint, p2@Point) { ... }
method foo(p1@Point, p2@ColoredPoint) { ... }

method foo(p1@ColoredPoint,
           p2@ColoredPoint) {
  -- invoke the ColoredPoint · Point one:
  resend(p1, p2@Point);
  -- invoke the Point · ColoredPoint one:
  resend(p1@Point, p2); }

```

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Multimethods vs. static overloading

- n Multimethods support *dynamic overloading*: use dynamic class of arguments to resolve overloading
- n Static overloading is different: use static type of arguments known at call site to resolve overloading
- n Dynamic overloading is more powerful...

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Example in Java

```
class Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    return this.x == arg.x && this.y == arg.y; }
}
class ColoredPoint extends Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(ColoredPoint arg) {
    return ... && this.color == arg.color; }
}

Point p1 = ...; // might be a ColoredPoint
Point p2 = ...; // might be a ColoredPoint

... p1.equals(p2) ... // which method is invoked?

```

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Second example in Java

```
class Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    return this.x == arg.x && this.y == arg.y; }
}
class ColoredPoint extends Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    return false; }
  boolean equals(ColoredPoint arg) {
    return ... && this.color == arg.color; }
}

Point p1 = ...; // might be a ColoredPoint
Point p2 = ...; // might be a ColoredPoint

... p1.equals(p2) ... // which method is invoked?

```

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Third example in Java

```
class Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    return this.x == arg.x && this.y == arg.y; }
}
class ColoredPoint extends Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    if (arg instanceof ColoredPoint) {
      ColoredPoint cpArg = (ColoredPoint) arg;
      return ... && this.color == cpArg.color;
    } else {
      return false;
    }
  }
}

```

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Example in MultiJava

- n Allow arguments to have specializers

```
class Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point arg) {
    return this.x == arg.x && this.y == arg.y; }
}
class ColoredPoint extends Point {
  ...
  boolean equals(Point@ColoredPoint arg) {
    return ... && this.color == arg.color; }
}

```

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Some uses for multimethods

- Multimethods useful for binary operations
 - 2+ arguments drawn from some abstract domain with several possible implementations
- Examples:
 - equality over comparable types
 - <, >, etc. comparisons over ordered types
 - arithmetic over numbers
 - union, intersection, etc. over set representations

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Some more uses

- Multimethods useful for cooperative operations even over different types
- Examples:
 - `display` for various kinds of shapes on various kinds of output devices
 - standard default implementation for each kind of shape
 - overridden with specialized implementations for certain devices
 - `handleEvent` for various kinds of services for various kinds of events
 - operations taking flag constant objects, with different algorithms for different flags

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Advantages of multimethods

- Unify & generalize:
 - top-level procedures (no specialized arguments)
 - regular singly-dispatched methods (specialize first argument)
 - overloaded methods (resolve overloading dynamically, not statically)
- Naturally allow existing objects/classes to be extended with new behavior
- Avoid tedium & non-extensibility of `instanceof/cast`

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Challenges of multimethods

- Objects don't contain their methods, so...
 - What's the programming model?
 - What's the encapsulation model?
- How to typecheck definitions and calls of multimethods?
- How to implement efficiently?

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Multiple inheritance

- Can inherit from several parent objects:

```
object Shape;
object Rectangle isa Shape;
object Rhombus isa Shape;
object Square isa Rectangle, Rhombus;

object Stream;
object InputStream isa Stream;
object OutputStream isa Stream;
object IOStream isa InputStream, OutputStream;
```

- MI can be natural in application domain
- MI can be useful for better factoring & reuse of code
 - But MI introduces semantic complications....

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Ambiguities

- Can get ambiguities due to MI, just like with MMs

```
object Rectangle isa Shape;
method area(r@Rectangle) { ... }
object Rhombus isa Shape;
method area(r@Rhombus) { ... }
object Square isa Rectangle, Rhombus;

let s := new_square(4);
... area(s) ... // ambiguous!
```

- Can resolve ambiguities by adding overriding method, just as with MMs

```
method area(s@Square) { resend(s@Rectangle) }
```

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Semantics of diamond-shaped inheritance?

```
object Shape;
method is_shape(s@Shape) { ... }
method is_rectangular(s@Shape) { ... }
object Rectangle isa Shape;
method is_rectangular(r@Rectangle) { ... }
method area(r@Rectangle) { ... }
object Rhombus isa Shape;
method area(r@Rhombus) { ... }
object Square isa Rectangle, Rhombus;

let s := new_square(4);
... is_shape(s) ... fi ambiguous?
... is_rectangular(s) ... fi ambiguous?
... area(s) ... fi ambiguous?
```

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Cecil semantics: inheritance as a partial ordering

- In Cecil, inheritance graph defines a *partial ordering* over objects
- induces a corresponding partial ordering over methods based on their specializers
- this partial ordering on methods defines the overriding relationship

```
... is_shape(s) ... fi Shape's
... is_rectangular(s) ... fi Rectangle's
... area(s) ... fi ambiguous
```

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Other options

- Smalltalk, Java, C#: disallow MI
 - sacrifices many practical examples
- Self: like Cecil, but without partial order
 - some "obvious" ambiguities not resolved
- CLOS: linearize DAG into SI chain
 - complex linearization rules, ambiguities always resolved
- C++: two styles of MI
 - non-virtual base classes (the default): replicate diamonds into trees
 - virtual base classes: one shared copy
 - very complex, bad default

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Semantics of inheritance of fields?

```
object Shape;
field center(s@Shape);

object Rectangle isa Shape;

object Rhombus isa Shape;

object Square isa Rectangle, Rhombus;

let s := new_square(4);
... center(s) ... fi ambiguous?
```

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Cecil semantics: fields are shared

- In Cecil, fields are present once, independently of along how many paths they are inherited
 - field accessor methods are treated just like regular methods
 - field contents are stored once per inheriting object

```
... center(s) ...
fi s's contents of Shape's center field
```

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Other options

- Self: slot (i.e., field contents) is shared
 - leads to separating prototype & traits objects
- C++: two styles of MI
 - non-virtual base classes (the default): replicate instance variable
 - virtual base classes: one shared copy (like Cecil)

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Mixins

- MI enables new programming idioms, including *mixins*: highly factored abstract objects
- Typically, organize attributes along independent axes
 - several possible implementations (mixins) for each axis
 - each concrete subclass picks one mixin for each axis
- Example axes for shapes in a user interface:
 - colored or not, bordered or not, titled or not, mouse-click handler,...
- Different mixin axes have common parent (e.g. Shape), leading to diamond-shaped inheritance

`object CheckBox isa Square, BorderedShape, ClickableShape, ...;`

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Java's approach

- Java supports two flavors of classes: *regular classes* and *interfaces*
- Interfaces include no implementation, just "abstract methods"
 - no instance variables
 - no method bodies
- Allow multiple inheritance only of interfaces
 - a class can inherit from at most one regular class
 - an interface can inherit only from interfaces

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Analysis of Java's approach

- Benefits:
 - no method bodies in interfaces ⇒
 - no ambiguities between implementations
 - no instance variables in interfaces ⇒
 - no ambiguities in instance variable offset calculations
 - still support some multiple inheritance idioms
 - primarily for static type checking, not code reuse
- Costs:
 - no mixin-style programming
 - additional language complexity and library size

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Typechecking OO Languages

- In OO language, want static checking to ensure the absence of:
 - message-not-understood errors
 - message-ambiguous errors
- Want to allow subclasses to be used in place of superclasses
 - as long as this doesn't create errors

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General strategy

- Declare (or infer) **types** and their **subtyping** relationships
- Declare (or infer) types of variables
 - Check that assignments/initializations/returns only store subtypes of variable's type
- Declare **signatures** of operations
 - Check that messages with particular actual argument types find at least one matching signature
 - Check that methods & fields completely and unambiguously implement covering signatures

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Points of variation

- What's a type?
- What's a subtype?
- What's a signature?

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One approach: explicit types and signatures

```
type Point;
signature x(Point):num;
signature set_x(Point, num):void;
signature y(Point):num;
signature set_y(Point, num):void;
signature shift(Point, dx:num, dy:num):num;
signature =(Point, Point):bool;
signature new_point(x:num, y:num):Point;

type ColoredPoint subtypes Point;
-- "inherits" signatures of supertype
signature color(ColoredPoint):Color;
signature set_color(ColoredPoint, Color):void;
signature new_colored_point(...):ColoredPoint;
```

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Field signatures

- Syntactic sugar: a "field-like" pair of signatures can be specified with a single field signature declaration

```
signature x(Point):num;
signature set_x(Point, num):void;

field signature x(Point):num;
```

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Using types and signatures

- Legal:

```
let var cp:ColoredPoint :=
  new_colored_point(1, 2, Blue);
let var p:Point := new_point(3, 4);
p := cp;
cp.color := Red;
cp.shift(5, 6);
print(p = cp);
```

- Illegal (static type errors):

```
cp := p;
p.color := Green;
p.x := "hi there";
cp.shift(60);
print(p = 5);
```

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Another option: "unify" types and classes/objects

- Can merge types with classes/objects
 - a class/object declaration automatically creates a corresponding type declaration
 - an isa clause automatically creates a corresponding subtypes clause

```
object Point;
-- type Point;

object CartesianPoint isa Point;
-- type CartesianPoint subtypes Point;
```

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Signature = method/field/signature

- Signatures extracted from method & field decls
 - add explicit argument and result types
 - use explicit signature decl for an abstract method

```
var field x(p@Point:Point):num := 0;
-- field signature x(Point):num;
var field y(p@Point:Point):num := 0;
-- field signature y(Point):num;
method shift(p@Point:Point, dx:num, dy:num):void {...}
-- signature shift(Point, num, num):num;
method =(p1@Point:Point, p2@Point:Point):bool {...}
-- signature =(Point, Point):bool;
method new_point(x0:num, y0:num):Point {...}
-- signature new_point(num, num):Point;
```

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Inheritance vs. subtyping

- In theory, classes aren't types, and inheritance isn't subtyping:
 - a class represents an **implementation** (a set of methods and fields), and inherits from other implementations to share code
 - a type represents an **interface** (a set of signatures), and subtypes from other interfaces
 - a class may *conform* to a type, meaning that the class implements the type's interface

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Cecil's approach

- In Cecil, can program these separately:
 - type, subtypes, signature declarations for interfaces
 - representation, inherits, implementation declarations for implementation
 - subtypes declarations to conformance of implementations to interfaces

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Example

```
-- Point & ColoredPoint types and signatures as before

representation PointImpl subtypes Point;
var field impl'n x(p@PointImpl:Point):num := 0;
var field impl'n y(p@PointImpl:Point):num := 0;
impl'n shift(p@PointImpl:Point,
            dx:num, dy:num):void {...}
impl'n =(p1@PointImpl:Point,
         p2@PointImpl:Point):bool {...}
impl'n new_point(x0:num, y0:num):Point {...}

representation ColoredPointImpl
  inherits PointImpl subtypes ColoredPoint;
... more implementation declarations here ...
```

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Syntactic sugar

- Common case:
 - inheritance and subtyping are parallel
 - object defines representation & type
 - the representation subtypes the type
 - isa defines parallel inherits & subtypes
 - method defines implementation & signature
 - @: does parallel @ and :

```
method =(p1@Point:Point, p2@Point:Point):...
method =(p1@:Point, p2@:Point):bool {...}
```

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Benefits of separating inheritance and subtyping

- Clarity of thinking
- Sensible to implement interface w/o inheriting code
 - Akin to Java's interfaces
- Sometimes sensible to reuse code w/o being a subtype
 - E.g. if ColoredPoint wants to inherit Point's code, but not allow ColoredPoints to mix with uncolored Points
- Sometimes the two relations are opposite
 - object deque subtypes stack;
 - object stack inherits deque;

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Costs of separating inheritance and subtyping

- Verbosity in common case
 - => need syntactic sugar
- Complexity
- Subtyping w/o inheritance cannot provide default implementations
 - A weakness of Java's interfaces
- Difficult to typecheck safety of inheriting w/o subtyping

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Overloaded/overriding signatures

- What if there are several signatures (implicit or explicit) with the same name and number of arguments?
 - signature =(Point, Point):bool;
 - signature =(ColoredPoint, ColoredPoint):bool;
 - signature =(num, num):bool;
 - signature =(string, string):bool;
 - ...
- What does this mean for clients?
- (When) is this legal?

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Client view of signatures

- n A message send is OK if there's at least one signature that says so
- n E.g.
 - `cp1 = cp2`
 - is legal if there's some signature whose argument types are (supertypes of) `ColoredPoint`
- n The client doesn't have to "choose" the right one, or do dispatching

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Legality

- n To make signatures legal, whatever promises they make to clients have to be guaranteed by method implementations
- n If a client could pass certain types of arguments in a message, then
 - n exactly one method has to be able to handle those arguments
 - n the result type of the method has to be something that the client will expect
- n Related to when one method can legally override another

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Legality of method overriding

- n Sufficient condition for safety: overriding method has same argument and result types as overridden method
 - n ensures that using signature from originating method in checking calls won't be broken if overriding method selected at run-time
- n Are relaxed conditions also safe?
 - n can the result type be more precise (or more general) in overriding method?
 - n can an argument type be more precise (or more general) in overriding method?

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An example

- n Which (if any) of the overrides are legal?

```
method copy(p@:Point):Point
method copy(p@:ColoredPoint):ColoredPoint
method copy(p@:Point3D):Object
```

```
let p:Point := ...; -- a Point, ColoredPt, or Point3D
let q:Point := p.copy;
... q.x ...
```

```
let cp:ColoredPoint := ...; -- a ColoredPoint
let cq:ColoredPoint := cp.copy;
... cq.color ...
```

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Another example

- n Which (if any) of the overrides are legal?

```
method slide(p@:Point, dx:num):void
method slide(p@:ColoredPoint, dx:int):void
method slide(p@:Point3D, dx:Object):void
```

```
let p:Point := ...; -- a Point, ColoredPt, or Point3D
slide(p, 3.4);
```

```
let cp:ColoredPoint := ...; -- a ColoredPoint
slide(cp, 5);
```

```
let p3d:Point3D := ...; -- a Point3D
slide(p3d, "hi");
```

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Binary methods and typechecking

- n Is this OK? What does it print?

```
method =(p1@:Point, p2:Point):bool {
  p1.x = p2.x & { p1.y = p2.y } }
method =(p1@:ColoredPoint, p2:ColoredPoint) {
  resend & { p1.color = p2.color } }
```

```
let p:Point := new_point(3,4);
let cp:Point := new_colored_point(3,4,Blue);
print(p = p);
print(p = cp);
print(cp = p);
print(cp = cp);
```

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Binary methods with multimethods

- Is this OK? What does it print?

```
method =(p1@:Point, p2@:Point):bool {
  p1.x = p2.x & { p1.y = p2.y } }
method =(p1@:ColoredPoint, p2@:ColoredPoint){
  resend & { p1.color = p2.color } }

let p:Point := new_point(3,4);
let cp:Point := new_colored_point(3,4,Blue);
print(p = p);
print(p = cp);
print(cp = p);
print(cp = cp);
```

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Overriding fields

- If overriding a field with a method, or vice versa, what kinds of changes can be made to the field's type?

```
field f(p@:Point):A;
method f(p@:ColoredPoint):A' {...}

var field g(p@:Point):B;
method g(p@:ColoredPoint):B' {...}
method set_g(p@:ColoredPoint, v:B'):void {...}
```

- What is the most flexible but still safe relationship between A and A' and between B and B' ?

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