

COSE212: Programming Languages

Lecture 19 — Typed Object-Oriented Language

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Review: CLASSES

P	$\rightarrow D^* E$	program
D	$\rightarrow \text{class } C \text{ extends } C' \{F^* M^*\}$	class declaration
F	$\rightarrow \text{field } x$	field declaration
M	$\rightarrow \text{method } m(x_1, \dots, x_n) E$	method declaration
E	$\rightarrow n \mid x$	
	$E + E \mid E - E$	arithmetic
	$\text{iszero } E$	zero test
	$\text{if } E \text{ then } E \text{ else } E$	conditional
	$\text{let } x = E \text{ in } E$	binding
	$\text{proc } x E \mid E E$	procedure / call
	$x := E \mid E; E$	assignment / sequence
	$\text{new } C(E_1, \dots, E_n)$	object creation
	$E.m(E_1, \dots, E_n)$	message send
	self	current object
	$\text{super}.m(E_1, \dots, E_n)$	super call

What Can Go Wrong Without Types?

Imagine a Counter class with methods `incr`, `set(int)`, `get`:

```
let c = new Counter() in c.foo()  
let c = new Counter() in c.set(iszero 0)  
(new Counter()).incr() + 1
```

In CLASSES, semantic errors are caught only at runtime:

- *Method not found*: Counter does not declare `foo`.
- *Wrong argument type*: `c.set` expects an `int`, not a `bool`.
- *Wrong return-type use*: `c.incr()` returns `void`.

Goal: Develop a static type checker that catches these at compile-time

Example

The type checker takes a program in which every field and method declaration is annotated with a type.

```
class Counter extends object {  
  field int count  
  method void initialize ()      { count := 0 }  
  method void incr ()           { count := count + 1 }  
  method void set (int n)       { count := n }  
  method int get ()             { count }  
}  
let c = new Counter() in c.incr(); c.get()
```

- The type checker concludes that the program does not have type errors and the whole expression has type int.
- The type checker rejects “c.set(true)” (wrong arg type), “c.foo()” (method not found), and “c.incr() + 1” (wrong return-type use).

Types of the Language

T	::=	int	integer
		bool	boolean
		void	no useful return value
		$T \rightarrow T$	function
		C	object type (class name)

- A class name C is also a type.
- void is the result type of a method whose value is discarded.
- Function types appear because we keep proc/call from CLASSES.

Syntax of Typed CLASSES

P	$\rightarrow D^* E$	program
D	$\rightarrow \text{class } C \text{ extends } C' \{F^* M^*\}$	class declaration
F	$\rightarrow \text{field } T \ x$	typed field
M	$\rightarrow \text{method } T_r \ m(T_1 \ x_1, \dots, T_n \ x_n) \ E$	typed method
E	$\rightarrow n \mid x$	
	$\mid E + E \mid E - E$	arithmetic
	$\mid \text{iszero } E$	zero test
	$\mid \text{if } E \text{ then } E \text{ else } E$	conditional
	$\mid \text{let } x = E \text{ in } E$	binding
	$\mid \text{proc } (x : T) \ E \mid E \ E$	procedure / call
	$\mid x := E \mid E; E$	assignment / sequence
	$\mid \text{new } C(E)$	object creation
	$\mid E.m(E)$	method call
	$\mid \text{self}$	current object
	$\mid \text{super}.m(E)$	super call

Example: Point and ColorPoint

```
class Point extends object {  
  field int x    field int y  
  method void initialize (int initx, int inity) {  
    x := initx; y := inity }  
  method void move (int dx, int dy) { x := x+dx; y := y+dy }  
  method int  getY () { y }  
}  
class ColorPoint extends Point {  
  field int color  
  method void initialize (int initx, int inity, int initc) {  
    super.initialize(initx, inity);  
    color := initc }  
  method int get-color () { color }  
}  
let cp = new ColorPoint(10, 20, 87) in  
let f  = proc (p : Point) p.getY() in  
  begin cp.move(3, 4); f(cp) end
```

Note that `f(cp)` passes a `ColorPoint` where a `Point` is expected. Our type checker captures this *subclass polymorphism* with a *subtyping* relation.

Subtyping: $T_1 <: T_2$

" T_1 is a subtype of T_2 " = "every value of type T_1 may safely be used where type T_2 is expected."

$$\overline{T <: T} \text{ SUB-REFL} \qquad \frac{T_1 <: T_2 \quad T_2 <: T_3}{T_1 <: T_3} \text{ SUB-TRANS}$$

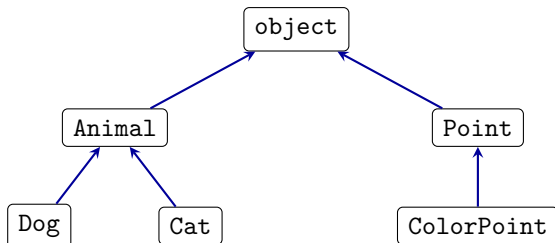
$$\frac{C \text{ extends } C' \in P}{C <: C'} \text{ SUB-CLASS}$$

$$\frac{T'_1 <: T_1 \quad T_2 <: T'_2}{T_1 \rightarrow T_2 <: T'_1 \rightarrow T'_2} \text{ SUB-ARROW}$$

- SUB-CLASS: every declared inheritance creates one subtype relation.
- SUB-ARROW: function types are *contravariant* in the argument and *covariant* in the result.
- Distinct base types (int, bool, void) are not related by subtyping; only SUB-REFL applies.

Subtyping in Pictures

The extends tree literally *is* the class subtype tree: inheritance edges become subtype edges (root downward).



The arrow $C \rightarrow C'$ reads " $C \leq C'$ ". Transitive closure (SUB-TRANS) gives e.g. $\text{Dog} \leq \text{object}$. Unrelated classes such as Dog and Point are incomparable.

Subtyping for Function Types

Recall:

$$T_1 \rightarrow T_2 <: T'_1 \rightarrow T'_2 \quad \text{iff} \quad T'_1 <: T_1 \text{ and } T_2 <: T'_2$$

Argument position is *contravariant*; result position is *covariant*.

Contravariant argument:

$$(\text{Point} \rightarrow \text{int}) <: (\text{ColorPoint} \rightarrow \text{int})$$

A function over *any* Point also handles a ColorPoint. The reverse fails: a $\text{ColorPoint} \rightarrow \text{int}$ function may use ColorPoint-only operations (e.g., `get-color`) and cannot be called on a plain Point.

Covariant result:

$$(\text{int} \rightarrow \text{ColorPoint}) <: (\text{int} \rightarrow \text{Point})$$

A function that returns a ColorPoint is safe to use where the caller only expects a Point: every returned ColorPoint is also a Point.

Type Judgment

We extend the typing judgment from $\Gamma \vdash E : T$ to

$$\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : T$$

where

- $\Gamma : Id \rightarrow type$ is the type environment that maps each in-scope variable to its type.
- $\zeta : Class \rightarrow ClassType$ is the static class environment, where

$$ClassType = Class \times (Field \rightarrow type) \times (MName \rightarrow type^* \times type \times Class)$$

- ▶ For each declared class C , $\zeta(C) = (C', fT, mT)$ records the parent, field types, and method signatures.
- ▶ A signature $mT(m) = ((T_1, \dots, T_n), T_r, C_h)$ stores parameter types, return type, and the host class C_h where m was declared.

Typing Rules (Inherited)

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}} \text{T-NUM} \qquad \frac{}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)} \text{T-VAR} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 : \text{int} \quad \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_2 : \text{int}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 + E_2 : \text{int}} \text{T-PLUS} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : \text{int}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{iszero } E : \text{bool}} \text{T-ISZERO} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 : \text{bool} \quad \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_2 : T \quad \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_3 : T}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{if } E_1 \text{ then } E_2 \text{ else } E_3 : T} \text{T-IF} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 : T_1 \quad \zeta; \Gamma[x \mapsto T_1] \vdash E_2 : T_2}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = E_1 \text{ in } E_2 : T_2} \text{T-LET} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma[x \mapsto T_1] \vdash E : T_2}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{proc } (x : T_1) E : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \text{T-PROC} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \quad \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_2 : T_1}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 E_2 : T_2} \text{T-CALL} \\
 \\
 \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : \Gamma(x)}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash x := E : \text{void}} \text{T-ASSIGN} \qquad \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1 : T_1 \quad \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_2 : T}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_1; E_2 : T} \text{T-SEQ}
 \end{array}$$

Subsumption

$$\frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : T \quad T <: T'}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : T'} \text{ T-SUB}$$

- T-SUB lifts an expression's type from T up to any supertype T' . Semantically, this means that a value of a subtype can be used wherever a supertype is expected.
- Unlike the other rules, T-SUB is not syntax-directed: it can fire at any expression.

Example

Consider $f(cp)$, where $f : \text{Point} \rightarrow \text{Point}$ and $cp : \text{ColorPoint}$. Let $\Gamma = [f:\text{Point} \rightarrow \text{Point}, cp:\text{ColorPoint}]$.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash f : \text{Point} \rightarrow \text{Point}} \text{T-VAR} \quad \frac{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash cp : \text{ColorPoint}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash cp : \text{Point}} \text{T-VAR} \quad \frac{\text{ColorPoint extends Point} \in P}{\text{ColorPoint} <: \text{Point}} \text{SUB-CLASS}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash f \text{ } cp : \text{Point}} \text{T-CALL} \quad \text{T-SUB}$$

- T-CALL's premise demands the argument type to match the parameter type exactly ($\Gamma \vdash cp : \text{Point}$).
- T-SUB is used to lift cp from ColorPoint to Point using $\text{ColorPoint} <: \text{Point}$ (SUB-CLASS).
- This is how subsumption works in the inherited rules: T-SUB fires wherever subtype flexibility is needed.

Typing Rule: new

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \zeta(C) = (_, _, mT) \\ mT(\text{initialize}) = ((T_1, \dots, T_n), _, _) \\ \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_i : T'_i \text{ and } T'_i <: T_i \text{ for each } i \end{array}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{new } C(E_1, \dots, E_n) : C} \text{T-NEW}$$

- Look up the `initialize` signature for class C .
- Each actual argument E_i must have a subtype of the corresponding declared parameter type T_i .
- The new expression's type is C itself.

Typing Rule: $E_0.m(\dots)$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_0 : C \\ \zeta(C) = (_, _, mT) \\ mT(m) = ((T_1, \dots, T_n), T_r, _) \\ \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_i : T'_i \text{ and } T'_i <: T_i \text{ for each } i \end{array}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_0.m(E_1, \dots, E_n) : T_r} \text{T-SEND}$$

- The receiver must have an object type C .
- C 's method table must declare m .
- Arguments are checked against m 's parameter types with subtyping.
- The send's type is m 's declared return type T_r .

Typing Rules: self and super

$$\frac{}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{self} : \Gamma(\text{self})} \text{T-SELF}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \zeta(\Gamma(\text{host})) = (C_p, -, -) \\ \zeta(C_p) = (-, -, mT) \\ mT(m) = ((T_1, \dots, T_n), T_r, -) \\ \zeta; \Gamma \vdash E_i : T'_i \text{ and } T'_i <: T_i \text{ for each } i \end{array}}{\zeta; \Gamma \vdash \text{super}.m(E_1, \dots, E_n) : T_r} \text{T-SUPER}$$

- T-SELF: `self`'s type is read off Γ ; it is the receiver class fixed by step (2) of the algorithm.
- T-SUPER: walk to the parent of the host class. Hence `super` dispatches statically, matching its run-time behaviour.

The Type-Checking Algorithm

The checker runs in three steps:

❶ Building the class environment ζ .

- ▶ Scan the classes and build ζ , recording each one's parent, field types, and method signatures.
- ▶ Inheritance is resolved here: the parent's fields and methods carry over to the child.
- ▶ Verify that every override has a signature compatible with its parent's.

❷ Type-checking method bodies.

- ▶ Build a typing environment Γ from the class's fields, the method's parameters, and the pseudo-bindings `self`/`host` pointing to the enclosing class.
- ▶ Check the body under this Γ ; its type must fit the declared return type (a subtype is fine).
- ▶ Parameters shadow fields with the same name.

❸ Type-checking the main expression under an empty Γ . Its type is the program's overall type; any failed check rejects the program.

(1) Building the Class Environment ζ

Classes are processed top-down along the inheritance tree. Given the current ζ and $D = \text{class } C \text{ extends } C' \{F^* M^*\}$:

- 1 **Look up the parent's entry:** $\zeta(C') = (-, fT_{par}, mT_{par})$. Root case: $\zeta(\text{object}) = (\perp, \emptyset, \emptyset)$, where $\perp$ means no parent.
- 2 **Define C 's field table.** Let $F^* = \text{field } T_1 x_1, \dots, \text{field } T_k x_k$. Then extend fT_{par} with the declared bindings¹:

$$fT_C = fT_{par}[x_1 \mapsto T_1, \dots, x_k \mapsto T_k].$$

- 3 **Define C 's method table.** Let $M^* = M_1, \dots, M_l$, with $M_j = \text{method } T_r^j m_j(\dots) E_j$, and let $\sigma_j = ((T_1^j, \dots, T_{n_j}^j), T_r^j, C)$ be the signature of M_j . Extend (or override) mT_{par} :

$$mT_C = mT_{par}[m_1 \mapsto \sigma_1, \dots, m_l \mapsto \sigma_l].$$

- 4 **Check override consistency** for each method in M^* that already appears in mT_{par} (next slide).

Result: $\zeta[C \mapsto (C', fT_C, mT_C)]$.

¹Fields are renamed to unique names, so the extension never collides with fT_{par} .

Override Consistency

Suppose class C extends C' and both declare a method named m . Let

$$\begin{aligned} mT_{par}(m) &= ((T_1, \dots, T_n), T_r, -) \\ mT_C(m) &= ((T'_1, \dots, T'_n), T'_r, -) \end{aligned}$$

The override is acceptable iff

$$T_i <: T'_i \text{ for each } i, \quad T'_r <: T_r.$$

- *Contravariant parameters, covariant return*: exactly the conditions for the child's method, viewed as a function type, to be a subtype of the parent's (SUB-ARROW).
- Many languages are stricter and require parameter types to match exactly and allow only a covariant return type. Our rule is the most permissive sound choice.
- Constructor exception: `initialize` is invoked by `new C(...)` at the receiver's own class, not via dynamic dispatch. Each class may declare its own `initialize` with an arbitrary signature, and the override check above does not apply to it.

Override Consistency: Examples

Assume `ColorPoint <: Point` and the parent declares `m`.

Accepted:

- Same signature: parent `int m()`, child `int m()`.
- Covariant return: parent `Point m()`, child `ColorPoint m()`.
(`ColorPoint <: Point` ✓.)
- Contravariant parameter: parent `int m(ColorPoint)`, child `int m(Point)`.
(`ColorPoint <: Point` ✓.)

Rejected:

- Arity mismatch: parent `int m()`, child `int m(int)`.
- Bad return: parent `int m()`, child `bool m()`. (`bool` $\nless$ `int`.)
- Covariant parameter: parent `int m(Point)`, child `int m(ColorPoint)`.
(Needs `Point <: ColorPoint`, which fails.)

(2) Type-Checking Method Bodies

For each class C in the program and each method
method $T_r \ m(T_1 \ x_1, \dots, T_n \ x_n) \ E_b$ declared in C :

❶ **Build the typing environment Γ_b** from three sources:

- ▶ *fields*: every binding in fT_C ,
- ▶ *parameters*: $x_1 \mapsto T_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto T_n$,
- ▶ *pseudo-bindings*: $\text{self} \mapsto C, \text{host} \mapsto C$.

Parameters are added after fields, so they shadow fields of the same name.
Formally,

$$\Gamma_b = fT_C[x_1 \mapsto T_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto T_n, \text{self} \mapsto C, \text{host} \mapsto C].$$

❷ **Derive the body's type ζ** ; $\Gamma_b \vdash E_b : T'$ using the typing rules.

❸ **Check the declared return type**: require $T' <: T_r$

If every method body passes, the class declarations are internally consistent.

(3) Type-Checking the Main Expression

Given $P = D_1 \cdots D_n; E$ with ζ built from $D_1, \dots, D_n$ by step (1):

- ➊ **Derive** $\zeta; \emptyset \vdash E : T$.
- ➋ **Report** T as the program's overall type.

If any of the derivation fails (in either step (2) or (3)), the program is rejected.

Example

```
class A extends object { field int v
  method void initialize () { v := 0 }
  method int  get ()      { v } }
class B extends A {
  method int  get ()      { v + 1 } } % override
in (new B()).get()
```

(1) **Build** ζ (abbreviating initialize as init):

$$\zeta = \left[\begin{array}{l} A \mapsto (\text{object}, [v:\text{int}], [\text{init}:(), \text{void}, A], \text{get}:(), \text{int}, A)) \\ B \mapsto (A, [v:\text{int}], [\text{init}:(), \text{void}, A], \text{get}:(), \text{int}, B)) \end{array} \right]$$

(2) **Method bodies**, each well-typed against its declared return:

- $A.\text{init}$ with $\Gamma_b = [v:\text{int}, \text{self}:A, \text{host}:A]$: $v:=0 : \text{void} \checkmark$.
- $A.\text{get}$ with the same Γ_b : $v : \text{int} \checkmark$.
- $B.\text{get}$ with $\Gamma_b = [v:\text{int}, \text{self}:B, \text{host}:B]$: $v+1 : \text{int} \checkmark$.

(3) **Main** $E = (\text{new } B()).\text{get}()$ under empty Γ : T-NEW gives $\text{new } B() : B$;
T-SEND on $mT_B(\text{get}) = ((), \text{int}, B)$ gives result int . Hence $\zeta; \emptyset \vdash E : \text{int}$.

Summary

We added a static type system to CLASSES:

- Class names as types
- Subtyping and subsumption
- Typing judgment $\zeta; \Gamma \vdash E : T$
- Three-phase checking algorithm