

# Exercise 6

## Multiple Inheritance, Multiple Dispatch and Linearization

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### Task 1

*(from a previous exam)*

Consider the following C++ program:

```
class X {
    public:
        X(int p) : fx(p) {}
        int fx;
};
class Y {
    public:
        Y(int p) : fy(p) {}
        int fy;
};
class B : public virtual X, public Y {
    public:
        B(int p) : X(p-1), Y(p-2) {}
};
class C : public virtual X, public Y {
    public:
        C(int p) : X(p+1), Y(p+1) {}
};
class D : public B, public C {
    public:
        D(int p) : X(p-1), B(p-2), C(p+1) {}
};

int main() {
    D* d = new D(5);
    B* b = d;
    C* c = d;
    std::cout << b->fx << b->fy
               << c->fx << c->fy;
    return 0;
}
```

What is the output of running the program?

- (a) 5555
- (b) 2177
- (c) **CORRECT:** 4147
- (d) 7177
- (e) 7777

(f) None of the above

## Task 2

Consider the following C++ code:

```
class Person
{
    Person *spouse;
    string name;

public:
    Person (string n) { name = n; spouse = nullptr; }

    bool marry (Person *p)
    {
        if (p == this) return false;
        spouse = p;
        if (p) p->spouse = this;
        return true;
    }

    Person *getSpouse () { return spouse; }
    string getName () { return name; }
};
```

The method marry is supposed to ensure that a person cannot marry him-/herself. Without changing the code above, create a new object that belongs to a subclass of Person and marry it with itself.

Hint: use multiple inheritance. Explain exactly what happens.

— solution —

The following C++ code breaks the invariant:

```
class B : public Person
{ public: B (string n) : Person (n) {} };
class C : public Person
{ public: C (string n) : Person (n) {} };
class D : public B, public C
{ public: D (string n) : B(n), C(n) {} };

void marryMyself ()
{
    D me ("Me");
    B *b = &me;
    C *c = &me;
    b->marry (c);
    if (b->getSpouse ()) cout << b->getSpouse ()->getName ();
}
```

The object me contains an object of class B and an object of class C. The addresses of these objects are different and they are obtained using the assignments to b and c respectively. During the call b->marry(c), the condition p == this compares these two addresses and finds them not equal.

## Task 3 (from a previous exam)

Consider the following Java classes:

```

class A {
    public void foo (Object o) { System.out.println("A"); }
}

class B {
    public void foo (String o) { System.out.println("B"); }
}

class C extends A {
    public void foo (String s) { System.out.println("C"); }
}

class D extends B {
    public void foo (Object o) { System.out.println("D"); }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        A a = new C(); a.foo("Java");
        C c = new C(); c.foo("Java");
        B b = new D(); b.foo("Java");
        D d = new D(); d.foo("Java");
    }
}

```

What is the output of the execution of the method main in class Main?

- (a) The code will print A C B D
- (b) **CORRECT:** The code will print A C B B
- (c) The code will print C C B B
- (d) The code will print C C B D
- (e) None of the above

## Task 4

Consider the following C# classes:

```

public class Matrix {
    public virtual Matrix add(Matrix other) {
        Console.WriteLine("Matrix/Matrix");
        return null;
    }
}

public class SparseMatrix : Matrix {
    public virtual SparseMatrix add(SparseMatrix other) {
        Console.WriteLine("SparseMatrix/SparseMatrix");
        return null;
    }
}

public class MainClass {
    public static void Main(string[] args) {
        Matrix m = new Matrix();
        Matrix s = new SparseMatrix();
        add(m,m);
        add(m,s);
    }
}

```

```

        add(s,m);
        add(s,s);
    }

    public static Matrix add(Matrix m1, Matrix m2) {
        return m1.add(m2);
    }
}

```

A) What is the output of this program? Please explain.

— solution —

The output is:

```

Matrix/Matrix
Matrix/Matrix
Matrix/Matrix
Matrix/Matrix

```

In each case, C# statically chooses a method variant based on the static type of the receiver. This is only `add(Matrix other)`. Then at run-time, it will call the most-derived override of this method. However, because C# method arguments are invariant, `add(SparseMatrix other)` is not an override and we always end up calling the method from `Matrix`.

B) Without breaking modularity, change only the body of `MainClass.add` to make it possible to always call the most specific `add` method from the matrix hierarchy.

— solution —

We could change `MainClass` to the following:

```

public static Matrix add(Matrix m1, Matrix m2)
{
    return (m1 as dynamic).add(m2 as dynamic);
}

```

Now, the initial lookup for a method variant is also done at run-time, based not on the static, but on the dynamic type of the receiver. Thus in the third and fourth case there will be a choice between the two different `add` methods in class `SparseMatrix`. To also enable a dynamic look-up of the most-specific method based on the argument types, we additionally cast the argument as `dynamic`.

## Task 5

Java 8 allows interface methods to have a default implementation directly in the interface.

A) What are some advantages of this feature?

— solution —

An advantage is obviously that default implementations can be reused in multiple classes. Another advantage (and the main reason this feature is added to Java) is that default method implementations will allow interface evolution. Without a default implementation,

adding new methods to an interface would break all existing classes that implement that interface, since they do not contain an implementation for the new methods. The new features removes this problem.

**B)** What could be some problems with this feature? How can they be resolved?

— solution —

A problem could be inheriting two default implementations of the same method from unrelated interfaces. In that case we will have to either choose which implementation we prefer or write a new implementation that overrides both.

Another issue is that interfaces can now suffer from the fragile base class problem. Compared to the usual issue with normal Java classes, this is even more dangerous for interfaces with default methods, since these methods will mostly call other methods of the interface which are overridden in implementing classes. A very restrictive solution here could be to prohibit calls to other methods of the interface, within the implementation of default methods. Alternatively we can “deal” with the problem just like Java deals with the issue in classes - do nothing and rely on the programmer to be careful.

**C)** What problems of C++ multiple inheritance are avoided by this new design for Java interfaces?

— solution —

We still avoid problems with correct initialization of fields of super types, since only one super type (the extended class) can have fields, and we can directly call its constructor. Furthermore there are no problems with field duplication as in non-virtual C++ inheritance.

**D)** Now suppose that, in addition to method implementations, Java also allowed interfaces to define fields. Interfaces would not have constructors and interface fields would always be initialized with a default value.

— solution —

This makes multiple inheritance in Java very similar to C++.

- What are some advantages of this feature?

— solution —

An advantage is that we can also reuse fields. This will enable more methods with default implementations in interfaces which could increase code reuse and reduce the effort required to create new classes.

- Given the restrictions above, are there any problems left with such an implementation of multiple inheritance? If so what are they? Propose a solution for each problem you have identified.

— solution —

These restrictions are somewhat similar to Scala traits, which also do not have specialized constructors (only a default constructor). In this way we manage to avoid

problems with initialization order. However a problem that still remains is: how many copies of a field exist? In particular:

- A class might implement the same interface multiple times (for example by implementing two different interfaces that are a subtype of the same interface). A solution here might be to only have a single copy of the field (as in C++ virtual inheritance).
- A class might implement two different interfaces that both declare the same field. Here we could either restrict interfaces to defining only private fields (which are invisible to the implementor), or we could require some disambiguation syntax when accessing fields, similar to C++ or the proposed syntax for disambiguating conflicting default methods in Java 8.

## Task 6

Consider the following declarations in Scala:

```
class C
trait T extends C
trait U extends C
class D extends C
```

Find all the types that can be created with or without traits, as well as the subtype relations between them.

— solution —

Let  $X'$ ,  $Y'$  be the two base classes from which we derive  $X$  and  $Y$  by mixing in traits. Let  $A$  be the set of all traits mixed in to the first class and  $B$  the set of all traits mixed in to the second class. The rule is as follows:

$$X <: Y \text{ if and only if } X' <: Y' \text{ and } A \supseteq B.$$

Note: The above rule applies in our example, but it is not a general rule for subtyping in the presence of traits. Notice that  $D$  with  $T$  with  $U$  and  $D$  with  $U$  with  $T$  are equivalent types (subtypes of each other)! Since, as we saw, they can describe different behavior, this causes a subtle problem for behavioral subtyping!

## Task 7

Consider the following Scala code:

```
class Cell
{
  private var x:int = 0
  def get() = { x }
  def set(i:int) = { x=i }
}

trait Doubling extends Cell
{
  override def set(i:int) = { super.set(2*i) }
}

trait Incrementing extends Cell
```

```
{
  override def set(i:int) = { super.set(i+1) }
}
```

A) What is the difference between the following objects?

```
val a = new Cell
val b = new Cell with Incrementing
val c = new Cell with Incrementing with Doubling
val d = new Cell with Doubling with Incrementing
```

— solution —

Object a behaves like a normal cell. Object b is also a cell, but it increases the stored value by 1. The interesting difference is between c and d. They are both cells. They have mixed in exactly the same traits. However, calling `set(i)` has a different effect on them: it stores  $2i+1$  to the first one and  $2(i+1)$  to the second one.

B) We use the following code to implement a cell that stores the argument of the set method multiplied by four:

```
val e = new Cell with Doubling with Doubling
```

Why doesn't it work? What does it do? How can we make it work?

— solution —

Trait `Doubling` will not get mixed in twice, as perhaps the programmer would expect. Scala rejects this statically.

The problem can be bypassed in an ugly way, by creating a new trait `Doubling2` that behaves exactly like `Doubling` and then introducing `e = new Cell with Doubling with Doubling2`. Here is our first try:

```
trait Doubling2 extends Doubling
val e = new Cell with Doubling with Doubling2
```

The code passes through, but dynamically `e` behaves as if it were a `Cell with Doubling`. Scala lets the code go through, because `Doubling2` may introduce new functionalities, but refuses to include `Doubling` twice in the linearization.

Our last try, the ugliest of all, but the one which will finally work, is to create a whole new trait from scratch, reusing nothing:

```
trait Doubling3 extends Cell
{
  override def set(i:int) = { super.set(2*i) }
}
val e = new Cell with Doubling with Doubling3
```

And now `e.set` quadruples its argument as expected.

C) Find a modularity problem in the above, or a similar, situation. Hint: a client that gets given a class `C` does not necessarily know if a trait `T` has been mixed in that class.

— solution —

A problem is that a method that accepts `Cell` with `Doubling` with `Incrementing` as an argument could also be passed a class of the type `Cell` with `Incrementing` with `Doubling` - so what it can actually assume about its inputs is less than would be expected.

D) We propose the following solution to support traits together with behavioral subtyping: Assume `C` is a class with specification `S`. Each time we create a new trait `T` that extends `C`, we must ensure that `C` with `T` also satisfies `S`. Show a counterexample that demonstrates that this approach does not work.

— solution —

Consider the following example:

```
class C
{
    var x:int;
    def foo() = {} //ensures true
}
trait T1 extends C
{
    override foo() = { x=x+1 } //ensures x>old(x)
}
trait T2 extends C
{
    override foo() = { x=x-1 } //ensures x<old(x)
}
```

Both `C` with `T1` and `C` with `T2` are behavioral subtypes of `C`. But `C` with `T1` with `T2` is not a behavioral subtype of `C` with `T1`.

## Task 8

(from a previous exam)

Consider the following Scala code:

```
class A { def bar() = "" }
trait B extends A { override def bar() = super.bar()+"B" }
trait C extends B { override def bar() = super.bar()+"C" }
trait D extends B { override def bar() = super.bar()+"D" }

object Main {
    def main() {
        {
            foo(new A with D with C with B())
        }
        def foo(x:A with D) {
            {
                println(x.bar())
            }
        }
    }
}
```

What would be the output of the call `Main.main()`?

- (a) BDB
- (b) BBDBC
- (c) BBCBD



- (d) DB
- (e) **CORRECT:** BDC
- (f) BCD
- (g) None of the above

## Task 9 (from a previous exam)

Consider the following C++ code (recall that default constructors, i.e., constructors without arguments, do not need to be called explicitly in C++):

```
class A {
    public:
        A(int i) { std::cout << "A" << i; }
        A() { std::cout << "A1"; }
        virtual int get() { ... }
};

class B: MODIFIER A {
    public:
        B(int i) : A(i) { std::cout << "B" << i; }
};

class C: MODIFIER A {
    public:
        C(int i) : A(i) { std::cout << "C" << i; }
};

class D: public B, public C {
    public:
        D(int i) : B(i + 10), C(i + 20) { std::cout << "D" << i; }
};
```

Now assume that MODIFIER is replaced by public.

A) Why does the following client code not compile?

```
void client()
{
    D* d = new D(5);
    std::cout << d->get();
}
```

— solution —

The call `d->get()` is ambiguous because class D inherits two versions of A (and therefore of `get()`), one from B and one from C.

B) Add a method to one of the classes so that `client` compiles.

— solution —

We can resolve the ambiguity by overriding `get` in class D, for example to return `B::get()` or any other integer value. The resulting code looks as follows:

```
class D: public B, public C {
    public:
        ...
```

```
virtual int get() { return B::get(); }  
};
```

**C)** What is the output resulting from the call `new D(5)` in method `client`?

— solution —

The code outputs “A15 B15 A25 C25 D5” (without whitespace).

**D)** Now, assume that `MODIFIER` is replaced by `public virtual`.

What is the new output resulting from the call `new D(5)` in method `client`?

— solution —

The code outputs “A1 B15 C25 D5” (without whitespace).