

Exercise 5

Behavioral Subtyping and Inheritance

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Task 1

Consider the following Java code:

```
1 interface I {}
2
3 class C {}
4
5 public class Main {
6     public static C getC() {
7         return new C();
8     }
9
10    public static void main(String[] argv) {
11        C c1 = new C();
12        C c2 = getC();
13
14        I i1 = (I) c1;
15        I i2 = (I) c2;
16    }
17 }
```

Try to compile it. If it compiles, try to execute it. What happens? Why? Do you expect to see the same behavior if `I` were a class, instead of an interface?

— solution —

- If `I` is an *interface*: the compiler allows the code to go through, although it cannot prove that `c1` and `c2` implement `I`. The reason is that there might be a subclass `D` of `C` such that `D` implements `I` and `c1` and `c2` might be objects of `D`. Here Java opts for the flexibility of dynamic type checking. When the code executes, a runtime exception is thrown, because `c1` does not implement `I` and this is caught by the runtime check. If we would comment out line 14, a runtime exception would be thrown in line 15, as `c2` does not implement `I` either.
- If `I` were a *class*: the code would not compile, due to type errors in lines 14 and 15. In this case, Java chooses static type checking: as it does not support multiple inheritance, it is not possible to have a subclass `D` of `C`, which also extends `I`.

Task 2

Consider the following Java classes:

```
class Number {
    int n;
```

```

    /// requires true
    /// ensures n == p
    void set(int p) {
        n = p;
    }
}

class UndoNaturalNumber extends Number {
    int undo;

    /// requires 0 < q
    /// ensures n == q && undo == old(n)
    void set(int q) {
        undo = n;
        n = q;
    }
}

```

Is UndoNaturalNumber a behavioral subtype of Number, based on the rules from slide 59 and 61?

— solution —

UndoNaturalNumber is not a behavioral subtype of Number, because it has a stronger precondition for the method set.

Task 3

Suppose that we have a database, for which we would like to add an “automated key generation” feature. This means that each time the user inserts a new tuple, a unique key is automatically generated for the tuple by the system. A way to do this is to write a counter, which increments by 1 the value that it returns each time it is called. The method that generates a new key is called generate.

A) Write a Java class IncCounter and an accompanying specification for such a counter.

— solution —

```

class IncCounter {
    /// constraint old(key) <= key
    int key;

    IncCounter () { key = 0; }

    /// ensures (key == old(key) + 1) ^ (result == old(key))
    int generate () { return key++; }
}

```

B) Annotate the following Java class with specifications and show that it is not a behavioural subtype of IncCounter.

```

class DecCounter {
    int key;
    DecCounter () { key = 0; }
    int generate () { return key--; }
}

```

— solution —

The postcondition which precisely describes the behavior of the method `DecCounter.generate` is $(key == \text{old}(key) - 1) \wedge (result == \text{old}(key))$. This postcondition does not refine the postcondition of `IncCounter.generate`. The history constraint is $\text{old}(key) \geq key$ and also does not strengthen the one of `IncCounter`.

C) Write an abstract class `GenerateUniqueKey` together with a specification, such that both `IncCounter` and `DecCounter` (with the specifications from tasks **A** and **B**) are behavioural subtypes of `GenerateUniqueKey`, and such that `GenerateUniqueKey.generate` generates unique keys. In the specification, you may use helper methods and fields.

— solution —

The abstract parent class `GenerateUniqueKey` can be declared using a helper *pure* method `boolean used(int)`. Note that only pure (i.e., side-effect free) methods can be used in specifications. Informally, the helper method returns true if `x` has been used as a key before. Furthermore, the correctness of the class relies on the property that once a number is used, it never becomes unused again. This can be expressed using a history constraint.

The definitions of the classes follow:

```
abstract class GenerateUniqueKey {
    /// constraint  $\forall x:\text{int} \mid (\text{old}(\text{used}(x)) \Rightarrow \text{used}(x))$ 
    abstract boolean used(int);

    /// ensures  $\neg \text{old}(\text{used}(\text{result})) \wedge \text{used}(\text{result})$ 
    abstract int generate ();
}

class IncCounter { // ... and similarly for DecCounter
    /// constraint  $\text{old}(key) \leq key$ 
    int key;
    IncCounter () { key = 0; }

    boolean used (int x) { return x < key; }

    /// ensures  $key == \text{old}(key) + 1 \wedge result == \text{old}(key)$ 
    int generate () { return key++; }
}
```

Task 4

From a previous midterm.

Imagine extending the syntax of the Java language to support the following keywords:

- `subtypes`: used to declare that a class is a subtype of another class (without inheritance)
- `inherits`: used to declare that a class inherits from another class (without subtyping)

Now consider the following classes:

```
class A {
    public int foo (int n) { return n - 1; }
}

class B {
    public int foo (int n) { return n + 1; }
    public int bar (int n) { return foo(n) - 1; }
}
```

```

}

class C inherits A subtypes B {
    public int bar (int n) { return foo(n); }
}

class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B b = new C();
        System.out.println( b.bar(3) );
    }
}

```

What should happen if we tried to compile the code and execute the method main from the class Main?

- (a) The code should be rejected by the compiler
- (b) The code should compile but the execution should fail
- (c) **CORRECT:** The code should compile and print 2
- (d) The code should compile and print 4
- (e) None of the above

Task 5

From a previous exam

Consider the following Java classes:

```

public class B {
    public void foo(B obj) {
        System.out.print("B1 ");
    }
    public void foo(C obj) {
        System.out.print("B2 ");
    }
}

class C extends B {
    public void foo(B obj) {
        System.out.print("C1 ");
    }
    public void foo(C obj) {
        System.out.print("C2 ");
    }
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        B c = new C();
        B b = new B();
        b.foo(c);
        c.foo(b);
        c.foo(c);
    }
}

```

What is the output of the execution of method main in class C? Explain your answer.

— solution —

The code will print B1 C1 C1.

Overloading is resolved statically, based on the static type of the receiver and the static type of the arguments. Since both `b` and `c` have static type `B`, the compiler will choose for all three calls the method `B.foo(B obj)`.

At runtime, we will execute either the statically chosen method or a method that overrides the statically chosen one, determined based on the dynamic type of the receiver. Note that the dynamic type of the arguments is not relevant.

`b` has dynamic type `B`, so for the first call we will execute the statically chosen method, `B.foo(B obj)`.

`c` has dynamic type `C`, so for the last two calls we will execute the method from class `C` that overrides the statically chosen method, that is, `C.foo(B obj)`.

Task 6 Overloading and Overriding

Consider the following class in Java:

```
public class Person {
    protected double salary;

    public Person(double salary) {
        this.salary = salary;
    }

    public boolean haveSameIncome(Person other) {
        return this.salary == other.getIncome();
    }

    public double getIncome() {
        return salary;
    }
}
```

Consider also the following subclass of `Person`, a person with a spouse, which takes the salary of the spouse into account as well:

```
public class MarriedPerson extends Person {
    private double spouseSalary;

    public MarriedPerson(double salary, double spouseSalary) {
        super(salary);
        this.spouseSalary = spouseSalary;
    }

    public boolean haveSameIncome(MarriedPerson other) {
        return this.getIncome() == other.getIncome();
    }

    public double getIncome() {
        return ((salary + spouseSalary) / 2);
    }
}
```

A) Show an example with the variables `p1` and `p2`, such that `p1.haveSameIncome(p2)` returns false, but `p1.getIncome() == p2.getIncome()` returns true. In other words, fill in the

following blank with valid code, such that the assertion below is also valid. Do not use reflection and assume that `Person` has no other subclasses.

```
Person p1;
MarriedPerson p2;
```

— solution —

```
p1 = new MarriedPerson(a,b);
p2 = new MarriedPerson(c,d);
```

for any a, b, c, d such that $a + b = c + d$ but $a \neq (c + d)/2$.

```
assert (!p1.haveSameIncome(p2) && p1.getIncome() == p2.getIncome());
```

B) Propose changes to `Person` and `MarriedPerson` such that the assertion will fail.

B.1 Can you change **only** `MarriedPerson.haveSameIncome`, such that the assertion will fail for your solution to subtask **A**? If yes, provide the modified method. Otherwise, explain why this is not possible.

— solution —

Yes, the following solution works:

```
public boolean haveSameIncome(Person other) {
    // changed MarriedPerson to Person in signature
    return this.getIncome() == other.getIncome();
}
```

B.2 Can you change **only** `Person.haveSameIncome`, such that the assertion will fail for your solution to subtask **A**? If yes, provide the modified method. Otherwise, explain why this is not possible.

— solution —

Yes, the following solution works:

```
public boolean haveSameIncome(Person other) {
    return this.getIncome() == other.getIncome();
    // changed calls to salary to getIncome here
}
```

Another trivial solution would be:

```
public boolean haveSameIncome(Person other) {
    return true;
}
```

Also possible: Type-check with `instanceOf`, then cast both to `MarriedPerson` and call `haveSameIncome` on casted objects.

Also possible: Change parameter type to `MarriedPerson`.