

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`.