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Analyzing inheritance hierarchies
through Formal Concept Analysis

A 22-years walk in a landscape of conceptual structures

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Abstract
Designing or renovating inheritance hierarchies in the domain of programming or in the domain of modeling still remains a tricky task. It involves integrating domain concepts sometimes with no clear frontier, finding the good abstractions and avoiding duplicated information. In this paper, we review research work that addressed this topic with the use of Formal Concept Analysis (concept lattices) since the seminal paper of R. Godin and H. Mili at OOPSLA’93. We overview the different attempts, the explored limits, and the current issues.

Keywords Inheritance hierarchy design, specialization/generalization hierarchy design, Formal Concept Analysis

1. Introduction
Since the beginnings of the object-oriented approaches, the design of inheritance hierarchies (more commonly called specialization/generalization hierarchies in the modeling domain) has been a major concern. Many controversies and issues lay on single versus multiple inheritance (Cargill 1991; Waldo 1991) or between natural modeling versus sub-typing (Castagna 1997; Ducournau 2002). Each approach has its own vision of what a correct inheritance hierarchy should be: main approaches for supporting automated design (and analysis) have considered eliminating duplications, improving abstraction by introducing more general artifacts, in particular super-types or super-classes, and establishing well-founded inheritance links. In the following sections, we will outline the landscape of these works since the 1990s. The objective is not to provide an exhaustive survey, but rather outlining the main landscape components. We will show how lattices, and more particularly Galois/concept lattices played a central role. Two main periods can be observed. In the first period (Section 2), inheritance hierarchies from object-oriented source code and object-oriented database schemas were the focus of attention. Several ad-hoc algorithms have been developed during this period, in parallel with proposals explicitly based on lattices. In the second period (Section 3), the need to take into account elaborate overloading and to generalize to modeling languages (like UML), have resulted in extending the initial single-lattice-based framework to take into account several categories of entities that can be the subject of specialization. This results in a multiple-lattice framework, which is the most advanced theoretical approach as far as we know. We conclude and give some perspectives in Section 4.

2. The single-lattice period: languages, databases, specifications
In the first period, several directions have been studied for eliminating duplication and fostering the appearance of new abstractions. Roughly speaking, the main objective is to eliminate (or to avoid introducing) multiple declarations of a property (attribute or operation). An effective manner of removing such a multiple declaration involves, in simple cases, introducing a copy of this property in a super-class and removing the other copies. In more complex cases, part of the description of the property (like an abstract signature) is put in a super-class, and specializations (like concrete methods) remain in the sub-classes. This may require the addition of a new super-class, often addressing a lack of abstraction.

Some existing work deals with local addition of a class (Casais 1992; Godin et al. 1995; Dicky et al. 1995, 1996). While this addition is done, some local pre-existing multiple declarations may be detected and removed and above all, none is introduced. The second strategy flattens an existing
hierarchy to rebuild it entirely. Authors have considered then which characteristics the classes own (Casais 1991; Cook 1992; Godin and Mili 1993) or have limited the analysis to characteristics the classes use (Snelling and Tip 1998, 2000). Some work focused on extracting interfaces (Cook 1992; Godin and Mili 1993), while others focused on restructuring a set of classes (Moore 1996; Casais 1992) or a database schema (Missikoff and Scholl 1989; Rundensteiner 1992; Yahia et al. 1996, 1997; Lammari et al. 1998; Cherfi and Lammari 2002). These different points of view explain on which description the methods rely: attribute names only (Astudillo 1997; Yahia et al. 1996, 1997), method signatures only (Cook 1992), attribute names, attribute types, as well as method signatures (Chen and Lee 1996; Moore 1995, 1996; Huchard and Leblanc 2000), constraints (Lammari et al. 1998; Cherfi and Lammari 2002), attribute or parameter types (Missikoff and Scholl 1989; Rundensteiner 1992). Information on the method body is used by Moore (1996); Casais (1992) to find common expressions, while descriptions of method specialization are used by Godin and Mili (1993); Godin et al. (1995, 1998); Dicky et al. (1995, 1996); Casais (1992)

What is really remarkable about almost all approaches, is the similarity in the intended structure. As all the approaches attempt to eliminate duplication, they are guided by the need to factorize characteristics (1), to establish links that correspond to inclusion or refinement of characteristics (2), and to ensure a fairly compact structure (3). For example, a structure where each characteristic is introduced in a specific class would not be compact, because many classes would be necessary. Theory tells us that there is a unique structure that satisfies the three needs. This structure, firstly introduced in the object-oriented domain by Godin and Mili (1993), is the AOC-poset, a particular sub-order of the concept lattice that classifies the classes depending on their characteristics. Formal Concept Analysis (FCA) gives the basics for these conceptual structures (Ganter and Wille 1999). It considers data composed of formal objects (here classes) described by formal attributes (here characteristics like class attributes, class methods, etc.). The input data is a formal context indicating which formal object (class) owns which formal attribute (characteristic). The concept lattice organizes by inclusion the concepts that correspond to all maximal class groups that share a maximal characteristic set. In the concept lattice (also called Galois lattice), a characteristic (resp. a class) is introduced by a unique concept and inherited top-down (resp. bottom-up). The AOC-poset is the concept lattice restricted to the concepts introducing at least one characteristic or at least one class. It drastically reduces the complexity, because for \( n_{cl} \) classes and \( n_{ch} \) characteristics, the concept lattice may have \( 2^{\min(n_{cl}, n_{ch})} \) concepts, while the AOC-poset has less than \( n_{cl} + n_{ch} \) concepts. The AOC-poset is also known under the names of pruned lattice, or Galois sub-hierarchy. In our context, concepts of these conceptual structures are interpreted as classes. Concepts that introduce only characteristics are new super-classes. The specialization links in the concept lattice are interpreted as inheritance. The mathematical construction ensures that all the inheritance links are present and consistent. As several descriptions need comparing characteristics and representing specialization between characteristics, this is embedded in formal contexts with taxonomic characteristics. Taxonomic characteristics are sets of characteristics provided with a specialization order. When a class owns a characteristic of one taxonomy, it owns automatically its more general characteristics.

Most of the existing approaches can be compared using this theoretical framework. Some of them build the entire lattice (Missikoff and Scholl 1989; Rundensteiner 1992; Yahia et al. 1996; Snelling and Tip 2000). The majority builds the AOC-poset (Godin and Mili 1993; Godin et al. 1995, 1998; Dicky et al. 1995, 1996; Huchard and Leblanc 2000) or an approximate structure (Cook 1992; Moore and Clement 1996; Chen and Lee 1996; Yahia et al. 1996; Cherfi and Lammari 2002). In some references, including Cook (1992); Moore and Clement (1996); Chen and Lee (1996), the underlying conceptual structure is not identified by the authors, but it has been characterized later in Huchard et al. (2000). Robert Godin proposed to consider the use of conceptual structures as the equivalent of building a normal form in the domain of databases (Godin and Valtchev 2005). Metrics that compare an inheritance hierarchy to such FCA normal form have been designed in this spirit (Dao et al. 2002).

We outline the FCA approach with a simple example (without taxonomic attributes). Figure 1 shows an initial class model with classes (e.g., FishConsumer), attributes (e.g., caloryCount) and roles (e.g., prefers). This class model can be encoded for an FCA analysis by establishing a formal context where classes are described by the names of the attributes and roles that they own. From commonalities between classes that appear in the class lattice, a new class model, shown in Figure 2, can be derived. New super-classes can be seen (names are given afterwards with human intervention): People (factorizes attributes name and age), Consumer (factorizes role prefer), OrgProducer (factorizes attribute labelType), Dish (factorizes attribute caloryCount and role prefer), Food (factorizes attributes allergen and nutriValue), and OrgFood (factorizes role isProducedBy).

3. The multi-lattice period: class models

When the problem switched from programming languages to modeling languages, it became more clear that using only FCA, even with taxonomic characteristics, was not sufficient to deal with the complexity of extracting hidden abstractions. This issue already existed, for example if classes \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) had attributes whose type was classes \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \) respectively, and if \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \) themselves had attributes with
Figure 1. Initial class model on consumers, producers, dishes and food

Figure 2. Final class model built with the help of FCA. New abstractions of classes are shown in grey. Roles are integrated as attributes

same type, information could not be taken into account to make a superclass of \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \), because it has to be built by iterating on abstraction extraction: firstly, a super-class of \( C_3 \) and \( C_4 \) has to be built, and only afterwards, this allows to recognize that \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) share attributes whose type is this new super-class.

Relational Concept Analysis (RCA), that extends FCA, has been designed to deal with that iterative abstraction extraction (Dao et al. 2004). It has been later extended to make data mining with any sort of relational data (Hacène et al. 2013). The data model is no more restricted to classes (formal objects) and their characteristics (formal attributes, being attributes, methods, etc. with possible taxonomies). It may now be composed of several categories of formal objects (classes, associations, attributes, roles, operations, parameters, etc.). These formal objects are described by formal attributes (their names, technical properties like being abstract, static, etc.) in object-attribute relations. Besides, they are described in object-object relations like class-owns-attribute, class-owns-role, association-owns-role, operation-owns-parameter. Let us remark that this data model is similar to the meta-model of a programming language (like Java, C++, Smalltalk), or of a modeling language (like OMT, Entity-Relationship, or UML). The formal objects are the instances of this meta-model. The object-object relations come from the meta-relations. The object-attribute relations correspond to the meta-attributes. The chosen data model encodes the entities the data analysis focuses on. The more complete it is, the deeper the analysis is, at the cost of a possible complexity in the results.

Then RCA iteratively builds concept lattices. Each formal object category has its own lattice. Classes are classified
In the class lattice, attributes in the attribute lattice, roles in the role lattice, associations in the association lattice, and so on. The concepts from the various lattices are connected by relational attributes that abstract the object-object relations. In class lattices, the concepts are interpreted as classes (possibly new super-classes of existing classes); In attribute lattices, the concepts are interpreted as attributes (possibly new attributes abstractions are built, like "attributes with same name "age" and same type "int"); etc. At the initial step, initial lattices are built using only the object-attribute relations. During the next steps, iteration allows us to propagate the discovered abstractions. Concepts built at step \( n - 1 \) are integrated in the object-object relations by a scaling process, causing the emergence of new concepts at step \( n \). This is done until a fix-point is reached. Let us look at a very simple example. When two attributes \( a_{C_1} \) and \( a_{C_2} \) with same name \( a \) are found in classes \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \), at step 0, an attribute concept \( C_a \) is built to group them. At Step 1, \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) can be grouped because they own an attribute from the \( C_a \) group. In RCA, several types of scaling process have been defined. For the purpose of model analysis, the existential scaling is used.

A simple encoding of the class model of Figure 1 with RCA can consider the following object categories: classes, attributes, roles and the object-object relations: hasAttribute, hasRole and hasTypeEnd. From the class lattice, the attribute lattice and the role lattice, the class model of Figure 3 can be built. Thanks to the reification of all model elements, their connections and to the iterative approach, new super-classes have been discovered: OrgDish (factorizes role contains towards OrgFood) OrgConsumer (factorizes role prefers towards OrgDish). Besides more detailed information is given on role ends: isProducedBy ends to OrgProducer, prefers (of Consumer) ends to Dish, prefers (of OrgConsumer) ends to OrgDish, contains (of Dish) ends to Food, contains (of OrgDish) ends to OrgFood. It was not possible to find that with the basic FCA approach, because some relation ends cannot be known at the beginning of the process.

As reported in Guédi et al. (2013b), first experiments showed serious limitations because of the complexity of the result (Roume 2004; Hacène 2005; Falleri et al. 2008). The analysis of these experiments and a more systematic experiment done on 15 versions of a class model (Guédi et al. 2013a) allowed us to identify a feasible approach: (1) by avoiding encoding technical aspects that generate useless abstractions, (2) by limiting the scope of analyzed relations (to navigable roles only, or by stopping the process at one step). We are currently focusing on AOC-poset use with a possible risk of non-convergence and on exploratory use of RCA. To give a simple example of the importance of making a good tuning, in experiments reported in Guédi et al. (2013a); Miralles et al. (2015) on the same class model containing \( \sim 170 \) classes, using lattice structure and a bad configuration may lead at Step 6 to \( \sim 10000 \) concepts in the class lattice, while using AOC-poset and good configuration leads to \( \sim 200 \) concepts in the class lattice (at the same Step 6).

In parallel to studies about feasibility, some attempts have been made to tackle issues linked to the names of the model elements: how to recognize hyponyms/hyperonyms, name conflict, synonyms, etc. Initial work was done in Rouane et al. (2007) and focuses on synonyms and name conflicts. It uses similarity measures based on WORDNET (Fellbaum 1998) and LUCENE\(^1\). The second approach analyzes identifiers with different techniques including Part of Speech Tagging and dependence analysis to organize terms in lexical views (Falleri et al. 2009, 2010). Despite these positive developments, taking into account information conveyed by terms is still under study. Another interest of using the natural language processing techniques would be to propose names for the new discovered abstractions. This is still an open question.

4. Conclusion and perspectives

Even if we overviewed work that spanned over two decades, we think that the design of inheritance (or specialization/generalization) hierarchies is still a complex issue that should benefit from tool assistance with the approaches that we presented above. Among the current work, we are designing ways of efficiently presenting the results to the designers. The progress of ontology engineering and the possibility to combine knowledge from ontologies with knowledge included in source code, UML models or information systems brings new perspectives for improving class hierarchy design. The multiplication of models on same topics and domains and the necessity to communicate information between various software systems also prompted the need for aligning class models, an issue which could be investigated with the help of RCA.

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\(^1\) http://lucene.apache.org/java/docs/index.html
\(^2\) http://www.iro.umontreal.ca/~galicia/
\(^3\) http://code.google.com/p/erca/
\(^4\) http://dolques.free.fr/rcaexplore/
\(^5\) http://www.lirmm.fr/AOC-poset-Builder/
Figure 3. Final class model built with the help of RCA. New abstractions of classes and roles are shown in grey. The most specialized roles are not presented for the sake of readability (for example the role prefers which connects FishConsumer and FishDish is not drawn here, although it is still present). They can be introduced in UML, with "subsets" modifier, for example the most specialized role OrgCheese-isProducedBy-OrgBreeder must be declared "subsets isProducedBy" to indicate it must be a specialization of OrgFood-isProducedBy-OrgProducer. Data of the illustrative example can be found at: http://www.lirmm.fr/recherche/equipes/marel/datasets/dataset-consumers-producers-dishes-food

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