

SOLUTIONS

1. Java vs. OCaml (22 points)

a. In OCaml, the proper way to check whether two `string` values `s` and `t` are structurally equal is:

- `s == t`
- `s = t`
- `s.equals(t)`
- `s := t`

b. In Java, the proper way to check whether non-`null` `String` objects `s` and `t` are structurally equal is:

- `s == t`
- `s = t`
- `s.equals(t)`
- `String.equals(s,t)`

c. Every Java type is a(n) _____ of class `Object`.

- supertype
- subtype
- instance
- extension

d. In Java, object values are stored in the _____ of the Abstract Stack Machine.

- stack
- workspace
- heap
- class table

e. If you were to port the OCaml GUI project (HW06) to Java, it would be natural to make `Getx` (graphics contexts) a class that is a subtype of `Widget`.

- true
- false

f. In simple inheritance, the subclass adds new fields or methods without overriding any of the parent class's members.

- true
- false

- g.** Invariants (like the ones used in queue programming HW05 or in the resizable array example from lecture) are properties of a datastructure or relationships among values that hold both before and after a method/function runs.
- `true`
 - `false`
- h.** Encapsulation of state to preserve invariants can be enforced in OCaml using:
- first-class option types
 - `local let` declarations or module interfaces
 - recursion and lists
 - mutable record fields
- i.** Encapsulation of state to preserve invariants can be enforced in Java using:
- `private` fields and interfaces
 - static methods and `null`
 - loops and arrays
 - mutable fields
- j.** In Java, a static method dispatch `C.m()` implicitly pushes the `this` reference onto the stack.
- `true`
 - `false`
- k.** Which OCaml construct is closest to a Java object?
- a record of closures
 - a record of mutable option fields
 - an anonymous function
 - a module with just one type
- l.** Which Java construct is closest to an OCaml anonymous function?
- an interface with just one method called `apply`
 - an object with just one method called `apply`
 - a class with just one method called `apply`
 - a static method called `apply`

2. Abstract Stack Machine (20 points)

Consider the following OCaml program that uses the queue types seen in Lecture and HW05:

```
(* Mutable queues, as defined in class. *)
type 'a queuenode = { v: 'a;
                    mutable next: 'a queuenode option }

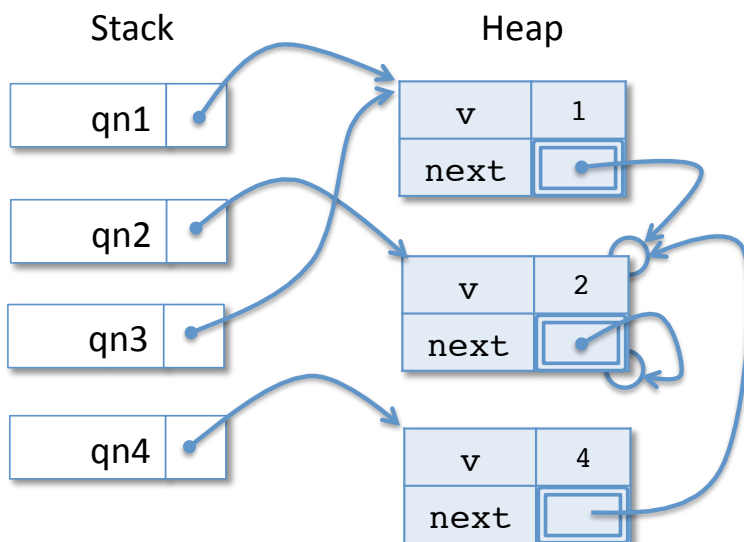
type 'a queue = { mutable head : 'a queuenode option;
                 mutable tail : 'a queuenode option }

let qn1 : int queuenode = {v = 1; next = None;}
let qn2 : int queuenode = {v = 2; next = None;}
let qn3 : int queuenode = qn1
;; qn2.next <- Some qn2
;; qn3.next <- Some qn2
let qn4 : int queuenode = {v = 4; next = qn1.next}
(* HERE *)
```

Complete the diagram below of the state of the stack and heap parts of the ASM when the program reaches the point marked (*HERE*) in the program above. Note:

- you might need to allocate new heap objects,
- you may need to add “Some bubbles” in the appropriate places,
- if you are simulating the execution of the program, you might have to *erase* pointers at times (or, if using ink, mark the erased pointers *clearly* with an X)
- should show only the final state!
- the Appendix of the exam contains an example of the stack and heap diagram for a similar OCaml program.

Rubric: 1 point each for the two allocated cells. 2 points per line and “Some bubble” in the diagram.



3. Subtyping, Interfaces, and Inheritance (16 points)

Consider the following Java interface and class definitions:

```
interface X {
    int getX();
}

interface Y extends X {
    int getY();
}

class C implements X {
    public int getX() {
        return 1;
    }
    public int getY() {
        return getX() + getX();
    }
}

class D extends C implements X, Y {
    public int getX() {
        return 2;
    }
}

class E extends C {
    public int getY() {
        return 3;
    }
}
```

For each code snippet below, write the integer value that will be printed out, or write “ill typed” if the compiler would flag a type error (*i.e.* Eclipse would underline something in red).

- `X x1 = new C();`
`System.out.println(x1.getX());` _____1_____
- `X x2 = new D();`
`System.out.println(x2.getY());` _____ill typed_____
- `X x3 = new E();`
`System.out.println(x3.getX());` _____1_____
- `Y y1 = new C();`
`System.out.println(y1.getY());` _____ill typed_____
- `C c1 = new D();`
`System.out.println(c1.getX());` _____2_____
- `C c2 = new C();`
`System.out.println(c2.getY());` _____2_____
- `D d1 = new D();`
`System.out.println(d1.getY());` _____4_____
- `D d2 = new E();`
`System.out.println(d2.getY());` _____ill typed_____

4. Java Programming (20 points total)

The following Java class `ATree` implements a tree datastructure in which each node has an integer value `v` and an arbitrary (but finite) number of children stored in an array.

```
class ATree {
    int v;
    ATree[] children;

    public ATree(int v, ATree[] c) {
        this.v = v;
        this.children = c;
    }
}
```

Consider the problem of writing a method called `sum` such that `a.sum()` returns the result of adding up *all* of the values in the tree `a`.

Step 1: The first step of the program design process is to *understand the problem*. There is nothing for you to write here, but we need to pay careful attention to the use of `null` in this datatype.

- If `a.children == null` then `a` is a leaf node of the tree.
- If `a` is not `null`, then `a.sum()` should *never* throw a `NullPointerException`.

Step 2: The second step is to *define the interface* of the method. For this problem the interface is particularly simple, so we do not ask you to do it:

```
public int sum() { ... }
```

Step 3: The next step is to *write test cases*. We have provided the two test cases shown below. Make sure that you understand them!

```
@Test
public void testLeaf() {
    ATree a = new ATree(1, null); //leaf
    assertTrue(a.sum() == 1);
}

@Test
public void testChild1() {
    ATree a1 = new ATree(1, null); //leaf
    ATree a2 = new ATree(2, null); //leaf
    ATree[] children = { a1, a2 };
    ATree a = new ATree(4, children); //non-empty tree
    assertTrue(a.sum() == 7); //(1 + 2) + 4 == 7
}
```

a. (6 points) Now consider the following similar test code:

```
@Test
public void testChild2() {
    ATree a1 = new ATree(1, null);
    ATree a2 = _____; // Fill in here!
    ATree[] children = { a1, a2 };
    ATree a = new ATree(2, children);
    assertTrue(a.sum() == 3); //note expected value is 3
}
```

Give *two different* Java expressions (that evaluate to *distinct* values) that can be placed in the blank above to create a well-typed program such that the test succeeds.

Answer 1:

Answer 2:

Rubric: distinct could mean different tree shapes or inclusion/exclusion of null in the arrays.

b. (14 points) Complete the implementation of the `sum` method. For your convenience, we repeat the other code for `ATree` here:

```
class ATree {
    int v;
    ATree[] children;

    public ATree(int v, ATree[] c) {
        this.v = v;
        this.children = c;
    }

    /* Sums the values of all the v's in the tree */
    public int sum() {
        if (children == null) {
            return v;
        }
        int acc = v;
        for (ATree c : children) {
            if (c != null)
                acc += c.sum();
        }
        return acc;
    }
}
```

Grading Rubric:

- null pointers: -2
- syntax: -1
- `int = null`: -3
- recursion: +6
- null check: +2, +2

- iterate on children: +3
- correct return: +1

5. Array Programming (22 points)

Implement in Java a static method called `canBalance`, that, given a non-`null` and non-empty array, returns `true` if there is a place to split the array so that the sum of the numbers on the left side is equal to the sum of the numbers on the right side (and `false` otherwise).

For example (using a shorthand notation for integer arrays):

```
canBalance({1, 1, 1, 2, 1})    ⇒ true   because (1+1+1) == (2+1)
canBalance({2, 1, 1, 2, 1})    ⇒ false
canBalance({10, 10})           ⇒ true   because 10 == 10
canBalance({5})                ⇒ false
canBalance({10, 0, 1, -1, 10}) ⇒ true   because 10 == (0 + 1 + -1 + 10)
canBalance({1, 1, 1, 3})       ⇒ true   because (1+1+1) == 3
```

Grading Rubric:

- This problem was slightly ambiguous, so we allowed two legitimate solutions and awarded partial credit.
- 2 points per blank

Answer1:

```
public static boolean canBalance(int[] nums) {
    if (nums.length < 2)
        return false;
    int leftSum = 0;
    int rightSum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < nums.length-1; i++) {
        leftSum = leftSum + nums[i];
        rightSum = 0;
        for (int j = i + 1; j < nums.length; j++) {
            rightSum = rightSum + nums[j];
        }
        if (leftSum == rightSum)
            return true;
    }
    return false;
}
```

Answer2:

```
public static boolean canBalance(int[] nums) {
    if (nums.length < 1)
        return false;
    int leftSum = 0;
    int rightSum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < nums.length; i++) {
        leftSum = leftSum + nums[i];
        rightSum = 0;
        for (int j = i + 1; j < nums.length; j++) {
            rightSum = rightSum + nums[j];
        }
    }
}
```

```
        if (leftSum == rightSum)
            return true;
    }
    return false;
}
```

Appendix

This appendix shows an example of the Stack and Heap components of the OCaml Abstract Stack Machine. Your diagram for Problem 1 should use similar “graphical notation” for `Some v` and `None` values.

(* The types of mutable queues. *)

```
type 'a queuenode = { v : 'a;  
                    mutable next : 'a queuenode option }
```

```
type 'a queue = { mutable head : 'a queuenode option;  
                mutable tail : 'a queuenode option }
```

```
let qn1 : int queuenode = {v = 1; next = None;}
```

```
let qn2 : int queuenode = {v = 2; next = Some qn1;}
```

```
let q : int queue = {head = Some qn2; tail = Some qn1;}
```

(* *HERE* *)

The OCaml program above yields the ASM Stack and Heap depicted below when the program execution reaches the point marked (* *HERE* *).

