

Code Review 4: Modular Programming

1 Practice Problems

Problem 1.1 (Inverting a Stack). Consider the polymorphic `Stack` module as shown in Listing 6.

1. Define a function `invert_stack : 'a Stack.stack -> 'a Stack.stack` that inverts the elements of the stack.

Solution

Suppose we consider this attempt at a solution:

```
let rec invert_stack (s: 'a Stack.stack) : 'a Stack.stack =
  if s = Stack.empty then Stack.empty else
  let elt = Stack.top s in
  let rest = Stack.pop s in
  Stack.push elt (invert_stack rest) ;;
```

This is incorrect. To see why, consider the recursion framework outlined in section 2.2 of the Code Review 1 notes. Even though the base case seems reasonable (returning an empty stack when the stack is empty), let's look at the recursive step. Again assume `invert_stack` works for small instances of the problem. Consider $s = [3; 2; 1]$. On the first recursive call, $\text{elt} = 3$ and $\text{rest} = [2; 1]$. `invert_stack rest` should return the stack $[1; 2]$. Pushing 3 onto the stack $[1; 2]$ would give us $[3; 1; 2]$ which is different from the desired output of $[1; 2; 3]$. In fact, the entire recursion fails, and this version of `invert_stack` returns $[3; 2; 1]$, the same as the input stack.

Now, let us consider another approach. Suppose we use an *accumulator* that we will add to on each recursive call.

```
let invert_stack (s: 'a Stack.stack) : 'a Stack.stack =
  let rec invert_stack_aux (s : 'a Stack.stack) (acc : 'a Stack.
    stack) =
    if s = Stack.empty then acc else
    let elt = Stack.top s in
    let rest = Stack.pop s in
    invert_stack_aux rest (Stack.push elt acc) in
  invert_stack_aux s Stack.empty ;;
```

For the base case, we return the accumulator `acc` when the stack is empty. In the recursive step, we update the accumulator and pass the remaining stack as `rest`. When `rest` reaches the empty stack, we then return the final accumulated value.

2. Write a few unit tests outside the `Stack` module testing the functionality of `invert_stack`.

Solution

Note that this the unit tests below are not exhaustive, but the solution provides a template for what you could do.

```
open CS51Utils ;;
open Absbook ;;

open Stack ;;

(* define a helper function to convert a stack to list *)
let rec stack_to_list (s: 'a Stack.stack) : 'a list =
  if s = empty then [] else
    let elt = top s in
    let rest = pop s in
    elt :: stack_to_list rest ;;

(* Define some example stacks. *)
let stack1 = empty |> push 5 |> push 4 |> push 3 ;;

let invert_stack_tests () =
  unit_test (invert_stack empty = empty) "invert_stack empty";
  unit_test (stack_to_list (invert_stack stack1) = [5; 4; 3]) "
    invert_stack stack of len 3" ;;

invert_stack_tests() ;;
```

Problem 1.2 (Graph). An (undirected) graph is a defined set of nodes and a set of edges, where each edge is a pair of different nodes.

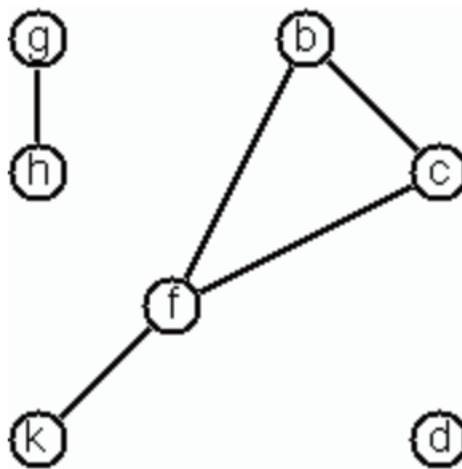


Figure 1: Graph Example

There are many ways to represent a graph. For this problem, we will consider the **adjacency list** representation, in which we represent a finite graph as a collection of unordered lists such that each list represents the neighbors (vertices that share an edge) with a particular vertex. For instance, we can represent the graph in Figure 1 as: [('g', ['h']); ('h', ['g']); ('b', ['c', 'f']); ('c', ['b', 'f']); ('f', ['b', 'c', 'k']); ('k', ['f']); ('d', [])].

Here, each element in the list is a pair, where the first element is a vertex and the second element is a list of neighbors.

We will work on defining a Graph module.

First, consider the following signatures for a Vertex and Graph module.

Listing 1: Vertex Module Signature

```
1 module type VERTEX =
2   sig
3     type t
4     val compare : t -> t -> int
5   end ;;
```

Listing 2: Graph Module Signature

```
1 module type GRAPH =
2   sig
3     type v
4     type graph
5     exception VertexAlreadyExists
6     exception VertexDoesNotExist
7     exception EdgeAlreadyExists
8
9     (* empty graph *)
10    val empty: graph
11
12    (* add a vertex to the graph *)
13    val addVertex : v -> graph -> graph
14
15    (* adds an edge between two vertices 'u' and 'v' *)
16    val addEdge : v -> v -> graph -> graph
17
18    (* Return a list of the vertices in the graph' *)
19    val vertices : graph -> v list
20
21    (* Return the neighbors of a vertex 'v' *)
22    val neighbors : v -> graph -> v list
23
24    (* Return the number of vertices and edges in the graph *)
25    val graph_size : graph -> int * int
26  end ;;
```

1. We will define a functor `MakeGraph` that takes in a module of type `VERTEX` and returns a module of type `GRAPH`. What is the signature of this functor?
2. To define `MakeGraph`, start defining type `graph` based on the example given for Figure 1.
3. There are two main problems with this definition for `graph`. First, the type allows us to add the same vertex twice to the neighbors list for any vertex. Second, our list can contain the same vertex twice: for instance, the following is expressible `[('a', []); ('a', [])]`.

Let's address the first problem by representing the neighbors as a **set**, which is an unordered collection of unique elements. Use the OCaml [Set Module](#).

4. To address the second problem, suppose we instead represent the adjacency list using a **hash map** (or hash table). A hash map is a dictionary data structure in which we map unique keys to values. To do this, we'll use the OCaml [Map Module](#), taking the keys to be the vertex and the values to be the neighbors set, as defined in part 3.
5. Define `addVertex` and `addEdge`. If the user attempts to add a vertex or edge that already exists, return the appropriate exception.
6. Complete the implementation of the module by defining `vertices`, `neighbors`, and `graph_size`.

Problem 1.3 (Find Paths).

1. Using the `MakeGraph` functor, define a module `IntGraph` such that the type of the vertices in the graph are integers.

Problem 1.4 (Set). Let's implement the `Set` module from scratch. Sets are an unordered list of elements with no duplicates.

1. Define a module signature for an `ORDERED_TYPE` which specifies the type of the elements, a function to compare elements, and a function to convert each of the elements into strings.
2. Create a module type for `Set` that includes the following values and operations on sets are supportable.
 - (a) `empty` : the empty set
 - (b) `add` : add an element to a set
 - (c) `take` : a function that takes an element in the set and returns the rest of the elements in the set as a pair `(h, t)`, where `h` is the extract element and `t` are the rest of the elements.
 - (d) `mem` : check if an element is a member of a set
 - (e) `union` : return the union of two sets
 - (f) `intersection` : return the intersection of two sets
 - (g) `print_set` : convert a set into a string.
3. Write a functor `MakeSet` that takes in a module of `ORDERED_TYPE` and returns a module of type `SET`.
4. Use `MakeSet` to define the following modules:
 - (a) A set of integers

- (b) A set of strings
 - (c) A set of int lists
 - (d) A set of integer sets
5. Define a function `power_set` that returns a set of all the subsets of the original set. For this problem, you can create a function that returns the power set for a set of integers. For instance, the power set of $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ is

```
{ {}, {1}, {2}, {3}, {4}, {1, 2}, {1, 3}, {1, 4}, {2, 3}, {2, 4},  
  {3, 4}, {1, 2, 3}, {1, 3, 4}, {1, 2, 4}, {2, 3, 4}, {1, 2, 3,  
  4} }
```