COMPUTER SCIENCE 61A

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| Calculator

We are beginning to dive into the realm of interpreting computer programs – that is, writing programs that understand other programs. In order to do so, we'll have to examine programming languages in-depth. The *Calculator* language, a subset of Scheme, was the first of these examples. In today's discussion, we'll be extending Calculator with variables and user-defined functions.

The Calculator language is a Scheme-syntax language that currently includes only the four basic arithmetic operations: +, -, *, and /. These operations can be nested and can take varying numbers of arguments. Here's a few examples of Calculator in action:

```
calc> (+ 2 2)
4

calc> (- 5)
-5

calc> (* (+ 1 2) (+ 2 3))
15
```

Our goal now is to write an interpreter for this language, and extend its functionality to variables and user-defined functions. The job of an interpreter is to evaluate expressions. So, let's talk about expressions. A Calculator expression is just like a Scheme list. To represent Scheme lists in Python, we use Pair objects. For example, the list (+ 1 2) is represented as Pair ('+', Pair (1, Pair (2, nil))). The Pair class is the same as the Scheme procedure cons, which would represent the same list as (cons '+ (cons 1 (cons 2 nil))).

Pair is very similar to Link, the class we developed for representing linked lists, except that the second attribute doesn't have to be a linked list. In addition to Pair objects, we include a nil object to represent the empty list. Pair instances have methods:

- 1. __len__, which returns the length of the list.
- 2. __getitem__, which allows indexing into the pair.
- 3. map, which applies a function, fn, to all of the elements in the list.

nil has the methods __len__, __getitem__, and map. Here's an implementation of what we described:

```
class nil:
    """Represents the special empty pair nil in Scheme."""
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'nil'
    def __len__(self):
        return 0
    def __getitem__(self, i):
        raise IndexError('Index out of range')
    def map(self, fn):
        return nil
nil = nil() # this hides the nil class *forever*
class Pair:
    """Represents the built-in pair data structure in Scheme."""
    def __init__(self, first, second):
        self.first = first
        self.second = second
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'Pair({}, {})'.format(self.first, self.second)
    def len (self):
        return 1 + len(self.second)
    def ___getitem___(self, i):
        if i == 0:
            return self.first
        return self.second[i-1]
    def map(self, fn):
        return Pair(fn(self.first), self.second.map(fn))
```

1.1 Questions

1. Translate the following Calculator expressions into calls to the ${\tt Pair}$ constructor.

2. Translate the following Python representations of Calculator expressions into the proper Scheme syntax:

```
>>> Pair('+', Pair(1, Pair(2, Pair(3, Pair(4, nil)))))
>>> Pair('+', Pair(1, Pair(Pair('*', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil))), nil)))
```

2 Evaluation

Evaluation discovers the form of an expression and executes a corresponding evaluation rule.

We'll go over two such expressions now:

- 1. *Primitive* expressions are evaluated directly. For example, the numbers 3.14 and 165 just evaluate to themselves, and the string "+" evaluates to the calc_add function.
- 2. Call expressions are evaluated in the same way you've been doing them all semester:
 - (1) **Evaluate** the operator.
 - (2) Evaluate the operands from left to right.
 - (3) **Apply** the operator to the operands.

Here's calc_eval:

2.1 Questions

1. Suppose we typed each of the following expressions into the Calculator interpreter. How many calls to calc_eval would they each generate? How many calls to calc_apply? > (+ 2 4 6 8)

```
> (+ 2 (* 4 (- 6 8)))
```

2. Alyssa P. Hacker and Ben Bitdiddle are also tasked with implementing the and operator, as in (and $(=1\ 2)\ (<3\ 4)$). Ben says this is easy: they just have to follow the same process as in implementing * and /. Alyssa is not so sure. Who's right?

3. Now that you've had a chance to think about it, you decide to try implementing and yourself. You may assume the conditional operators (e.g. <, >, =, etc) have already been implemented for you.

def calc_eval(exp):

def eval_and(operands):

Tail-Call Optimization

Scheme implements tail-call optimization, which allows programmers to write recursive functions that use a constant amount of space. A **tail call** occurs when a function calls another function as its **last action of the current frame**. Because in this case Scheme won't make any further variable lookups in the frame, the frame is no longer needed, and we can remove it from memory. In other words, if this is the last thing you are going to do in a function call, we can reuse the current frame instead of making a new frame.

Consider this version of factorial that does *not* use tail calls:

```
(define (fact n)
  (if (= n 0) 1
          (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
```

The recursive call occurs in the last line, but it is not the last expression evaluated. After calling (fact (-n 1)), the function still needs to multiply that result with n. The final expression that is evaluated is a call to the multiplication function, not fact itself. Therefore, the recursive call is *not* a tail call.

However, we can rewrite this function using a helper function that remembers the temporary product that we have calculated so far in each recursive step.

fact-tail makes a single recursive call to fact-tail that is the last expression to be evaluated, so it is a tail call. Therefore, fact-tail is a tail recursive process. Tail recursive processes can take a constant amount of memory because each recursive call frame does not need to be saved. Our original implementation of fact required the program to keep each frame open because the last expression multiplies the recursive result with n. Therefore, at each frame, we need to remember the current value of n.

In contrast, the tail recursive fact-tail does not require the interpreter to remember the values for n or result in each frame. Instead, we can just *update* the value of n and result of the current frame! Therefore, we can carry out the calculation using only enough memory for a single frame.

3.1 Identifying tail calls

A function call is a tail call if it is in a **tail context** (but a tail call might not be a recursive tail call as seen above in the first fact definition). Tail context simply means the expression

is the last to be evaluated in that form. For example, we consider the following to be tail contexts:

- the last sub-expression in a lambda's body
- the second or third sub-expression in an if form
- any of the non-predicate sub-expressions in a cond form
- the last sub-expression in an and or an or form
- the last sub-expression in a begin's body

These make sense intuitively because the last expression to be evaluated in an if form is not the condition, but rather either the second or third sub-expressions which are evaluated depending on if the condition is True or False. See if you can reason through why the others above are considered in tail context as well.

Before we jump into questions, a quick tip for defining tail recursive functions is to use helper functions. A helper function should have all the arguments from the parent function, plus additional arguments like total or counter or result.

1. For each of the following functions, identify whether it contains a recursive call in a tail context. Also indicate if it uses a constant number of frames.

2. Write a tail recursive function that returns the nth fibonacci number. We define fib(0) = 0 and fib(1) = 1.

(**define** (fib n)

3. Write a tail recursive function, sum, that takes in a Scheme list and returns the numerical sum of all values in the list.

(define (sum lst)

4. Write a tail recursive function, insert, that takes in a number and a sorted list. The function returns a sorted copy with the number inserted in the correct position.

(define (insert n lst)