

Synopsis Lab 2

This lab is chiefly concerned with writing LISP functions. Remember that, in FP, we have no sequence of instructions, just function composition; branching is usually done via `COND`; iteration, by recursion.

For the time being, the best approach is to have the LISP code (i.e. functions definitions) stored in a source file and to load it into `gcl` each time something gets modified. First, you should open two terminals: `#1` for source editing via `mcedit` (remember pairing parentheses!) and `#2` for running the LISP programs in the GCL interpreter. You start the interpreter by typing `gcl` in terminal `#2`. To stop it, simply type `(quit)` at its prompt.

By convention, the name of a file containing a GCL source code ends in `.lsp`. If you want to load file `f.lsp`, you should type at the `gcl`'s prompt:

```
(load "f.lsp")
```

By default, the code in `gcl` is interpreted, but we can also have it compiled. The compiled version of a LISP function is identical to its non-compiled version from the point of view of name and parameters, but typically works better as the code is optimized¹. If you have a source file called, let's say, `mylength.lsp` and want to compile all the functions inside, you should start `gcl` and type:

```
(compile-file "mylength.lsp")
```

`gcl` will create a new file called `mylength.o` to store the compiled versions of the functions in `mylength.lsp`. In order to use the compiled versions, you should first load them by typing:

```
(load "mylength.o")
```

LISP comment lines start with a semicolon² (i.e., this sign `;`). Multiple line comments are enclosed between `#|` and `|#`.

Browse Lab `#2` and `#3`, including examples in the section indicated. You should learn that:

1. `DEFUN` is used to define new functions: `(DEFUN function_name (p1 ... pm) f1 ... fn)`
When the function is called, the parameters `p1, ..., pm` are bound to the values passed by the caller function; then, forms `f1, ..., fn` are evaluated and the result of the last form's evaluation (i.e., `fn`) is returned; finally, the parameter bindings are dropped. LISP functions can have:

- fixed number of parameters. E.g.

```
(defun CADDDDR (1)
  (car (cddddr 1)))
```

```
(defun myplus (x y) (+ 1 x y))
```

¹Add `(declare (optimize (speed 3)))` after a function's parameter list to ask the compiler to optimize its speed

²Use 4 of them in the header, 3 at the beginning of a comment line, 2 if indented inside the code, 1 otherwise

- optional parameters. E.g. (see file `f.lsp`),

```
(DEFUN f (l &optional end)
  (if (NULL end) (append l '(period))
      (append l end)))
```

The call `(f '(This is a sentence) '(exclamation mark))` returns `(this is a sentence exclamation mark)`, while the call `(f '(This is a sentence))` returns `(this is a sentence period)`

- variable number of parameters. In the following example, the function `avg` can be called with as many arguments as we want.

```
(DEFUN avg (&rest li)
  (/ (eval (cons '+ li)) (length li)))
```

The call `(avg 1 2 3)` returns 2, while the call `(avg 1 2 3 4 5)` returns 3. The `cons` inside the function just adds a `+` to the argument list, then `eval` forces summing up the resulting list. The last form, `(length li)`, returns the number of elements in `li` (its length).

2. LISP makes use of recursion in writing functions. In order to use this mechanism properly, the following issues to be addressed:

- (a) how to decompose the problem into a simpler versions of itself?
- (b) how can the results of these simpler versions be one combine in order to get the result of the original problem?
- (c) which are the base cases in which the problem can be solved without involving recursion?
- (d) which are the conditions in which the base cases appear?

E.g.: write a function `mylength` which returns the length of the list given as argument (e.g. `(mylength '(a b c))` should return 3).

- (a) decomposition: if we knew `mylength` of the list's `rest`, we would be able to return the original list's length
- (b) combine simpler versions: `(+ 1 (mylength (REST 1)))`
- (c) base cases solvable without involving recursion: just 1 case, namely the empty list which has length 0
- (d) conditions for the base cases: `(NULL 1)`

The whole function would be (see file `mylength.lsp`):

```
(defun mylength (l)
  (cond ((NULL l) 0)
        (T (+ 1 (mylength (rest l))))))
```

Let us consider now the well known problem of reversing a list: we need a function which, when given, for example, list `(1 2 3 4 5)`, returns the list `(5 4 3 2 1)`. There are more versions of the function which achieves this; they are stored in the file `revall.lsp` and separately in `rev0.lsp` and `rev1.lsp`.

The first solution for list reversing function is `rev0`:

```
(defun rev0 (ls)
  (if (NOT (NULL ls))
      (ap (rev0 (REST ls))
          (LIST (FIRST ls)))))

(defun ap (ls1 ls2)
  (if (NULL ls1) ls2
      (CONS (CAR ls1) (ap (CDR ls1) ls2))))
```

This solution makes use of `ap`, a user-defined version of the system function `append`. Its purpose is to allow us to trace it. Function `rev0` is not tail recursive (according to the definition in Lecture #2), which makes it quite inefficient. To understand why, we will trace it; for this, you should type:

```
(trace rev0)
(trace ap)
(rev0 '(1 2 3 4))
```

Indented function names show you nested calls (preceded by the nesting level and the `>` sign). The `<` sign means a return. We used the user-defined function `ap` in order to be able to trace it; it worth noticing how many times this function is called (hence the lack of efficiency of `rev0`). When you want to stop tracing the function `rev0`, you should do

```
(untrace rev0)
```

If you want a more detailed (and verbose!) view of a function's behavior, you may use:

```
(step (rev0 '(1 2)))
```

which shows you which form is evaluated at each point.

A version of `rev` which uses an accumulator is given below:

```
(defun rev1 (ls)
  (rev1ac ls NIL))

(defun rev1ac (ls res)
  (cond ((ENDP ls) res)
        (T (rev1ac (REST ls) (CONS (FIRST ls) res)))))
```

See lecture #2 for the advantages of this approach.

Exercises:

1. trace the functions `rev0` and `rev1` in `revall.lsp` and study their behavior
2. compile the functions `rev0` and `rev1` in the corresponding separate files and notice the message about replacing recursion with iterations. Trace the compiled versions of the functions. For testing, you may want to use functions `nelems` and `f`, which build lists of `n` elements in an automatic manner.

3. write a LISP function called `fifth-element` which takes one list as parameter and returns the fifth element of that list (or `NIL` if the list length is lower than 5). E.g.:

`(fifth-element '(1 a 2 b 3 c))` will return 3.

Can you implement the function in 2 different ways?

4. take a look at the functions `exp0` and `exp1` in Lab #3, section 5. Write another LISP function `power` with two numbers, `m` and `n` as arguments and which calculates m^n using the identity:

$$m^n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ m^{\frac{n}{2}} * m^{\frac{n}{2}} & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ and } n \text{ even} \\ m * m^{\frac{n-1}{2}} * m^{\frac{n-1}{2}} & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ and } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

5. write a LISP function `fib` which takes one integer `n` as argument and computes the `n`th Fibonacci number (see lectures #1 and #2). E.g. `(fib 6)` will return 8. Implement the function both without and with accumulators.
6. write a LISP function `sumall` which takes one list as argument and sums up all numbers inside the list. You will have to consider 3 versions of this problem:
- (a) the list is flat, i.e. it contains no nested lists. E.g. `(sumall '(1 a 2 b 3 c))` will return 6.
 - (b) the list does contain nested lists, but the function sums up only the numbers on the list's superficial level. E.g. `(sumall '(1 a 2 b (3 c)))` will return 3.
 - (c) the list does contain nested lists and the function sums up the numbers on all the list's nested levels. E.g. `(sumall '(1 a 2 b (3 c)))` will return 6.

Implement the functions both without and with accumulators.