

1 Calculator

An interpreter is a program that understands other programs. Today, we will explore how to interpret a simple language that uses Scheme syntax called *Calculator*.

The Calculator language includes only the four basic arithmetic operations: $+$, $-$, $*$, and $/$. These operations can be nested and can take any numbers of arguments. A few examples of calculator expressions and their corresponding values are given on the right. Recall that the reader component of an interpreter parses input strings and represents them as data structures in the implementing language. In this case, we need to represent Calculator expressions as Python objects. To represent numbers, we can just use Python numbers. To represent the names of the arithmetic procedures, we can use Python strings (e.g. `'+'`).

Call expressions are a bit more complicated. First, note that like Scheme call expressions, call expressions in Calculator look just like Scheme lists. For example, to construct the expression `(+ 2 3)` in Scheme, we would do the following:

```
scm> (cons '+' (cons 2 (cons 3 nil)))  
(+ 2 3)
```

To represent Scheme lists in Python, we will use the `Pair` class. A `Pair` instance holds exactly two elements. Accordingly, the `Pair` constructor takes in two arguments, and to make a list we must nest calls to the constructor and pass in `nil` as the second element of the last pair. Note that in our implementation, `nil` is bound to a special user-defined object that represents an empty list, whereas `nil` in Scheme is actually an empty list.

```
>>> Pair('+', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))  
Pair('+', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))
```

Each `Pair` instance has two instance attributes: `first` and `second`, which are bound to the first and second elements of the pair respectively.

```
>>> p = Pair('+', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))  
>>> p.first  
'+'  
>>> p.second  
Pair(2, Pair(3, nil))  
>>> p.second.first  
2
```

Here's an implementation of what we described:

```
calc> (+ 2 2)  
4  
calc> (- 5)  
-5  
calc> (* (+ 1 2) (+ 2 3))  
15
```

```

class Pair:
    """Represents the built-in pair data structure in Scheme."""
    def __init__(self, first, second):
        self.first = first
        self.second = second

    def map(self, fn):
        """Maps fn to every element in a well-formed list, returning a new
        Pair.

        >>> Pair(1, Pair(2, Pair(3, nil))).map(lambda x: x * x)
        Pair(1, Pair(4, Pair(9, nil)))
        """
        assert isinstance(self.second, Pair) or self.second is nil, \
            "Second element in pair must be another pair or nil"
        return Pair(fn(self.first), self.second.map(fn))

    def __getitem__(self, i):
        """Allows us to index into well-formed lists and treat well-formed
        lists like Python iterables.

        >>> p = Pair(1, Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))
        >>> p[1]
        2
        >>> list(p)
        [1, 2, 3]
        """
        assert isinstance(self.second, Pair) or self.second is nil, \
            "Second element in pair must be another pair or nil"
        if i == 0:
            return self.first
        return self.second[i - 1]

    def __repr__(self):
        return 'Pair({}, {})'.format(self.first, self.second)

class nil:
    """Represents the special empty pair nil in Scheme."""
    def map(self, fn):
        return nil
    def __getitem__(self, i):
        raise IndexError('Index out of range')
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'nil'

nil = nil() # this hides the nil class *forever*

```

Questions

- 1.1 Write out the Calculator expression with proper syntax that corresponds to the following `Pair` constructor calls. Also, draw out a box and pointer diagram corresponding to each input.

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

```
> (+ 1 2 3 4)
```

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

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

Box and pointers solutions

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- 1.2 Answer the following questions about a `Pair` instance representing the Calculator expression `(+ (- 2 4) 6 8)`.

- i. Write out the Python expression that returns a `Pair` representing the given expression, and draw a box and pointer diagram corresponding to it.

```
>>> Pair('+', Pair(Pair('-', Pair(2, Pair(4, nil))), Pair(6, Pair(8, nil))))
```

Box and pointer diagram

- ii. What is the operator of the call expression? Given that the `Pair` you constructed in the previous part was bound to the name `p`, how would you retrieve the operator?

```
p.first
```

- iii. What are the operands of the call expression? Given that the `Pair` you constructed in Part (i) was bound to the name `p`, how would you retrieve a list containing all of the operands? How would you retrieve only the first operand?

```
p.second to get a list containing all the operands. p.second.first to get the first operand by itself.
```

2 Evaluation

The evaluation component of an interpreter determines the type of an expression and executes corresponding evaluation rules.

Here are the evaluation rules for the three types of Calculator expressions:

1. **Numbers** are self-evaluating. For example, the numbers 3.14 and 165 just evaluate to themselves.
2. **Names** are looked up in the OPERATORS dictionary. Each name (e.g. '+') is bound to a corresponding function in Python that does the appropriate operation on a list of numbers (e.g. `sum`).
3. **Call expressions** are evaluated the same way you've been doing them all semester:
 - (1) **Evaluate** the operator, which evaluates to a function.
 - (2) **Evaluate** the operands from left to right.
 - (3) **Apply** the function to the value of the operands.

The function `calc_eval` takes in a Calculator expression represented in Python and implements each of these rules:

```
def calc_eval(exp):
    """Evaluates a Calculator expression represented as a Pair."""
    if isinstance(exp, Pair): # Call expressions
        fn = calc_eval(exp.first)
        args = list(exp.second.map(calc_eval))
        return calc_apply(fn, args)
    elif exp in OPERATORS: # Names
        return OPERATORS[exp]
    else: # Numbers
        return exp
```

Note that `calc_eval` is recursive! In order to evaluate call expressions, we must call `calc_eval` on the operator and each of the operands.

The *apply* step in the Calculator language is straight-forward, since we only have primitive procedures. This step is more complex when it comes to applying Scheme procedures, which may include user-defined procedures.

Given the Python function that implements the appropriate Calculator operation and a Python list of numbers, the `calc_apply` function simply calls the function on the arguments, and regular Python evaluation rules take place.

```
def calc_apply(fn, args):
    """Applies a Calculator operation to a list of numbers."""
    return fn(args)
```

Questions

- 2.1 How many calls to `calc_eval` and `calc_apply` would it take to evaluate each of the following Calculator expressions?

> (+ 2 4 6 8)

6 calls to eval: 1 for the entire expression, and then 1 each for the operator and each operand.

1 call to apply the addition operator.

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

10 calls to eval: 1 for the whole expression, then 1 for each of the operators and operands. When we encounter another call expression, we have to evaluate the operators and operands inside as well.

3 calls to apply the function the arguments for each call expression.

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- 2.2 Suppose we want to add handling for comparison operators `>`, `<`, and `=` as well as `and` expressions to our Calculator interpreter. These should work the same way they do in Scheme.

```
calc> (and (= 1 1) 3)
```

```
3
```

```
calc> (and (+ 1 0) (< 1 0) (/ 1 0))
```

```
#f
```

- i. Are we able to handle expressions containing the comparison operators (such as `<`, `>`, or `=`) with the existing implementation of `calc_eval`? Why or why not?

Comparison expressions are regular call expressions, so we need to evaluate the operator and operands and then apply a function to the arguments. Therefore, we do not need to change `calc_eval`. We simply need to add new entries to the `OPERATORS` dictionary that map `'<'`, `'>'`, and `'='` to functions that perform the appropriate comparison operation.

- ii. Are we able to handle `and` expressions with the existing implementation of `calc_eval`? Why or why not?

Since `and` is a special form that short circuits on the first false-y operand, we cannot handle these expressions the same way we handle call expressions. We need to add special handling for combinations that don't evaluate all the operands.

- iii. Now, complete the implementation below to handle `and` expressions. You may assume the conditional operators (e.g. `<`, `>`, `=`, etc) have already been implemented for you.

```
def calc_eval(exp):
    if isinstance(exp, Pair):
        if _____: # and expressions
```

```

        return eval_and(exp.second)
    else:
        # Call expressions
        return calc_apply(calc_eval(exp.first), list(exp.second.map(calc_eval)))
elif exp in OPERATORS:
    # Names
    return OPERATORS[exp]
else:
    # Numbers
    return exp

def eval_and(operands):

def calc_eval(exp):
    if isinstance(exp, Pair):
        if exp.first == 'and': # and expressions
            return eval_and(exp.second)
        else:
            # Call expressions
            return calc_apply(calc_eval(exp.first), list(exp.second.map(calc_eval)))
    elif exp in OPERATORS:
        # Names
        return OPERATORS[exp]
    else:
        # Numbers
        return exp

def eval_and(operands):
    curr, val = operands, True
    while curr is not nil:
        val = calc_eval(curr.first)
        if val is False:
            return False
        curr = curr.second
    return val

```

3 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**. In this case, 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 implementation of `factorial`.

```
(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.

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

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

`fact-tail` makes a single recursive call to `fact-tail`, and that recursive call is the last expression to be evaluated, so it is a tail call. Therefore, `fact-tail` is a tail recursive process. We say that a recursive function is **tail recursive** if all of its recursive calls are tail calls.

Using a constant number of frames

Tail recursive processes can use 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 keep reusing a single frame to complete this calculation.

Tail context

When trying to identify whether a given function call within the body of a function is a tail call, we look for whether the call expression is in **tail context**.

Given that each of the following expressions is the last expression in the body of the function, we consider the tail context of each expression to be:

- the second or third operand in an **if** expression
- any of the non-predicate sub-expressions in a **cond** expression (i.e. the second expression of each clause)
- the last operand in an **and** or an **or** expression
- the last operand in a **begin** expression's body
- the last operand in a **let** expression's body

For example, in the expression `(begin (+ 2 3) (- 2 3) (* 2 3))`, `(* 2 3)` is a tail call because it is the last operand expression to be evaluated.

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Questions

- 3.1 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.

```
(define (question-a x)
  (if (= x 0) 0
      (+ x (question-a (- x 1))))))
```

In the recursive case, the last expression that is evaluated is a call to `+`. Therefore, the recursive call is not in tail context, and each of the frames remain active. This function uses $\Theta(n)$ frames.

```
(define (question-b x y)
  (if (= x 0) y
      (question-b (- x 1) (+ y x))))
```

The recursive call is the third operand in the `if` expression, so it is in tail context. This means that the last expression that will be evaluated in the body of this function is the recursive function call, so this function uses $\Theta(1)$ frames.

```
(define (question-c x y)
  (if (> x y)
      (question-c (- y 1) x)
      (question-c (+ x 10) y)))
```

The recursive calls are the second and third operands of the `if` expression. Only one of these calls is actually evaluated, and whichever one it is will be the last expression evaluated in the body of the function. This function therefore uses $\Theta(1)$ frames.

Note that if you actually try and evaluate this function, it will never terminate. But at least it won't crash from hitting max recursion depth!

```
(define (question-d n)
  (if (question-d n)
      (question-d (- n 1))
      (question-d (+ n 10)))))
```

The second and third recursive calls are in tail context, but the first is not. Since not all the recursive calls are tail calls, this function does not use a constant number of frames. [Video walkthrough](#)

```
(define (question-e n)
  (cond ((= n 0) 1)
        ((question-e (- n 1)) (question-e (- n 2)))
        (else (begin (print 2) (question-e (- n 3))))))
```

The second and third recursive calls are the second expressions in a clause, so they are in tail context. However, the first recursive call is not in tail context. Since not all recursive calls are tail calls, this function is not tail recursive and does not use a constant number of frames.

- 3.2 Write a tail recursive function that returns the n th fibonacci number. We define $\text{fib}(0) = 0$ and $\text{fib}(1) = 1$.

```
(define (fib n)
  (define (fib-sofar _____)

    (if _____

        _____

        (fib-sofar _____)

        (fib-sofar _____)))
```

```
(define (fib n)
  (define (fib-sofar i prev curr)
    (if (= i n)
        prev
        (fib-sofar (+ i 1) curr (+ prev curr))))
  (fib-sofar 0 0 1))
```

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- 3.3 Write a tail recursive function that takes in a Scheme list and returns the numerical sum of all values in the list. You can assume that the list is well-formed and contains only numbers (no nested lists).

```
(define (sum lst)

  (define (sum lst)
    (define (sum-sofar lst current-sum)
      (if (null? lst)
          current-sum
          (sum-sofar (cdr lst) (+ (car lst) current-sum))))
    (sum-sofar lst 0))
```

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

- (a) Begin by writing a tail recursive function that reverses a list.

```
(define (reverse lst)
  (define (reverse-sofar lst lst-sofar)

    (if (null? lst) _____
```

```

-----))
-----)

(define (reverse lst)
  (define (reverse-sofar lst lst-sofar)
    (if (null? lst)
        lst-sofar
        (reverse-sofar (cdr lst) (cons (car lst) lst-sofar))))
  (reverse-sofar lst nil))

```

- (b) Next, write a tail recursive function that concatenates two lists together. You may use `reverse`.

```

(define (append a b)
  (define (rev-append-tail a b)
    (if (null? a) -----
        -----))
  -----)

(define (append a b)
  (define (rev-append-tail a b)
    (if (null? a)
        b
        (rev-append-tail (cdr a) (cons (car a) b))))
  (rev-append-tail (reverse a) b))

```

- (c) Finally, implement `insert`. You may use `reverse` and `append`.

```

(define (insert n lst)
  (define (rev-insert lst rev-lst)
    (cond ((null? lst) -----)
          ((> (car lst) n) -----)
          (else -----)))
  -----)

(define (insert n lst)
  (define (rev-insert lst rev-lst)
    (cond ((null? lst) (cons n rev-lst))
          ((> (car lst) n) (append (reverse lst)

```

```
                                (cons n rev-lst)))  
    (else (rev-insert (cdr lst)  
                      (cons (car lst) rev-lst))))))  
(reverse (rev-insert lst nil)))
```