

# TAIL RECURSION & INTERPRETERS

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## COMPUTER SCIENCE MENTORS 61A

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### 1 Tail Recursion

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Recursion has an efficiency problem. Consider the factorial function. In order to calculate `factorial(6)`, we have to call `factorial(5)`, `factorial(4)`, ..., `factorial(0)`. In all, 7 frames are opened to calculate this one value. Now what if we tried `factorial(1000000)`? 1,000,001 frames would be opened, and our computer would surely crash.

There must be a better way. In languages such as Python, baked-in iterative tools like `for` and `while` loops allow us to complete large repetitive tasks with a small amount of computer resources. In Scheme, which lacks native support for iteration, are we doomed to inefficiency?

No. Because Scheme implements a feature called **tail recursion optimization**, certain kinds of recursive functions can be computed in constant space, just like a Python `while` loop. These “tail-recursive” functions are simply recursive functions where the *very last* thing we do during execution is return the recursive call:

<pre>(define (fact n)   (if (= n 0)       1       (* n (fact (- n 1)))))</pre>	<pre>(define (fact-tail n)   (define (fact-help product n)     (if (= n 0)         product         (fact-help (* n product) (- n 1))))   (fact-help 1 n))</pre>
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The implementation of `fact-tail` on the right is tail-recursive; when we make a recursive call, it is the last thing we do in the function’s execution. The implementation on the left is not tail recursive; after the recursive call to `fact` returns, we have to still multiply it by `n`. That multiplication, not the recursive call, is the last thing we do in the function’s execution.

Let’s break `fact` down some more. In order to determine the value of `fact(6)`, we have to pause and save the current frame to calculate the value of `fact(5)` and then resume execution to multiply by 6 and get our final answer. However, if we define a tail-recursive function in which no further calculations are done after the recursive call, none of the values in the current frame have to be saved. So we can close the current as we make the next recursive call, ensuring that we only have one frame open at any time. This is the mechanism behind tail recursion.

Generally, it's best to think about tail recursion in this conceptual manner. However, there are formal rules for determining whether recursive calls can be optimized:

We can optimize recursive calls that are in a tail context. In Python, which does not optimize tail calls, the tail contexts are the return statements. In Scheme, a tail context is recursively defined as the last line (return value) of a function or

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

As hinted at in the factorial example, the general way to convert a recursive function to a tail recursive one is to move the calculation from outside the recursive call to one of the recursive call arguments and thereby accumulate the result. This frequently requires the creation of a tail-recursive helper.

1. Consider the following function:

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

- (a) What are all of expressions of `sum-list` that are in tail contexts? (Hint: there are three.) Is the call to `sum-list` tail recursive?

(b) As we increase the length of `lst`, how does the total amount of space used by `sum-list` change? Why?

(c) Rewrite `sum-list` to be tail recursive.

```
(define (sum-list-tail lst)
```

```
)
```

(d) As we increase the length of `lst`, how does the total amount of space used by our optimized version of `sum-list` change? Why?

2. Implement `filter-lst`, which takes in a one-argument function `f` and a list `lst`, and returns a new list containing only the elements in `lst` for which `f` returns true. Your function must use a constant number of active frames.

*Hint: recall that the built-in `append` procedure concatenates two lists together.*

```
;Doctests
scm> (filter-lst (lambda (x) (> x 2)) '(1 2 3 4 5))
(3 4 5)
```

```
(define (filter-lst f lst)
```

```
)
```

### 3. Slice and Dice

- (a) Implement `slice`, which takes in a list `lst`, a starting index `i`, and an ending index `j`, and returns a new list containing the elements of `lst` from index `i` to `j - 1`.

```
;Doctests
scm> (slice '(0 1 2 3 4) 1 3)
(1 2)
scm> (slice '(0 1 2 3 4) 3 5)
(3 4)
scm> (slice '(0 1 2 3 4) 3 1)
()
```

```
(define (slice lst i j)
```

```
)
```

(b) Now implement `slice tail` recursively!

```
(define (slice lst i j)
```

```
)
```

## 2 Interpreters

An **interpreter** is a computer program that understands, processes, and executes other programs. The Scheme interpreter we will cover in CS 61A is built around the **Read-Eval-Print Loop**, which consists of the following steps:

1. **Read** the raw input and parse it into a data structure we can easily handle.
2. **Evaluate** the parsed expression.
3. **Print** the result to output.

One of the challenges of designing interpreters is to represent the input in a way that the interpreter's language can understand. For example, since our Scheme interpreter is written in Python, we need to parse Scheme tokens into a usable Python representation. Conveniently, every Scheme call expression and special form is represented in Scheme as a linked list. Therefore, we will represent Scheme lists with the `Pair` class, which is a type of linked list.

Just like `Link`, a `Pair` instance has two attributes, `first` and `second`, which contain the first element and rest of the linked list, respectively. Instead of using `Link.empty` to represent an empty list, `Pair` uses `nil`.

For example, during the read step, the Scheme expression `(+ 1 2)` would be **tokenized** into `('(', '+', '1', '2', ')')` and then organized into a `Pair` instance as `(Pair('+', Pair(1, Pair(2, nil))))`.

Once we have parsed our input, we evaluate the expression by calling `scheme_eval` on it. If it's a procedure call, we recursively call `scheme_eval` on the operator and the operands. Then we return the result of calling `scheme_apply` on the evaluated operator and operands, which computes the procedure call. If it's a special form, the relevant evaluation rules are followed in a similar matter.

For example, when we provide `(+ 1 (+ 2 3))` as input to the interpreter, the following happen:

- `(+ 1 (+ 2 3))` is parsed to `Pair('+', Pair(1, Pair(Pair('+', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil))), nil)))`
- The interpreter recognizes this is a procedure call.

- `scheme_eval` is called on the operator, `'+'`, and returns the addition procedure.
  - `scheme_eval` is called on the operand 1 and returns 1.
  - `scheme_eval` is called on the operand `Pair('+', Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))`.
    - The interpreter recognizes this is a procedure call.
    - `scheme_eval` is called on the operator, `'+'`, and returns the addition procedure.
    - `scheme_eval` is called on the operand 2 and returns 2.
    - `scheme_eval` is called on the operand 3 and returns 3.
    - `scheme_apply` is called on the evaluated procedure and parameters `(Pair(2, Pair(3, nil)))` and returns 5.
  - `scheme_apply` is called on the evaluated procedure and parameters `(Pair(1, Pair(5, nil)))` and returns 6.
  - 6 is printed to output.
1. The following questions refer to the Scheme interpreter. Assume we're using the implementation seen in lecture and in the Scheme project.
- (a) What's the purpose of the read stage in a Read-Eval-Print Loop? For our Scheme interpreter, what does it take in, and what does it return?
- (b) What are the two components of the read stage? What do they do?
- (c) Write out the constructor for the `Pair` object that the read stage creates from the input string `(define (foo x) (+ x 1))`

- (d) For the previous example, imagine we saved that Pair object to the variable `p`. How could we check that the expression is a `define` special form? How would we access the name of the function and the body of the function?

2. Circle or write the number of calls to `scheme_eval` and `scheme_apply` for the code below.

```
(if 1 (+ 2 3) (/ 1 0))
```

```
scheme_eval    1  3  4  6  
scheme_apply   1  2  3  4
```

```
(or #f (and (+ 1 2) 'apple) (- 5 2))
```

```
scheme_eval    6  8  9 10  
scheme_apply   1  2  3  4
```

```
(define (square x) (* x x))
```

```
(+ (square 3) (- 3 2))
```

```
scheme_eval    2  5 14 24  
scheme_apply   1  2  3  4
```

```
(define (add x y) (+ x y))
```

```
(add (- 5 3) (or 0 2))
```

3. Identify the number of calls to `scheme_eval` and the number of calls to `scheme_apply`.

```
(a) scm> (define pi 3.14)
      pi
      scm> (define (hack x)
              (cond
                ((= x pi) 'pwned)
                ((< x 0) (hack pi))
                (else (hack (- x 1)))))

      hack

(b) scm> (hack 3.14)
      pwned

(c) scm> ((lambda (x) (hack x)) 0)
      pwned
```

### 3 Scheme Challenge

1. Finish the functions `max` and `max-depth`. `max` takes in two numbers and returns the larger. Function `max-depth` takes in a list `lst` and returns the maximum depth of the list. In a nested scheme list, we define the depth as the number of scheme lists a sublist is nested within. A scheme list with no nested lists has a `max-depth` of 0.

```
;doctests
scm> (max 1 5)
5
scm> (max-depth '(1 2 3))
0
scm> (max-depth '(1 2 (3 (4) 5)))
2
scm> (max-depth '(0 (1 (2 (3 (4) 5) 6) 7))
4

(define (max x y) _____)

(define (max-depth lst)
  (define (helper lst curr)
    (cond
      ((_____ ) _____)
      ((_____ ) (max _____
                           _____))
      (else (helper _____)))
    )
  )
  (_____ )
)
```