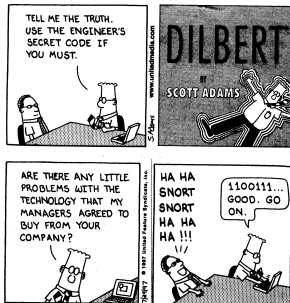
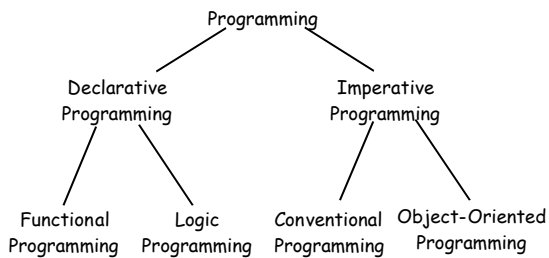


## Subtle, but Important, Uses of Binary



## Imperative Programs

## Taxonomy of Programming Models



## Imperative Programming

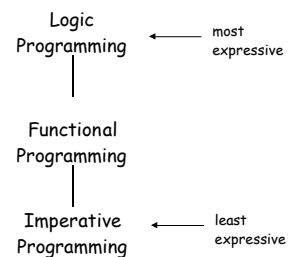
- View of computation is as sequence of commands or assignments
- (vs. functional: as set of function declarations)
- Most basic operation is the *assignment statement*:

*Variable = Expression;*  
*x = x+1;*

## No "referential transparency"

- In a functional language  
 $f(X) * f(X)$   
 is same value as  
 $Y = f(X), Y * Y$
- In an imperative language, we cannot make this claim;  $f(X)$  may have "side-effects" apart from the production of a value. (In some cases, it could even modify X.)

## Expressive Power



## Expressive Power

- Every imperative program can be expressed as an equivalent functional program
- The general idea:
  - The "state" of an imperative program consists of a set of bindings of values to variables.
  - A statement, or sequence of statements, in an imperative program can be regarded as a transformation of one state to another.
  - The transformation represented by a statement can be expressed as a function.

## Example: Factorial Program

```
int fac(int n)
{
  int x, a;
  x = 1; a = 1;
  while( x <= n )
  {
    a = a*x;
    x = x+1;
  }
  return a;
}
```

The *state* is the set of bindings to *a*, *n*, and *x*, which we'll abbreviate  $(a, n, x)$ , called the *state vector*.

Example:

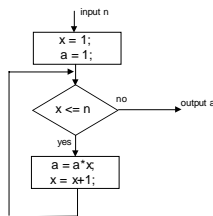
$(a, n, x): (1, 4, 1) \rightarrow (1, 4, 2) \rightarrow (2, 4, 3) \rightarrow (6, 4, 4) \rightarrow (24, 4, 5)$

24 is returned as  $\text{fac}(4)$

## Expressing Imperative Programs Functionally (1 of 4)

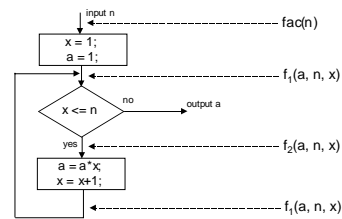
- Think of the program as represented by its flowchart.

```
int fac(int n)
{
  int x, a;
  x = 1; a = 1;
  while( x <= n )
  {
    a = a*x;
    x = x+1;
  }
  return a;
}
```



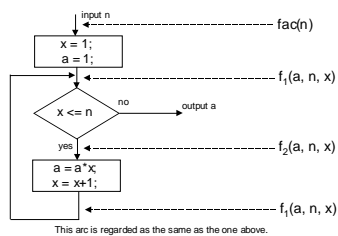
## Expressing Imperative Programs Functionally (2 of 4)

- Label each arc with the name of a function having the state vector as an argument, except for the input arc, which gets the input variables as an argument, and the output arc, which need not be labeled.



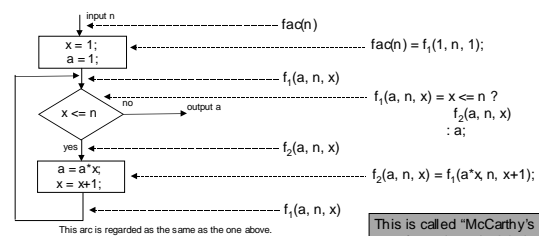
## Expressing Imperative Programs Functionally (3 of 4)

- Interpretation of the functions thus introduced:
  - Given the argument values as the state, the function produces the value that the program would eventually produce if it were started in that state at the indicated arc.



## Expressing Imperative Programs Functionally (4 of 4)

- Define the functions according to the state transformations in boxes.



This is called "McCarthy's transformation principle in the text."

## Simplifying Using Substitution

```

fac(n) = f1(1, n, 1);

f1(a, n, x) = x <= n ?
  f2(a, n, x)
  : a;

f2(a, n, x) = f1(a*x, n, x+1);
    
```

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} f_1(a, n, x) = x \leq n ? \\ \quad f_2(a, n, x) \\ \quad : a; \\ f_2(a, n, x) = f_1(a \cdot x, n, x+1); \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} f_1(a, n, x) = x \leq n ? \\ \quad f_1(a \cdot x, n, x+1) \\ \quad : a; \end{array}$$

## Try this one

```

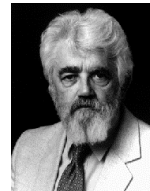
int fib(int n)
{
  int x, a, b;
  x = 1; a = 1; b = 0;
  while ( x <= n )
  {
    int temp = a+b;
    b = a;
    a = temp;
    x = x+1;
  }
  return a;
}

fib(n) =
    
```

## Recursion -> Iteration?

- Is McCarthy's transformation invertible?
  - In some cases, it is possible to go from recursion to iteration, if the program is tail-recursive.
  - In general, it is not possible to transform an arbitrary recursive program to iteration, except in a fairly contrived way:
    - We can always implement recursion using imperative programming and a stack
  - In some sense, this implies that recursive programming is strictly more expressively-powerful than iterative programming.

## John McCarthy



A pioneer in artificial intelligence, McCarthy invented LISP, the preminent AI programming language, and first proposed general-purpose time sharing of computers. Ph.D. Princeton, 1951. Distinctions: NAS, NAE

[Link to McCarthy's original paper giving the transformation \(IFIP '62\).](#)

## Funky Faktorial

```

fac(n) = f1(1, n, 1);

f1(a, n, x) = x <= n ?
  f1(a*x, n, x+1)
  : a;
    
```

Compare to everyone's favorite:

```

fac(n) = n <= 1 ? 1 : n*fac(n-1);
    
```

## Tail Recursion (review)

Functions produced by McCarthy's transformation are all "tail-recursive", meaning that the result of the function can be wholly delegated to some other defined function call.

```

fac(n) = f1(1, n, 1);
    
```

} "tail-recursive"

```

f1(a, n, x) = x <= n ?
  f1(a*x, n, x+1)
  : a;
    
```

} "tail-recursive"

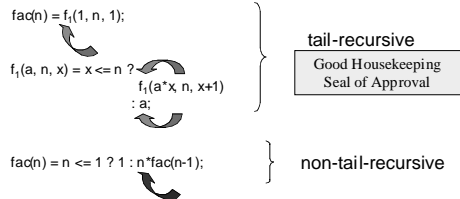
```

fac(n) = n <= 1 ? 1 : n*fac(n-1);
    
```

} non-tail-recursive

## Tail Recursion

There is no "messy cleanup" after the inner function is called.



## Tail Recursion

$fac(n) = f_1(1, n, 1);$       $f_1(a, n, x) = x \leq n ? f_1(a \cdot x, n, x+1) : a;$      tail-recursive

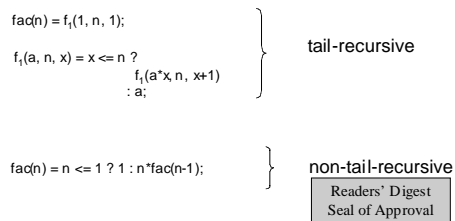
$fac(4) \Rightarrow f_1(1, 4, 1) \Rightarrow f_1(1, 4, 2) \Rightarrow f_1(2, 4, 3) \Rightarrow f_1(6, 4, 4) \Rightarrow f_1(24, 4, 5) \Rightarrow 24$

$fac(n) = n \leq 1 ? 1 : n \cdot fac(n-1);$      non-tail-recursive

$fac(4) \Rightarrow 4 \cdot fac(3) \Rightarrow 4 \cdot 3 \cdot fac(2) \Rightarrow 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot fac(1) \Rightarrow 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \Rightarrow 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \Rightarrow 4 \cdot 6 \Rightarrow 24$   
 sticky build-up

## Tail Recursion

However, tail-recursive functions may be harder to read.



## Which should I use?

- Don't lose sleep over whether to tail-recurse, *unless*
  - you are processing large data objects and memory is a premium, or
  - it is much costlier to compute without it, or
  - it's stated on the exam that you should.
- The compiler must also optimize tail-recursion for this to be effective (currently rex doesn't).
- In development, it might be wise to provide the clearest expression of the function first, then later replace it with a tail-recursive version.

## Naïve Reverse

The valid rule set:  
 $reverse([ ]) \Rightarrow [ ];$

$reverse([E | L]) \Rightarrow append(reverse(L), [E]);$

is called naïve reverse:

- It's the first reverse coded by the inexperienced.
- It's not tail recursive.
- It's slow: takes an extra *factor* of  $length(L)$  steps to evaluate.

## Accumulators (review)

- Certain arguments of functions, particularly tail-recursive ones, are often designated as "accumulators", e.g.

$f_1(a, n, x) = x \leq n ? f_1(a \cdot x, n, x+1) : a;$   
 accumulator argument

- The idea is that this argument value "accumulates" until the function is ready to return the answer without recursing.

## Accumulators for List Processing

- Consider a definition of reverse:

$\text{reverse}(L) = \text{reverse}(L, [])$ ;

$\text{reverse}([], A) \Rightarrow A$ ;

$\text{reverse}([E | L], A) \Rightarrow \text{reverse}(L, [E | A])$ ;

- Which argument is an accumulator?
- Is this reverse tail-recursive?

## Accumulators for List Processing

$\text{reverse}(L) = \text{reverse}(L, [])$ ;

$\text{reverse}([], A) \Rightarrow A$ ;

$\text{reverse}([E | L], A) \Rightarrow \text{reverse}(L, [E | A])$ ;

$\text{reverse}([E | L], A) \Rightarrow \text{reverse}(L, [E | A])$ ;

$\text{reverse}([E | L], A) \Rightarrow \text{reverse}(L, [E | A])$ ;

## Accumulators and Auxiliaries

- Note that when an accumulator is used, it is often in an *auxiliary* function, rather than the main interface function for the user.
- It is bad style to burden the user with the need to know added arguments, such as initial accumulations.