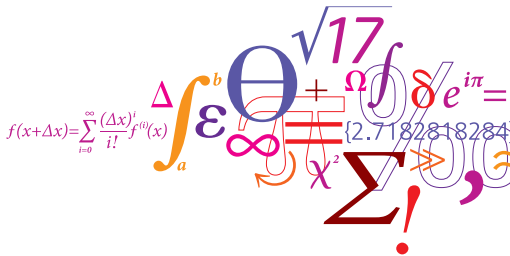


02157 Functional Programming

Lecture 8: Tail recursive (iterative) functions

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- Iterative (tail-recursive) functions is a simple technique to deal with efficiency in certain situations, e.g.
 - to avoid evaluations with a huge amount of pending operations, e.g.

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- The notion: continuations, provides a general applicable approach

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An example: Factorial function (I)

Consider the following declaration:

```
let rec fact = function
  | 0 -> 1
  | n -> n * fact(n-1);;
val fact : int -> int
```

- What **resources** are needed to compute `fact(N)`?

Considerations:

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Evaluation:

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fact(N)
~> (n * fact(n-1) , [n ↦ N])
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~> N!

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Time and space demands: proportional to N Is this satisfactory?

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Time and space demands: **proportional to N** **Is this satisfactory?**

Another example: Naive reversal (I)

```
let rec naiveRev = function
  | []      -> []
  | x::xs  -> naiveRev xs @ [x];;
val naiveRev : 'a list -> 'a list
```

Evaluation of $\text{naiveRev } [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$:

```
naiveRev [x1, x2, ..., xn]
~> naiveRev [x2, ..., xn] @ [x1]
~> (naiveRev [x3, ..., xn] @ [x2]) @ [x1]
⋮
~> (((...([ ] @ [xn]) @ [xn-1]) @ ... @ [x2]) @ [x1])
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Time demands: proportional to n^2

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Examples: Accumulating parameters

Efficient solutions are obtained by using *more general functions*:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{factA}(n, m) &= n! \cdot m, \text{ for } n \geq 0 \\ \text{revA}([x_1, \dots, x_n], ys) &= [x_n, \dots, x_1] @ys\end{aligned}$$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned}n! &= \text{factA}(n, 1) \\ \text{rev}[x_1, \dots, x_n] &= \text{revA}([x_1, \dots, x_n], [])\end{aligned}$$

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Declaration of factA

```
let rec factA = function
| (0,m) -> m
| (n,m) -> factA(n-1,n*m) ;;
```

An evaluation:

```
factA(5,1)
~> (factA(n-1,n*m), [n ↦ 5, m ↦ 1])
~> factA(4,5)
~> (factA(n-1,n*m), [n ↦ 4, m ↦ 5])
~> factA(3,20)
~> ...
~> factA(0,120) ~> (m, [m ↦ 120]) ~> 120
```

Space demand: **constant**.

Time demands: **proportional to n**


```
let rec revA = function
| ([], ys)      -> ys
| (x::xs, ys) -> revA(xs, x::ys) ;;
```

An evaluation:

```
      revA([1,2,3],[])
  ~> revA([2,3],1::[])
  ~> revA([3],2::[1])
  ~> revA([3],[2,1])
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  ~> [3,2,1]
```

Space and time demands:

proportional to n (the length of the first list)

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The declarations of `factA` and `revA` are *tail-recursive functions*

- the recursive call is the *last function application* to be evaluated in the body of the declaration e.g. `itfac(3, 20)` and `revA([3], [2, 1])`
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```
let rec factA = function
  | (0,m) -> m
  | (n,m) -> factA(n-1,n*m)
              (* recursive "tail-call" *)
```

- only one set of bindings for argument identifiers is needed during the evaluation

```
factA(5,1)
~> (factA(n,m), [n ↦ 5, m ↦ 1])
~> (factA(n-1,n*m), [n ↦ 5, m ↦ 1])
~> factA(4,5)
~> (factA(n,m), [n ↦ 4, m ↦ 5])
~> (factA(n-1,n*m), [n ↦ 4, m ↦ 5])
~> ...
~> factA(0,120) ~> (m, [m ↦ 120]) ~> 120
```

```
let xs16 = List.init 1000000 (fun i -> 16);;  
val xs16 : int list = [16; 16; 16; 16; 16; ...]  
  
#time;; // a toggle in the interactive environment  
  
for i in xs16 do let _ = fact i in ();;  
Real: 00:00:00.051, CPU: 00:00:00.046, ...  
  
for i in xs16 do let _ = factA(i,1) in ();;  
Real: 00:00:00.024, CPU: 00:00:00.031, ...
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The performance gain of `factA` is much better than the indicated factor 2 because the `for` construct alone uses about 12 ms:

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for i in xs16 do let _ = () in ();;  
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Concrete resource measurements: reverse functions

```
let xs20000 = [1 .. 20000];;

naiveRev xs20000;;
Real: 00:00:07.624, CPU: 00:00:07.597,
GC gen0: 825, gen1: 253, gen2: 0
val it : int list = [20000; 19999; 19998; ...]

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```

- The naive version takes 7.624 seconds - the iterative just 1 ms.
- The use of append (@) has been reduced to a use of cons (: :). This has a dramatic effect of the garbage collection:
 - No object is reclaimed when revA is used
 - 825+253 obsolete objects were reclaimed using the naive version

Let's look at memory management

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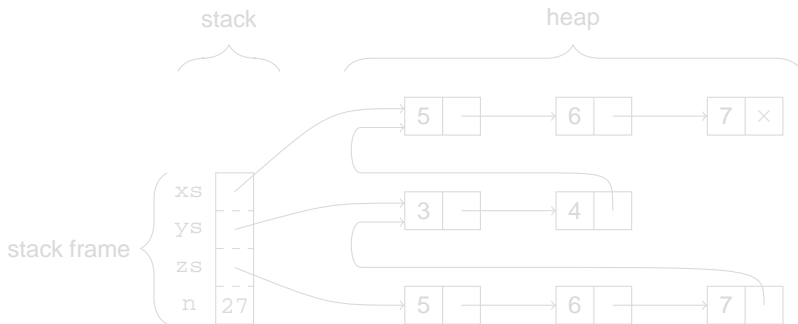
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- Primitive values are allocated on the stack
- Composite values are allocated on the heap

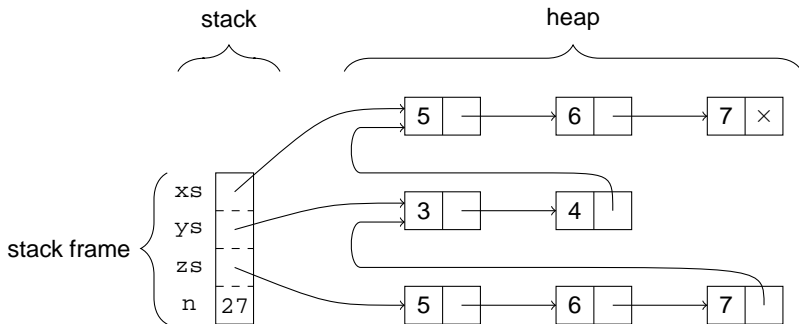
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let xs = [5;6;7];;  
let ys = 3::4::xs;;  
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let n = 27;;
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No unnecessary copying is done:

- 1 The linked lists for ys is not copied when building a linked list for $y :: ys$.
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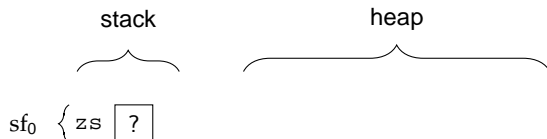
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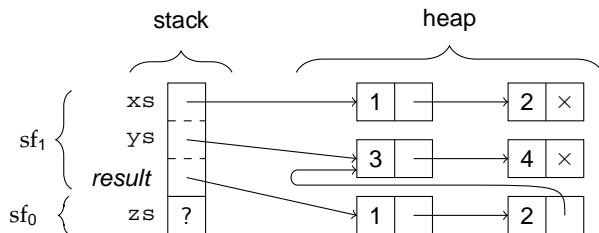
```
let zs = let xs = [1;2]
         let ys = [3;4]
         xs@ys;;
```

Initial stack and heap prior to the evaluation of the local declarations:



Operations on stack: Push

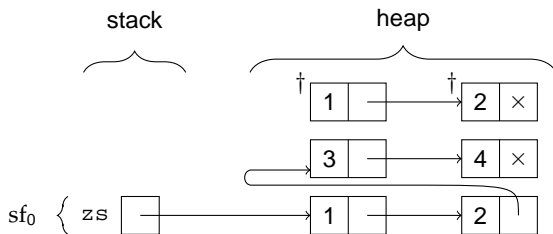
Evaluation of the local declarations initiated by **pushing** a new stack frame onto the stack:



The auxiliary entry **result** refers to the value of the `let`-expression.

Operations on stack: Pop

The top stack frame is **popped** from the stack when the evaluation of the `let`-expression is completed:



The resulting heap contains two **obsolete** cells marked with '†'

Operations on the heap: Garbage collection

The memory management system uses a *garbage collector* to reclaim obsolete cells in the heap behind the scene.

The garbage collector manages the heap as partitioned into three groups or *generations*: `gen0`, `gen1` and `gen2`, according to their age. The objects in `gen0` are the youngest while the objects in `gen2` are the oldest.

The typical situation is that objects die young and the garbage collector is designed for that situation.

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```

The stack is big:

```
let rec bigList n = if n=0 then [] else 1::bigList(n-1);;  
bigList 120000;;  
val it : int list = [1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1;...]  
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Process is terminated due to StackOverflowException.
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More than $1.2 \cdot 10^5$ stack frames are pushed in recursive calls.

The heap is much bigger:

```
let rec bigListA n xs = if n=0 then xs  
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let xsVeryBig = bigListA 12000000 [];;  
val xsVeryBig : int list = [1; 1; 1; 1; 1; 1;...]  
let xsTooBig = bigListA 13000000 [];;  
System.OutOfMemoryException: ...
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A list with more than $1.2 \cdot 10^7$ elements can be created.

The iterative `bigListA` function does not exhaust the stack. **WHY?**

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Iterative (tail-recursive) functions (II)

Tail-recursive functions are also called *iterative functions*.

- The function $f(n, m) = (n - 1, n * m)$ is iterated during evaluations for `factA`.
- The function $g(x :: xs, ys) = (xs, x :: ys)$ is iterated during evaluations for `revA`.

The correspondence between tail-recursive functions and while loops is established in the textbook.

An example:

```
let factW n =  
  let ni = ref n  
  let r  = ref 1  
  while !ni > 0 do  
    r := !r * !ni ; ni := !ni - 1  
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Iterative functions (III)

A function $g : \tau \rightarrow \tau'$ is an *iteration of $f : \tau \rightarrow \tau$* if it is an instance of:

```
let rec g z = if p z then g(f z) else h z
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for suitable predicate $p : \tau \rightarrow \text{bool}$ and function $h : \tau \rightarrow \tau'$.

The function g is called an *iterative (or tail-recursive) function*.

Examples: `factA` and `revA` are easily declared in the above form:

```
let rec factA(n,m) =  
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Iterative functions (III)

A function $g : \tau \rightarrow \tau'$ is an *iteration of $f : \tau \rightarrow \tau$* if it is an instance of:

```
let rec g z = if p z then g(f z) else h z
```

for suitable predicate $p : \tau \rightarrow \text{bool}$ and function $h : \tau \rightarrow \tau'$.

The function g is called an *iterative (or tail-recursive) function*.

Examples: `factA` and `revA` are easily declared in the above form:

```
let rec factA(n,m) =
  if n <= 0 then factA(n-1,n*m) else m;;
```

```
let rec revA(xs,ys) =
  if not (List.isEmpty xs)
  then revA(List.tail xs, (List.head xs)::ys)
  else ys;;
```

Iterative functions: evaluations (I)

Consider: $\text{let rec } g \ z = \text{if } p \ z \text{ then } g(f \ z) \text{ else } h \ z$

Evaluation of the $g \ v$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & g \ v \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (\text{if } p \ z \text{ then } g(f \ z) \text{ else } h \ z, [z \mapsto v]) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (g(f \ z), [z \mapsto v]) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & g(f^1 v) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (\text{if } p \ z \text{ then } g(f \ z) \text{ else } h \ z, [z \mapsto f^1 v]) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (g(f \ z), [z \mapsto f^1 v]) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & g(f^2 v) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & \dots \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (\text{if } p \ z \text{ then } g(f \ z) \text{ else } h \ z, [z \mapsto f^n v]) \\
 \rightsquigarrow & (h \ z, [z \mapsto f^n v]) \quad \text{suppose } p(f^n v) \rightsquigarrow \text{false} \\
 \rightsquigarrow & h(f^n v)
 \end{aligned}$$

Observe two desirable properties:

- there are n recursive calls of g ,
- at most *one binding* for the argument pattern z is 'active' at any stage in the evaluation, and
- the iterative functions require *one* stack frame only.

Iterative functions are executed efficiently:

```
#time;;
```

```
for i in 1 .. 1000000 do let _ = factA(16,1) in ();;  
Real: 00:00:00.024, CPU: 00:00:00.031,  
GC gen0: 0, gen1: 0, gen2: 0  
val it : unit = ()
```

```
for i in 1 .. 1000000 do let _ = factW 16 in ();;  
Real: 00:00:00.048, CPU: 00:00:00.046,  
GC gen0: 9, gen1: 0, gen2: 0  
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Example: Fibonacci numbers (I)

A declaration based directly on the mathematical definition:

```
let rec fib = function
  | 0 -> 0
  | 1 -> 1
  | n -> fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);;
val fib : int -> int
```

is highly inefficient. For example:

```
fib 4
~> fib 3 + fib 2
~> (fib 2 + fib 1) + fib 2
~> ((fib 1 + fib 0) + fib 1) + fib 2
~> ... ~> 2 + (fib 1 + fib 0)
~> ...
```

Ex: `fib 44` requires around 10^9 evaluations of base cases.

Example: Fibonacci numbers (II)

An iterative solution gives high efficiency:

```
fun recitfib(n,a,b) = if n <> 0
                      then itfib(n-1,a+b,a)
                      else a;;
```

The expression `itfib(n ,0,1)` evaluates to F_n , for any $n \geq 0$:

- Case $n = 0$: `itfib(0,0,1) \rightsquigarrow 0 ($= F_0$)`
- Case $n > 0$:

```
    itfib(n,0,1)
 $\rightsquigarrow$  itfib( $n-1$ , 1, 0) = itfib( $n-1$ ,  $F_1$ ,  $F_0$ )
 $\rightsquigarrow$  itfib( $n-2$ ,  $F_1 + F_0$ ,  $F_1$ )
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Limits of accumulating parameters

Accumulating parameters are not sufficient to achieve a tail-recursive version for arbitrary recursive functions.

Consider for example:

```
type BinTree<'a> =  
    | Leaf  
    | Node of BinTree<'a> * 'a * BinTree<'a>;  
  
let rec count = function  
    | Leaf          -> 0  
    | Node(tl,n,tr) -> count tl + count tr + 1;;
```

A counting function:

```
countA: int -> BinTree<'a> -> int
```

using an accumulating parameter will **not be tail-recursive** due to the expression containing recursive calls on the left and right sub-trees.
(Ex. 9.8)

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Continuation: A function for the “rest” of the computation.

The continuation-based version of `bigList` has a continuation

```
c: int list -> int list
```

as argument:

```
let rec bigListC n c =  
  if n=0 then c []  
  else bigListC (n-1) (fun res -> c(1::res));;  
val bigListC : int -> (int list -> 'a) -> 'a
```

- Base case: “feed” the result of `bigList` into the continuation `c`.
- Recursive case: let `res` denote the value of `bigList(n-1)`:
 - The result of computation of `bigList(n-1)` is `res`.
 - The continuation of `bigList(n-1)` is `(fun res -> c(1::res))`.
 - The continuation of `bigList(n)` is `c`.

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- `bigListC` is a tail-recursive function, and
- the calls of `c` are tail calls in the base case of `bigListC` and in the continuation: `fun res -> c(1::res)`.

The stack will hence neither grow due to the evaluation of recursive calls of `bigListC` nor due to calls of the continuations that have been built in the heap:

```
bigListC 16000000 id;;  
Real: 00:00:08.586, CPU: 00:00:08.314,  
GC gen0: 80, gen1: 60, gen2: 3  
val it : int list = [1; 1; 1; 1; 1; ...]
```

- Slower than `bigList`
- Can generate longer lists than `bigList`

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Example: Tail-recursive count

```
let rec countC t c =
  match t with
  | Leaf          -> c 0
  | Node(tl,n,tr) ->
    countC tl (fun vl -> countC tr (fun vr -> c(vl+vr+1)))
val countC : BinTree<'a> -> (int -> 'b) -> 'b

countC (Node(Node(Leaf,1,Leaf),2,Node(Leaf,3,Leaf))) id;;
val it : int = 3
```

- Both calls of `countC` are tail calls
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- Loops in imperative languages corresponds to a *special case* of recursive function called tail recursive functions.
- Have iterative functions in mind when dealing with efficiency, e.g.
 - to avoid evaluations with a huge amount of pending operations
 - to avoid inadequate use of @ in recursive declarations.
- Memory management: stack, heap, garbage collection
- Continuations – provide a technique to turn arbitrary recursive functions into tail-recursive ones.

trades stack for heap

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