

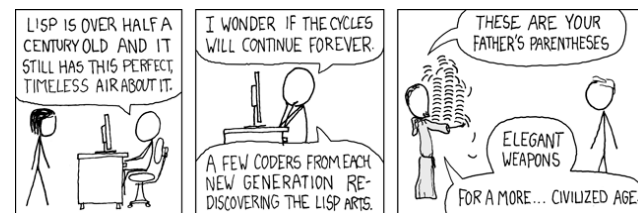
Lisp and Scheme I

Versions of LISP

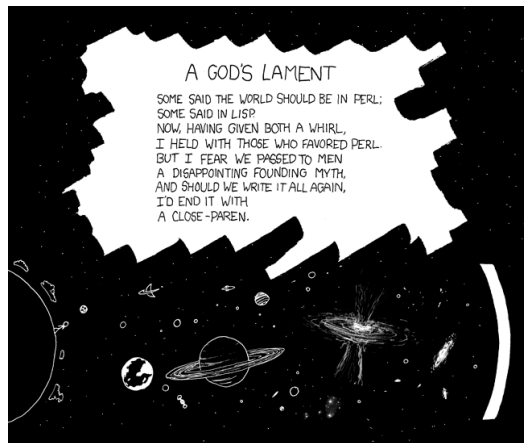
- LISP is an acronym for LISt Processing language
- [Lisp](#) (b. 1958) is an old language with many variants
 - Fortran is only older language still in wide use
 - Lisp is alive and well today
- Most modern versions are based on Common Lisp
- [Scheme](#) is one of the major variants
 - We'll use Scheme, *not* Lisp, in this class
 - Scheme is used for CS 101 in some universities
- The essentials haven't changed much

Why Study Lisp?

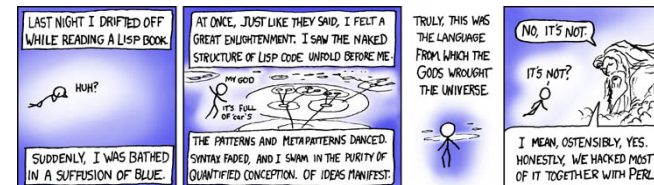
- It's a simple, elegant yet powerful language
- You will learn a lot about PLs from studying it
- We'll look at how to implement a Scheme interpreter in Scheme and Python
- Many features, once unique to Lisp, are now in "mainstream" PLs: python, javascript, perl ...
- It will expand your notion of what a PL can be
- Lisp is considered hip and esoteric among computer scientists



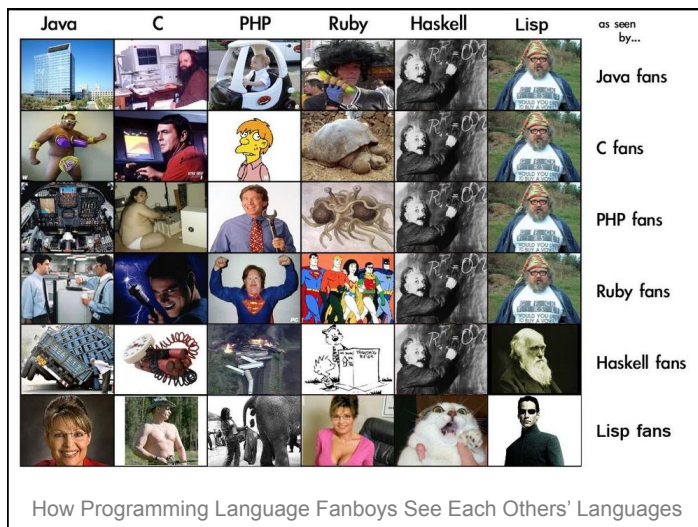
I've just received word that the Emperor has dissolved the MIT computer science program permanently.



Some say the world will end in fire; some say in segfaults.



We lost the documentation on quantum mechanics. You'll have to decode the regexes yourself.



LISP Features

- **S-expression as the universal data type** – either at atom (e.g., number, symbol) or a list of atoms or sublists
- **Functional Programming Style** – computation done by applying functions to arguments, functions are first class objects, minimal use of side-effects
- **Uniform Representation of Data & Code** – (A B C D) can be interpreted as data (i.e., a list of four elements) or code (calling function 'A' to the three parameters B, C, and D)
- **Reliance on Recursion** – iteration is provided too, but recursion is considered more natural and elegant
- **Garbage Collection** – frees programmer's explicit memory management

What's Functional Programming?

- The FP paradigm: computation is applying functions to data
- Imperative or procedural programming: a program is a set of steps to be done in order
- FP eliminates or minimizes side effects and mutable objects that create/modify state
—E.g., consider `f1(f2(a), f2(b))`
- FP treats functions as objects that can be stored, passed as arguments, composed, etc.

Pure Lisp and Common Lisp

- Lisp has a small and elegant conceptual core that has not changed much in almost 50 years.
- McCarthy's original Lisp paper defined all of Lisp using just **seven** primitive functions
- [Common Lisp](#), developed in the 1980s as an ANSI standard, is large (>800 builtin functions), has most modern data-types, good programming environments, and good compilers

Scheme

- Scheme is a dialect of Lisp that is favored by people who teach and study programming languages
- Why?
 - It's simpler and more elegant than Lisp
 - It's pioneered many new programming language ideas (e.g., continuations, call/cc)
 - It's influenced Lisp (e.g., lexical scoping of variables)
 - It's still evolving, so it's a good vehicle for new ideas

But I want to learn Lisp!

- Lisp is used in many practical systems, but Scheme is not
- Learning Scheme is a good introduction to Lisp
- We can only give you a brief introduction to either language, and at the core, Scheme and Lisp are the same
- We'll point out some differences along the way

But I want to learn Clojure!



- [Clojure](#) is a new Lisp dialect that compiles to the Java Virtual Machine
- It offers advantages of both Lisp (dynamic typing, functional programming, closures, etc.) and Java (multi-threading, fast execution)
- We'll look at Clojure briefly later

DrScheme and MzScheme



- We'll use the [PLT Scheme](#) system developed by a group of academics (Brown, Northeastern, Chicago, Utah)
- It's most used for teaching introductory CS courses
- MzScheme is the basic scheme engine and can be called from the command line and assumes a terminal style interface
- DrScheme is a graphical programming environment for Scheme

The screenshot shows the Racket website homepage. At the top is the Racket logo and navigation links: About, Download, Documentation, PLaneT, Community, and Learning. Below the header, there's a section titled "Racket is a programming language." followed by a "Start Quickly" section with a code snippet for a web server. To the right is a "Download Racket" button. Below this, there's a quote from Matthew Flatt. Further down, there are three columns: "Grow your Program", "Grow your Language", and "Grow your Skills", each with descriptive text about Racket's capabilities.

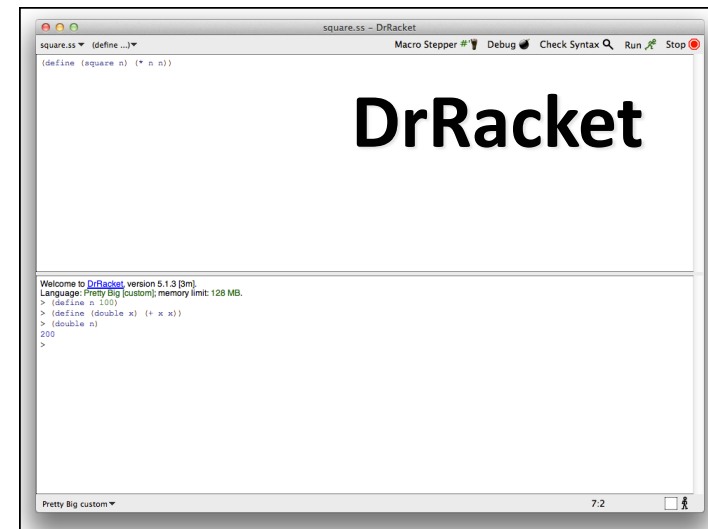
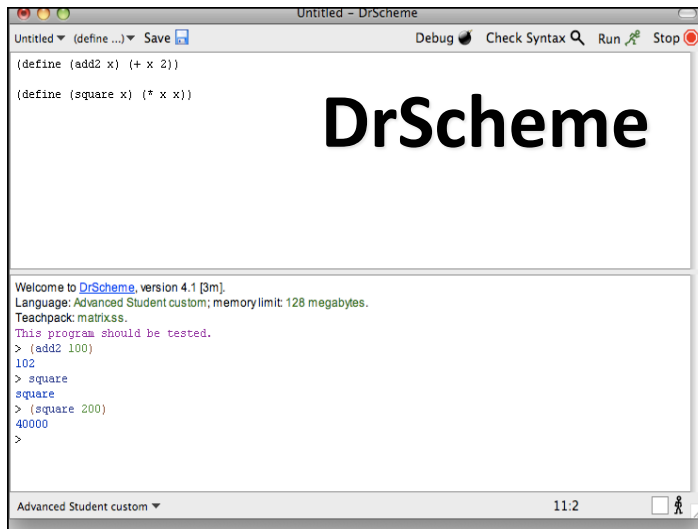
The screenshot shows a terminal window with the following content:

```
[finin@linux3 ~]$ more fact.ss
(define (fact n)
  (if (< n 2)
      1
      (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
[finin@linux3 ~]$ mzscheme
Welcome to Racket v5.1.3.
> n
reference to undefined identifier: n

=== context ===
/opt/racket/collects/racket/private/misc.rkt:85:7

> (define n 100)
> n
100
> (load "fact.ss")
> fact
#<procedure:fact>
> (define (square x) (* x x))
> (fact (square (+ n 1)))
2138320867471554275498678997525494792036170658403426629089819573728182749034569378693145499
92402611065827974596587239107592201329681091902212246167494076914149824327292270869554668711
249143161663795455091697585504128692358290237809253939958495179036496963956411139527866532
23518059677399903784095344601094859495477103616158139421640251932959198430431468487236869236
36881937001233326423837127906706340979864045199612582787914997625126908031804440163538663658
369623125377088436526475619564842906991030267158228876994938359467561088429170155772599433
21480484375284589629003460834701082416482084357623357738550841917933442802979660789670146136
4898966509549652240935538920760536424438748460171734873785421258939931211688889078784694214
```

Mzscheme
on gl.umbc.edu



Informal Scheme/Lisp Syntax

- An *atom* is either an integer or an identifier
- A *list* is a left parenthesis, followed by zero or more S-expressions, followed by a right parenthesis
- An ***S-expression*** is an atom or a list
- Example: ()
- (A (B 3) (C) (()))

Hello World

```
(define (helloWorld)
  ;; prints and returns the message.
  (printf "Hello World\n"))
```

Square

```
> (define (square n)
  ;; returns square of a numeric argument
  (* n n))
> (square 10)
100
```

REPL

- Lisp and Scheme are interactive and use what is known as the “[read, eval, print loop](#)”
- **While true**
 - **Read** one expression from the open input
 - **Evaluate** the expression
 - **Print** its returned value
- (define (repl) (print (eval (read))) (repl))

What is evaluation?

- We evaluate an expression producing a value
 - Evaluating “2 + sqrt(100)” produces 12
- Scheme has a set of rules specifying how to evaluate an s-expression
- We will get to these very soon
 - There are only a few rules
 - Creating an interpreter for scheme means writing a program to
 - read scheme expressions,
 - apply the evaluation rules, and
 - print the result

Built-in Scheme Datatypes

Basic Datatypes

- Booleans
- Numbers
- Strings
- Procedures
- Symbols
- Pairs and Lists

The Rest

- Bytes & Byte Strings
- Keywords
- Characters
- Vectors
- Hash Tables
- Boxes
- Void and Undefined

Lisp: T and NIL

- Since 1958, Lisp has used two special symbols: NIL and T
- NIL is the name of the empty list, ()
- As a boolean, NIL means “false”
- T is usually used to mean “true,” but...
- ...anything that isn't NIL is “true”
- NIL is both an atom and a list
 - it's defined this way, so just accept it

Scheme: #t, #f, and '()

- Scheme cleaned this up a bit
- Scheme's boolean datatype includes #t and #f
- #t is a special symbol that represents true
- #f represents false
- In practice, anything that's not #f is true
- Booleans evaluate to themselves
- Scheme represents empty lists as the literal ()
 - which is also the *value* of the symbol *null*
 - (define null '())

Numbers

- Numbers evaluate to themselves
- Scheme has a rich collection of number types including the following
 - Integers (42)
 - Floats (3.14)
 - Rationals: (/ 1 3) => 1/3
 - Complex numbers: (* 2+2i -2-2i) => 0-8i
 - Infinite precision integers: (expt 99 99) => 369...99
(contains 198 digits!)
 - And more...

Strings

- Strings are fixed length arrays of characters
 - "foo"
 - "foo bar\n"
 - "foo \"bar\""
- Strings are immutable
- Strings evaluate to themselves

Predicates

- A predicate (in any computer language) is a function that returns a boolean value
- In Lisp and Scheme predicates returns either `#f` or often something else that might be useful as a true value
 - The member function returns true iff it's 1st argument is in the list that is it's 2nd
 - `(member 3 (list 1 2 3 4 5 6)) => (3 4 5 6)`

Function calls and data

- A function call is written as a list
 - the first element is the name of the function
 - remaining elements are the arguments
- Example: `(F A B)`
 - calls function F with arguments A and B
- Data is written as atoms or lists
- Example: `(F A B)` is a list of three elements
 - Do you see a problem here?

Simple evaluation rules

- Numbers evaluate to themselves
- `#t` and `#f` evaluate to themselves
- Any other atoms (e.g., `foo`) represents variables and evaluate to their values
- A list of n elements represents a function call
 - e.g., `(add1 a)`
 - Evaluate each of the n elements (e.g., `add1` → a procedure, `a` → 100)
 - Apply function to arguments and return value

Example

```
(define a 100)
> a
100
> add1
#<procedure:add1>
> (add1 (add1 a))
102
> (if (> a 0) (+ a 1) (- a 1))
103
```

- *define* is a *special form* that doesn't follow the regular evaluation rules
 - Scheme only has a few of these
- Define doesn't evaluate its first argument
- *if* is another special form
 - What do you think is special about *if*?

Quoting

- Is (F A B) a call to F, or is it just data?
- All *literal data* must be quoted (atoms, too)
- (QUOTE (F A B)) is the list (F A B)
 - QUOTE is not a function, but a **special form**
 - Arguments to a special form aren't evaluated or are evaluated in some special manner
- '(F A B) is another way to quote data
 - There is just one single quote at the beginning
 - It quotes *one* S-expression

Symbols

- Symbols are atomic names
 - > 'foo
 - foo
 - > (symbol? 'foo)
 - #t
- Symbols are used as names of variables and procedures
 - (define foo 100)
 - (define (fact x) (if (= x 1) 1 (* x (fact (- x 1)))))

Basic Functions

- [car](#) returns the head of a list
 - (car '(1 2 3)) => 1
 - (first '(1 2 3)) => 1 ;; for people who don't like car
- [cdr](#) returns the tail of a list
 - (cdr '(1 2 3)) => (2 3)
 - (rest '(1 2 3)) => (2 3) ;; for people who don't like cdr
- [cons](#) constructs a new list beginning with it's first arg and continuing with it's second
 - (cons 1 '(2 3)) => (1 2 3)

CAR, CDR and CONS

- These names date back to 1958
 - Before lower case characters were invented
- CONS = CONStruct
- CAR and CDR were each implemented by a single hardware instruction on the IBM 704
 - CAR: Contents of Address Register
 - CDR: Contents of Data Register

More Basic Functions

- `eq?` compares two atoms for equality
`(eq? 'foo 'foo) => #t`
`(eq? 'foo 'bar) => #f`
 Note: `eq?` is just a pointer test, like Java's `'='`
- `equal?` tests two list structures
`(equal? '(a b c) '(a b c)) => #t`
`(equal? '(a b) '((a b))) => #f`
 Note: `equal?` compares two complex objects,
 like a Java object's `equal` method

Comment on Names

- Lisp used the convention (inconsistently) of ending *predicate* functions with a `P`
 –E.g., `MEMBERP`, `EVENP`
- Scheme uses the more sensible convention to use `?` at the end such functions
 –e.g., `eq?`, `even?`
- Even Scheme is not completely consistent in using this convention
 –E.g., the test for list membership is *member* and not *member?*

Other useful Functions

- `(null? S)` tests if `S` is the empty list
 –`(null? '(1 2 3)) => #f`
 –`(null? '()) => #t`
- `(list? S)` tests if `S` is a list
 –`(list? '(1 2 3)) => #t`
 –`(list? '3) => #f`

More useful Functions

- `list` makes a list of its arguments
 –`(list 'A '(B C) 'D) => (A (B C) D)`
 –`(list (cdr '(A B)) 'C) => ((B) C)`
- Note that the parenthesized prefix notation makes it easy to define functions that take a varying number or arguments.
 –`(list 'A) => (A)`
 –`(list) => ()`
- Lisp dialects use this flexibility a lot

More useful Functions

- append concatenates two lists
 - (append '(1 2) '(3 4)) => (1 2 3 4)
 - (append '(A B) '((X) Y)) => (A B (X) Y)
 - (append '() '(1 2 3)) => (1 2 3)
- append takes any number of arguments
 - (append '(1) '(2 3) '(4 5 6)) => (1 2 3 4 5 6)
 - (append '(1 2)) => (1 2)
 - (append) => null
 - (append null null null) => null

If then else

- In addition to cond, Lisp and Scheme have an if special form that does much the same thing
- (if <test> <then> <else>)
 - (if (< 4 6) 'foo 'bar) => foo
 - (if (< 4 2) 'foo 'bar) => bar
 - (define (min x y) (if (< x y) x y))
- In Lisp, the then clause is optional and defaults to null, but in Scheme it's required

Cond

cond (short for conditional) is a special form that implements the *if... then... elseif... then... elseif... then... control structure*

```
(COND
  (condition1 result1) a clause
  (condition2 result2)
  ...
  (#t resultN) )
```

Cond Example

(cond ((not (number? x))	(if (not (number? x))
0)	0
((< x 0) 0)	(if (< x 0)
((< x 10) x)	0
(#t 10))	(if (< x 10)
	x
	10)))

Cond is superfluous, but loved

- Any cond can be written using nested `if` expressions
- But once you get used to the full form, it's very useful
 - It subsumes the [conditional](#) and [switch](#) statements
- One example:

```
(cond ((test1 a)
      (do1 a)(do2 a)(value1 a))
      ((test2 a)))
```

• Note: If **no** clause is selected, then `cond` returns `#<void>`
 • It's as if every `cond` had a final clause like `(#t (void))`

Defining Functions

```
(DEFINE (function_name . parameter_list)
      . function_body )
```

Examples:

```
;; Square a number
```

```
(defun (square n) (* n n))
```

```
;; absolute difference between two numbers.
```

```
(define (diff x y) (if (> x y) (- x y) (- y x)))
```

Example: member

`member` is a built-in function, but here's how we'd define it

```
(define (member x lst)
  ;; x is a top-level member of a list if it is the first
  ;; element or if it is a member of the rest of the list
  (cond ((null lst) #f)
        ((equal x (car lst)) list)
        (#t (member x (cdr lst)))))
```

Example: member

- We can also define it using `if`:

```
(define (member x lst)
  (if (null> lst)
      null
      (if (equal x (car lst))
          list
          (member x (cdr lst)))))
```

- We could also define it using `not`, `and` & `or`

```
(define (member x lst)
  (and (not (null lst))
       (or (equal x (car lst))
           (member x (cdr lst)))))
```

Append concatenate lists

```
> (append '(1 2) '(a b c))
(1 2 a b c)
> (append '(1 2) '())
(1 2)
> (append '() '())
()
> (append '(1 2 3))
(1 2 3)
> (append '(1 2) '(2 3) '(4 5))
(1 2 2 3 4 5)
> (append)
()
```

- Lists are immutable
- Append constructs new lists

Example: define append

- (append '(1 2 3) '(a b)) => (1 2 3 a b)
- Here are two versions, using if and cond:

```
(define (append l1 l2)
  (if (null l1)
      l2
      (cons (car l1) (append (cdr l1) l2))))

(define (append l1 l2)
  (cond ((null l1) l2)
        (#t (cons (car l1) (append (cdr l1) l2)))))
```

Example: SETS

- Implement sets and set operations: union, intersection, difference
- Represent a set as a list and implement the operations to enforce uniqueness of membership
- Here is set-add


```
(define (set-add thing set)
  ;; returns a set formed by adding THING to set SET
  (if (member thing set) set (cons thing set)))
```

Example: SETS

- Union is only slightly more complicated


```
(define (set-union S1 S2)
  ;; returns the union of sets S1 and S2
  (if (null? S1)
      S2
      (add-set (car S1)
                (set-union (cdr S1) S2))))
```

Example: SETS

Intersection is also simple

```
(define (set-intersection S1 S2)
  ;; returns the intersection of sets S1 and S2
  (cond ((null s1) nil)
        ((member (car s1) s2)
         (set-intersection (cdr s1) s2))
        (#t (cons (car s1)
                    (set-intersection (cdr s1) s2)))))
```

Reverse

- Reverse is another common operation on Lists
 - It reverses the “top-level” elements of a list
 - Speaking more carefully, it constructs a new list equal to it's argument with the top level elements in reverse order.
 - (reverse '(a b (c d) e)) => (e (c d) b a)
- ```
(define (reverse L)
 (if (null? L)
 null
 (append (reverse (cdr L)) (list (car L)))))
```

## Reverse is Naïve

- The previous version is often called naïve reverse because it's so inefficient
- What's wrong with it?
- It has two problems
  - The kind of recursion it does grows the stack when it does not need to
  - It ends up making lots of needless copies of parts of the list

## Tail Recursive Reverse

- The way to fix the first problem is to employ tail recursion
- The way to fix the second problem is to avoid append.
- So, here is a better reverse:

```
(define (reverse2 L) (reverse-sub L null))

(define (reverse-sub L answer)
 (if (null? L)
 answer
 (reverse-sub (cdr L) (cons (car L) answer))))
```

### Still more useful functions

- (LENGTH L) returns the length of list L
  - The “length” is the number of *top-level* elements in the list
- (RANDOM N) , where N is an integer, returns a random integer  $\geq 0$  and  $< N$
- EQUAL tests if two S-expressions are equal
  - If you know both arguments are atoms, use EQ instead

### Programs on file

- Use any text editor to create your program
- Save your program on a file with the extension .ss
- (Load “foo.ss”) loads foo.ss
- (load “foo.bar”) loads foo.bar
- Each s-exprssion in the file is read and evaluated.

### Comments

- In Lisp, a comment begins with a semicolon (;) and continues to the end of the line
- Conventions for ;;; and ;; and ;
- Function document strings:
 

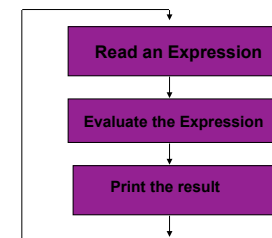
```
(defun square (x)
 “(square x) returns x*x”
 (* x x))
```

### Read – eval - print

Lisp’s interpreter essentially does:  
(loop (print (eval (read))))

i.e.,

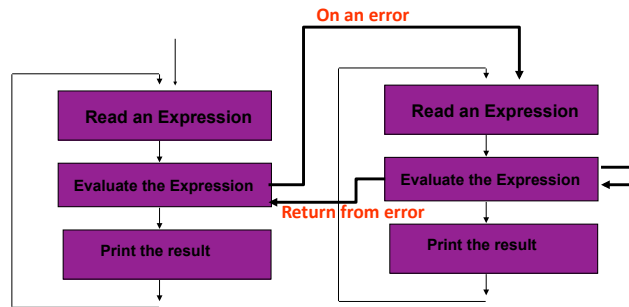
- 1.Read an expression
- 2.Evaluate it
- 3.Print the resulting value
- 4.Goto 1



Understanding the rules for evaluating an expression is key to understanding lisp.

Reading and printing, while a bit complicated, are conceptually simple.

### When an error happens



### Eval(S)

- If S is an atom, then call evalatom(A)
- If S is a list, then call evallist(S)

### EvalAtom(S)

- Numbers eval to themselves
- T evals to T
- NIL evals to NIL
- Atomic symbol are treated as variables, so look up the current value of symbol

### EvalList(S)

- Assume S is (S1 S2 ...Sn)
  - If S1 is an atom representing a special form (e.g., quote, defun) handle it as a special case
  - If S1 is an atom naming a regular function
    - Evaluate the arguments S2 S3 .. Sn
    - Apply the function named by S1 to the resulting values
  - If S1 is a list ... more on this later ...



## Variables

- Atoms, in the right context, as assumed to be variables.
- The traditional way to assign a value to an atom is with the SET function (a special form)
- More on this later

```
[9]> (set! 'a 100)
100
[10]> a
100
[11]> (set 'a (+ a a))
200
[12]> a
200
[13]> b
*** - EVAL: variable B has no value
1. Break [14]> ^D
[15]> (set 'b a)
200
[16]> b
200
[17]> (set 'a 0)
0
[18]> a
0
[19]> b
200
[20]>
```

## Input

- (read) reads and returns one s-expression from the current open input stream.

|             |             |
|-------------|-------------|
| [1]> (read) | [3]> (read) |
| foo         | 3.1415      |
| FOO         | 3.1415      |
| [2]> (read) | [4]> (read) |
| (a b        | -3.000      |
| (1 2))      | -3.0        |
| (A B (1 2)) |             |

## Output

```
[1]> (print '(foo bar))
(FOO BAR)
(FOO BAR)
[2]> (setq *print-length* 3)
3
[3]> (print '(1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8))
(1 2 3 ...)
(1 2 3 ...)
[4]> (format t "The sum of one and one is ~s.~%"
 (+ 1 1))
The sum of one and one is 2.
NIL
```

## Let

- (let <vars><s1><s2>...<sn>)
  - <vars> = (<var1>...<varn>)
  - <var1> = <name> or (<name>) or (<name> <value>)
- Creates environment with local variables v1..vn, initializes them in parallel & evaluates the <si>.
- Example:
 

```
>(let (x (y)(z (+ 1 2))) (print (list x y z)))
(NIL NIL 3)
(NIL NIL 3)
```

### Iteration - DO

```
(do ((x 1 (1+ x))
 (y 100 (1- y)))
 ((> x y)(+ x y))
 (princ "Doing ")
 (princ (list x y))
 (terpri))
```