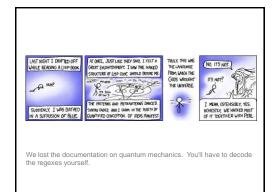
Lisp and Scheme I

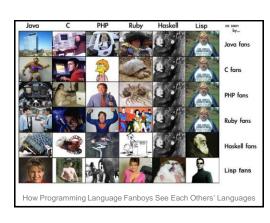
Versions of LISP

- · 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
- <u>Scheme</u> 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





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 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!

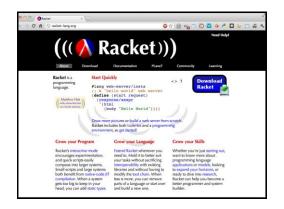


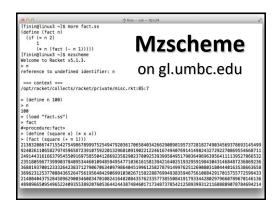
- <u>Clojure</u> is a new Lisp dialect that compiles to the Java Virtual Machine
- It offers advantages of both Lisp (dynamic typing, functional programming, closures, etc.) and Java (multi-threading, fast execution)
- We'll look at Clojure briefly later

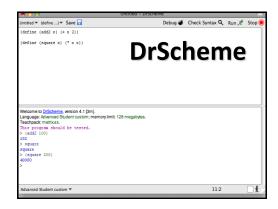
DrScheme and MzScheme

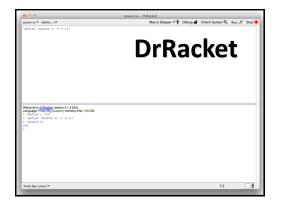


- We'll use the <u>PLT Scheme</u> system developed by a group of academics (Brown, Northeastern, Chicago, Utah)
- It's most used for teaching introductory CS courses
- MzScheme is the basic scheme engine and can be called from the command line and assumes a terminal style interface
- DrScheme is a graphical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









Informal Scheme/Lisp Syntax

- An atom can be an integer, or an identifier, or a string, or...
- 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 $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) \left(1\right)$
 - (* 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

The Rest

- Booleans
- Bytes & Byte Strings
- Numbers
- Keywords

Strings

- Characters
- Procedures
- Vectors

• Symbols

- Hash TablesBoxes
- Pairs and Lists
- 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

#rocedure: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
- \bullet $\underline{\text{cdr}}$ 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 listbeginning 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 Decrement 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 of 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 '(12)) => (12)
 - (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 else 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 ...*

```
(COND a clause

[condition1 result1]
(condition2 result2)
...
(#t resultN))
```

Cond Example

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 <u>conditional</u> and <u>switch</u> 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 (define (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

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
```

 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)
()
```

Example: define append

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

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

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))))

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))