

Using Euscheme

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0. Introduction

[Euscheme](#) is a simple [EuLisp](#) Level 0 interpreter, and is used as the language for several of the assignments in final year courses. EuLisp Level 0 is a small and compact Lisp, but nevertheless has many interesting features, such as modules, an object system, and multithreading. EuLisp Level 1 has extra features, the most notable being a full metaobject system. These are a few notes on the use of Euscheme. We assume you are already familiar with Lisp, so we concentrate on those things unique to EuLisp.

There is a basic "teach yourself Lisp" [course](#), you might like to look at: it even contains a few self assessment exercises.

1. Running Euscheme

Just type `euscheme` and that will do it. You get something like

```
EuScheme - Version 0.30s
```

```
user>
```

where the final line is the prompt. Euscheme uses the usual read-eval-print cycle of interactive Lisps: type something, it will be evaluated, and the result printed. To exit, use

```
(exit)
```

and ([usually](#)) `^D` will work, too.

2. Constants

There are the usual self-evaluating bits and pieces:

- strings: in double quotes `"hello"`
- numbers: integers and floating point `1234` and `3.1415`
- characters: preceded by `#\` as in `#\c` for the character `'c'`
- vectors: delimited by `#(` and `)` as in `#(1 a (3))` which is a vector of length 3, containing an integer, a symbol, and a list.

3. Lists and Vectors

Lists are created with the usual `cons`, `list` and quoted forms `'(1 2 3)`. Use `car` and `cdr` to access the elements.

A vector is created by the function `make-vector` as in

```
(make-vector 4)
```

which creates a vector of length 4, indexed from 0 to 3, all elements initialised to be `()`s. In fact, `make-vector` can take a second argument

```
(make-vector 4 0)
```

which creates a vector as before, with all elements initialised to 0.

To access a vector element use `(vector-ref vec index)`; to update use `((setter vector-ref) vec index newval)`. See [below](#) for details about the `setter` function.

Take care with the creation of vectors: `(make-vector 3 #(0 0 0))` will create a vector of three slots, all initialised to the *same* (`eq`) value.

4. Expressions

As is usual, anything that is not a constant is an expression to be evaluated, and those things marked by a quote are deemed to be constant. Thus

```
(+ 1 2)
```

is an expression to be evaluated, while

```
'(+ 1 2)
```

is a constant list of 3 elements (modifying constant lists has an undefined effect, so it's best not to do so). EuLisp has both `progn` to collect together several expressions into a single expression, and `let` for the declaration of local variables.

```
(progn
  expr
  expr
  ...
)
```

and

```
(let ((var val)
      (var val)
      ...)
  expr
  expr
  ...
)
```

(Semantics: evaluate all the `vals` first, then make the bindings to the corresponding `vals`. Thus the `vals` cannot refer to the `vars`. Use `let*`

```
(let* ((var1 val1)
       (var2 val2)
       ...)
  ...)
```

with semantics of evaluate `val1`, bind to `var1`, evaluate `val2`, bind to `var2`, etc., if you need to refer back to previous values.)

The values of these expressions are the values of their last `exprs`. Named `lets` and `let*s` are also supported.

Numbers have the usual syntaxes: `123`, `1.23` and `1.2e4`. Additionally, you can enter integers in base 2: `#b101010`, base 8: `#o7654`, base 16: `#x12ab`, and any other base up to 36: `#23r12gd` for a base 23 integer.

The full syntax of symbols is somewhat tricky, but "alphanumerics, starting with a letter" is certainly OK. Dodgy characters, such as space, or a leading digit can be escaped with a `\`. A multiple character escape is introduced and ended by `|`. Within the confines of these delimiters any character is fine, except that `\|` is interpreted as a literal `|`, and `\\` as a literal `\`.

All the following are the same symbol:

```
\1\ 23
|1 |23
|1 23|
|1 |2|3|
|1 |2\3
\1| |2||3
```

Their canonical form is `|1 23|`.

5. Conditionals

EuLisp has the usual `(if boolexpr trueexpr falseexpr)` (always with both `trueexpr` and `falseexpr`), and the `cond` form. The single false value in EuLisp is `()`: anything else is deemed to be true. The symbol `nil` is bound to `()`, while `t` is bound to the symbol `t`, providing a convenient canonical true value. Additional conditional forms include

```
(when boolexpr
  expr
  expr
  ...
)
```

where the `exprs` are evaluated when the condition is true; and

```
(unless boolexpr
  expr
  expr
  ...
)
```

where the `exprs` are evaluated when the condition is false.

6. Assignment

You've got `setq`. It's also good to define your global variables

```
(deflocal foo 2)
```

somewhere, too. You can omit the initial value if you want. The `deflocal` form should only be used at the top level (i.e., never inside a function definition or a `let`).

7. Defining Functions

Here we use `defun`.

```
(defun len (l)
  (if (null l)
      0
      (+ 1 (len (cdr l)))))
```

EuLisp is fully tail-recursive, so a function written in a tail-recursive way uses no stack:

```
(defun foo (n)
  (print n)
  (foo (+ n 1)))
```

will run forever.

Variable arity functions are available, too:

```
(defun bar (a b . c)
  (list a b c))
```

can take 2 or more arguments. The first two arguments are bounds to `a` and `b` as usual, the rest are made into a list which is bound to `c`. Thus `(bar 1 2 3 4 5)` prints `(1 2 (3 4 5))`, and `(bar 99 100)` prints `(99 100 ())`

8. Arithmetic

All the usual stuff here. Functions `+`, `-`, `*` and `/`, `abs`, `sin`, `exp` and so on. Use `(pow a b)` to raise `a` to power `b`. Additionally, the basic arithmetic ops have variable arity:

```
(+)          -> 0
(+ 1)        -> 1
(+ 1 2)      -> 3
(+ 1 2 3)    -> 6
(- 1)        -> -1
(* 1 2 3 4) -> 24
```

and so on.

9. Modules

Now for something a little different. The basic unit of a program in EuLisp is the *module*. Modules provide a way of fixing the global namespace pollution problem: each module has its very own namespace. A module can import names from other modules, and can export names too.

Here is a simple module:

```
(defmodule one
  (import (level0))

  (defun foo ...)
  (defun bar ...)
  (deflocal baz ...)
  ...

  (export foo baz)
)
```

The module `one` *imports* from the system module named `level0`. This module contains

all the useful stuff like `cons`, `car`, `defun`, `+` and so on. In fact, it's generally a good idea to import the `level0` module, otherwise you can't actually do anything.

In module `one` we define a few name, like `foo`, `bar` and `baz`, and `export` `foo` and `baz`. Now any module that imports `one` can access `foo` and `baz`, but `bar` is completely hidden from everyone.

If now, we have

```
(defmodule two
  (import (level0 one))

  ...
)
```

the module `two` imports `one` (and `level0`), so `two` can refer to `foo` and `baz` from `one`. If `two` uses a name `bar`, it is its own `bar`, and has nothing to do with the `bar` in `one`.

Modules in Euscheme

Euscheme requires each module to be in a file of its own: thus `one` should be in a file named `one.em` (for *EuLisp* module), and `two` in `two.em`. To enter a module, use

```
(!> one)
```

which will load `one` if it is not already loaded, and will set the current module to be `one`. This is indicated by the prompt

```
user> (!> one)
<reading one.em>
<read one.em>
<one...done>
#t
one>
```

Now the read-eval-print loop acts on bindings in the `one` module. Use `(!> user)` to switch back to the original module.

To re-load a module (after, say, changing the file) use `(!>> one)`.

10. Errors and the Debug Loop

When you make an error, EuLisp will call an *error handler*. The full use of error handlers is too tricky for an introductory set of notes, so we shall rely on the default (built-in) handler. In Euscheme an error puts the system into a simple debugging loop:

```
user> qwerty
Continuable error---calling default handler:
Condition class is #<class unbound-error>
message:      "variable unbound in module 'user'"
value:        qwerty

Debug loop. Type help: for help
Broken at #<Code #1008a768>

DEBUG>
```

There is a lot of information here, and you should look carefully at what Euscheme is telling you.

In this case, the call of error is an 'unbound-error', i.e., reference to an undefined variable. The `message` gives an English description of the error, while the `value` fills in some details, so it is the variable named `qwerty` that is at fault.

Another error:

```
user> (car 5)
Continuable error---calling default handler:
Condition class is #<class bad-type>
message:      "incorrect type in car"
value:        5
expected-type: #<class cons>
```

```
Debug loop. Type help: for help
Broken at #<Code #100820a8>
```

```
DEBUG>
```

This is a 'bad-type' error, where the function `car` was expecting a different type of argument; it got a `5`, where it was expecting something of class `cons`, i.e., some sort of list.

The prompt becomes `DEBUG>` to indicate we are in the debug loop. In this loop things act as normal, except we have some additional functions to play with. Type `help:` to get

```
Debug loop.
top:          return to top level
resume: or (resume: val) resume from error
bt:          backtrack
locals:      local variables
cond:        current condition
up: or (up: n) up one or n frames
down: or (down: n) down one or n frames
where:       current function
```

The most useful of these is `top:`, which clears up the error and returns us to the top-level read-eval-print loop; and `bt:` which gives us a backtrace, i.e., a list of the function calls and their arguments that took us to where we are now. (Note that, as EuLisp is tail recursive, Euscheme does not save all the return addresses of the functions that it travels through, so the backtrace may omit certain intermediate function calls.)

In a debug loop `^D` will act as `resume:`, which is to try to carry on from the point of error. Debug loops can be nested.

11. Classes and Generic Functions

EuLisp has a full object system. At Level 0, it is a simple, non-reflective system, comparable to C++'s class system. Every object in EuLisp has a class, which is itself a first-class object: this means that classes are supported at the same level as any other object in the system, and can be created, passed to functions, returned from functions, and so on. For example, the integer `1` has class `<integer>` (or rather, has a class with *name* `<integer>`).

In fact, Euscheme has `(class-of 1)` to be `<fpi>` (for *fixed point integer*), which is a subclass of `<integer>`.

Classes are fully-fledged objects, so they have a class, too

```
(class-of <integer>) -> #<class class>
```

the print representation of the class `<class>`. Finally, `(class-of <class>)` is `<class>` itself, or else we would need an infinite tower of classes.

To make an instance of a class, use `make`

```
(make <cons> car: 1 cdr: 2) -> (1 . 2)
```

The keywords (symbols whose names end with colons) indicate how to fill in the various slots of the instance of the class. The keywords can be in any order, and can be omitted if not necessary: though some classes have slots with *required* keywords. This means that instances of such classes *must* have certain information passed to `make` in order to succeed. Some classes are *abstract*, and you cannot make instances of them. They are there purely for other classes to inherit from. The class `<list>` is abstract, while its subclass `<cons>` is *concrete*.

It is simple to create new classes by the use of `defclass`.

```
(defclass <rat> ()
  ((num keyword: num:
      default: 0
      accessor: num)
   (den keyword: den:
      default: 1
      accessor: den))
  predicate: rat?
  constructor: (rat num: den:))
```

There are many parts to explain.

This form defines a new class named `<rat>`. Classes in EuLisp are conventionally noted by the use of angle brackets `<>`, but they are just normal names. The `()` next is the list of classes for `<rat>` to inherit from. In EuLisp Level 0, there is only single inheritance, so this should be a list of at most one class. Any empty list indicates some suitable default superclass.

Next is a list of *slot descriptions*. Each has a slot name first, then a list of *slot options*. The slot options are identified by keywords which can come in any order, and can be omitted if you don't want them.

The slot options are

- `keyword`: a keyword to use in a `make` of the class instance.
- `default`: a default value to put in the slot if a value is not passed via the keyword.
- `accessor`: a name that will be bound to functions to read and write the slot. In the above example, `num` will name a function to read the `num` slot in an instance of `<rat>`. Similarly, `(setter num)` will be a function to write to such a slot. See [setters](#).
- `reader`: a name for a slot reader.
- `writer`: a name for a slot writer.

- `requiredp:` use `requiredp: t` to indicate a required slot. This slot must have a `keyword:` keyword!

The `accessor:`, `reader:` and `writer:` options can be repeated as many times as you wish with different names.

Next come the class options. Again, in any order or omitted.

- `predicate:` a symbol to name a function that will return true on an instance of the class, and false on all other objects.
- `constructor:` a way to name a function to make an instance of the class. In this case, `rat` will name a function of two arguments that makes an instance of `<rat>`. The first argument will be given to the `num:` keyword, the second to the `den:`. This is equivalent to defining

```
(defun rat (n d)
  (make <rat> num: n den: d))
```

As usual, you can reorder or leave out bits as you feel.

- `abstractp:` `t` to indicate that this class is abstract, and no direct instances can be made.

The class options `predicate:` and `constructor:` can be repeated.

To see all the currently defined classes in Euscheme use `(class-hierarchy)`. Other useful functions include `class-superclasses`, `class-subclasses` and `class-slots`.

Generic Functions

Generic functions are (again) first-class objects in EuLisp, constructed by `defgeneric`. Methods are added to them by `defmethod` (unlike some other systems, a generic function must be created by `defgeneric` *before* `defmethod` will work.)

```
(defgeneric foo (a b))

(defmethod foo ((a <integer>) (b <integer>))
  (list 'int 'int))

(defmethod foo ((x <float>) (y <float>))
  (list 'float 'float))
```

This defines a generic of two arguments, and two methods. So

```
(foo 4 5)      -> (int int)
(foo 1.0 2.0) -> (float float)
(foo 2 2.0)   -> error, "no applicable methods"
```

The methods discriminate off all the arguments, working left to right. Adding another method

```
(defmethod foo ((n <number>) (m <number>))
  (list 'num 'num))
```

we get `(foo 2 2.0) -> (num num)`. Generally the most specific method for a given set of arguments is the method that is executed in a generic call. The next most specific method can be invoked by using `(call-next-method)` in the body of the current method.

12. Threads

EuLisp supports multiple threaded programming by supplying some basic thread primitives.

To make a thread use

```
(make-thread fn)
```

which returns a thread object (another first-class object). The `fn` is the function that the thread will start executing when it and when starts running.

A thread will not run until it is *started*

```
(thread-start thr arg arg ...)
```

This function takes a thread `thr` and starts executing the function `fn` (from `make-thread`) on the arguments `arg`. That is, it starts executing `(fn arg arg ...)`.

Or it would start executing the thread if there were enough processors to do so. As is most likely, the thread is simply marked as *ready to run* whenever the resource is available. The EuLisp model requires the programmer to write in such a manner that does not presume any particular number of processors are available. Even if there is just one processor, the program should be written to work. To aid this, there is the function

```
(thread-reschedule)
```

which will suspend the current thread, and allow another to run in its place. If there are enough processors so that all threads are running, then `thread-reschedule` could have no effect at all.

An single-threaded implementation such as Euscheme requires a sprinkling of `thread-reschedules` for a parallel program to work.

Threads are often used for their effect, but they can also return a value.

```
(thread-value thr)
```

will suspend the calling thread (and allow another to run in its place) until the thread `thr` returns a value (and returns what the `thr` returned). A thread can return a value simply by returning from its initial function (`fn`, above).

Semaphores

EuLisp provides simple binary semaphores, named *locks*, with functions `make-lock` to make one, `lock` to gain a semaphore, and `unlock` to release.

Locking a locked lock will suspend the calling thread (and allow another to run) until some other thread releases the lock.

13. Input and Output

EuLisp is still a little undecided as to how i/o is going to turn out, so for the meantime Euscheme uses Scheme's functions.

- `read` to read a Lisp expression.
- `write` output in a way that can be re-read if possible. Thus, for example, strings are quoted.
- `prin` output in a human-friendly manner. Strings and such are not quoted.

Compare

```
(print "asd")    prints: asd
(write "asd")   prints: "asd"
```

- `print` as `prin`, with a newline.
- `newline` output a newline.

All of the above take an optional extra argument, which is a stream to print on. This defaults to the standard output.

For stream manipulation:

- `open-input-file` takes a string, and opens and returns a corresponding stream for input. Returns `()` if not such file exists.
- `open-output-file` creates a file if it didn't already exist.
- `open-update-file` opens for append.
- `get-file-position` and `(setter get-file-position)` move the file pointer in a file opened for update.
- `close-port` closes an open stream.

Format

A more complicated printing function is `format`, which is somewhat akin to C's `printf`.

```
(format stream format-string arg arg ...)
```

If `stream` is `t`, `format` prints to the standard output. If `stream` is `()`, `format` returns the formatted output as a string. Otherwise `stream` is a file stream.

The format string is copied to the output, except that `~` marks an escape (like C's `%`):

- `~a` output the next arg using `prin`
- `~s` output the next arg using `write`
- `~%` output a newline
- `~~` output a `~`
- `~c` output a character
- `~d` output an integer
- `~e ~f, ~g` floating point formats
- `~t` output a tab

There are other escapes to write integers in other bases, output new pages, and so on.

14. Macros

EuLisp employs the usual backquoted template style of macros.

```
(defmacro first (x)
  `(car ,x))
```

Note that a macro cannot be used in the module where it is defined: a module must be fully macroexpanded before it can be compiled. If you don't know what is and what isn't a macro beforehand, it is very difficult to do this. Thus a module containing

```
(defmacro second (x)
  `(cadr ,x))

(defun foo (x) (+ 1 (second x)))
```

is doomed to failure by this restriction.

There is a wrinkle in the way that macros interact with modules: suppose a macro expands into something that refers to bindings that are not imported into the current module?

```
(defmodule one
  (import (level0))

  (defmacro foo (x)
    `(car (bar ,x)))

  (defun bar (a) ...)

  (export foo)
)
```

Here the module `one` exports `foo` only, but `foo` expands into a reference to `bar`.

```
(defmodule two
  (import (level0))

  ...
  (foo 4)
  ...
)
```

In the macroexpansion of module `two`, a reference to `bar` would appear, but `bar` is not defined in `two`. Worse, maybe `bar` *was* defined in `two`: which `bar` does the macroexpanded form refer to? The `bar` from `one` or the `bar` from `two`?

The answer is "the right `bar`", that is that `bar` in the module of macro definition, not the `bar` in the module of macro use. Euscheme takes care of all of this transparently for you: essentially every symbol remembers which module it was defined in, and always refers back to that module for its value.

This provides a simple solution to the "macro hygiene" problem that has always plagued Lisp macros.

Sometimes you *do* want a symbol to be captured in the module of use: Euscheme provides a facility to allow you to do this.

```
(defmacro while (test . body)
  `(let/cc {break}
    (labels
```

```
((loop ()
  (when ,test
    ,@body
    (loop))))
(loop))
```

The symbol `loop` cannot be captured by the code in `body`, while the symbol `break` is intended to be captured. The curly braces about the symbol indicates that it is to be interpreted as coming from the module of use, *not* the module of definition. Thus, a reference to `break` in the `body` will refer to the binding in the `let/cc`.

Notice that `(eq 'break '{break}) -> t`. As symbols they are `eq`, but as identifiers they are quite different.

15. Miscellany

Comparisons

EuLisp has the usual tests for equality:

- `eq` for identity
- `eq1` for identity, but will also work for integers and characters
- `equal` for recursive equality
- `=` for numbers

Note that

```
(equal 1 1.0) -> ()
(= 1 1.0)     -> t
```

There is also the usual `<`, `<=`, `>`, `>=`, which are n-ary:

```
(< a b c ...)
```

returns `t` when `a`, `b`, `c`, etc., form a strictly increasing sequence. Similarly `<=` for a non-decreasing sequence, and so on.

Generic Arithmetic

The arithmetic operators `+` and so on are all n-ary, i.e., take a variable number of arguments. Each operator is defined in terms of a binary generic function: `binary+` for `+`, `binary*` for `*`, etc. The n-ary form is just a repeated application of the binary form

```
(+ a b c ...) = (...(binary+ (binary+ a b) c) ...)
```

Methods can be added to the binary operators

```
(defmethod binary+ ((a <symbol>) (b <symbol>))
  ...)
```

and then you can use `+` to add symbols: `(+ 'a 'b 'c)`.

There are also generic functions `unary-` and `unary/` for the unary `(- x)` and `(/ x)` (reciprocal).

Similarly, the comparators `<`, `>`, `<=` etc., are all defined in terms of the two generic

functions `binary<` and `binary=`.

Local Functions

Just like `let` introduces local variables, the `labels` form can introduce local functions.

```
(labels
  ((foo (a b)
        ... (bar a) ... )
    (bar (x)
        ... (foo x (bar x)) ... ))
  ...
  (foo 3 4)
  ...
)
```

The `labels` takes a list of function definitions. They may be self and mutually recursive. These functions may be used within the body of the `labels` just like global functions. Iterating functions are often most conveniently written in terms of `labels` as the bodies of the function definitions can refer to local variables:

```
(let ((a 1))
  (labels
    ((addit (x)
      (if (null x)
          ()
          (cons (+ a (car x)) (addit (cdr x))))))
    (addit '(1 2 3))))
->
(2 3 4)
```

Mapping and Collections

There are several functions supplied to iterate along collections. Collections include lists, vectors, strings, and [tables](#).

The generic function `map` takes a function and a collection

```
(map list '(1 2 3))  -> ((1) (2) (3))
(map - #(4 5 6))    -> #(-4 -5 -6)
```

or more than one collection

```
(map cons '(a b c) '(A B C))  -> ((a . A) (b . B) (c . C))
(map + #(1 2 3) #(10 10 10 10)) -> #(11 12 13)
```

The mapping stops when any collection runs out. Even a mixture will work

```
(map * '(2 4 6) #(1 -1 1)) -> (2 -4 6)
(map * #(2 4 6) '(1 -1 1)) -> #(2 -4 6)
```

The type of collection returned is the same as the first collection argument.

If you don't need a return value, but are iterating purely for effect, use `do`

```
(do print '(1 2 3))
```

Other iterators include `accumulate`

```
(accumulate list () #(a b c))  -> (((()) a) b) c)
```

```
(accumulate * 1 '(1 2 3 4 5 6 7)) -> 5040
```

which takes a function, an initial value, and a collection to iterate over.

You can find the size of any collection using the function `size`. This returns the length of a list of string, number of elements of a vector, and so on. It can be reversed by `reverse`; an element removed by `remove` (non-destructive) or by `delete` (destructive); find an element by `(member elt collection)`. The last three (`remove`, `delete` and `member`) take an optional last argument that is a test for equality: it is this test that is used when looking for an element in the collection. It defaults to `eq`.

The function `concatenate` can be used to join collections:

```
(concatenate '(1 2 3) '(4 5 6)) -> (1 2 3 4 5 6)
(concatenate "abc" "def")       -> "abcdef"
(concatenate '(1 2 3) #(4 5 6)) -> (1 2 3 4 5 6)
```

Loops

EuLisp doesn't really need loops, as everything can be written easily in terms of tail recursive functions. However, Euscheme sneaks in a `while` loop:

```
(while bool
  expr
  expr
  ...
)
```

which loops while the `bool` returns true.

Tables

EuLisp uses tables for a general association mechanism. Euscheme implements tables as hash tables, but in general they could be implemented differently.

- `make-table` returns a table.
- `(table-ref table key)` to retrieve a value, `((setter table-ref) table key value)` to update.
- `(table-delete key)` to remove a value.
- `table-keys` to get a list of current keys.
- `table-values` to get a list of current values.
- `table-clear` to completely empty a table.

When looking for a match to a key in a table, the system defaults to `eq`. You can change this by using `(make-table comparator)`, where `comparator` is `eq` or `eq` or `equal` or `=`.

If a value is not found for a particular key in the table `()` is returned. This can be changed by `(make-table comparator fill-value)`. Now `fill-value` will be returned on failure.

The mapping functions [above](#) work on tables, too.

Non-local exits

EuLisp supports a limited form of continuation capture via `let/cc`. This form captures

its continuation, and allows its use as a non-local exit.

```
(let/cc out
  ...
  (out)
  ...
)
;; after
```

This stores the continuation (i.e., from 'after') in the variable `out`. This can be called as a function, whereupon control passes immediately to that continuation. The value of `out` can only be used in this way in the dynamic scope of the `let/cc` form: outside the value is 'dead' and no longer usable.

The continuation function can take a single optional argument which is a value to pass to the continuation: the default is `()`.

The forms `block` and `return-from` are simply `let/cc` and a call to a continuation:

```
(block foo
  ...
  (return-from foo)
  ...
)
```

The `unwind-protect` form ensures things are executed even if there is a non-local exit

```
(unwind-protect
  protected-form
  after-form
  after-form
  ...)
```

This starts by executing the `protected-form`. If there is no unusual exit from the `protected-form`, this will then execute the `after-forms` and will return whatever value the `protected-form` returned. If there is a non-local exit from the `protected-form` to a continuation outside the `unwind-protect`, the `after-forms` will *still* be executed before the control passes to the continuation.

Setters

Structures, like lists, vectors and class instances have elements that can be accessed. The elements of a vector can be read by `vector-ref`. To write to an element use the function `(setter vector-ref)`,

```
((setter vector-ref) vec index val)
```

Similarly, the accessor `car` has an updater `(setter car)` (often called `rplaca` in other Lisps), and so on. In general a reader function `r` will have an associated updater `(setter r)`.

The function `setter` is a simple association mechanism: `setter` is a function that takes a reader and returns the associated writer. To make such an association between functions `r` and `w` just use `setter` again

```
((setter setter) r w)
```

In fact, no particular properties of `r` and `w`, are used, so this can be used as a general facility. Further, `setter` functions, generic functions and methods can be defined directly:

```
(defun (setter foo) (a b)
  ...)
```

Convert

The function `convert` is used to change an object of one type into an object of another type. Thus to convert an integer to a float

```
(convert 1 <float>) -> 1.0
```

or the other way

```
(convert 2.6 <integer>) -> 2
```

Many other conversions are available: integer to string; character to string; string to number; symbol to string; list to vector; and so on.

Copying

There are two functions that copy structures: `deep-copy` and `shallow-copy`. The second recursively descends a structure making copies of all the elements in the structure; the first makes a single copy of the top-level structure, and fills its slots with the existing elements:

```
(setq a '((1 2) (3 4)))
(setq d (deep-copy a))
(eq a d)           -> ()
(equal a d)        -> t
(eq (car a) (car d)) -> ()
```

```
(setq s (shallow-copy a))
(eq a s)           -> ()
(equal a s)        -> t
(eq (car a) (car s)) -> t
```

Other Tools

Other tools that Euscheme provides:

- `describe` gives a little information about an object, e.g., `(describe <integer>)` or `(describe 4)`
- `trace` can be used to print a message every time a function is entered or exited. Thus

```
(trace foo)
```

will describe the ins and outs of the function `foo`. To untrace, use `(untrace foo)`.

Use `(import "trace")` to load `trace`.

16. Euscheme Modules

Euscheme provides a few sample modules.

Trace

```
(import "trace")
```

The `trace` module has been mentioned [above](#).

Linda

```
(import "eulinda")
```

The `eulinda` module implements the Linda pool mechanism.

- `make-linda-pool` returns a new pool
- `(linda-out pool tag val val ...)` writes the tuple `(val val ...)` under the tag to the pool
- `(linda-in pool tag pat pat ...)` attempts to read a tuple matching the pattern `(pat pat ...)` from the pool. If no matching tuple exists in the pool, the call will block until such a tuple appears. When found, the tuple is removed from the pool. A pattern is
 - a literal value, to be matched exactly
 - `(? var)` to match any value, and assign the matched value to the variable
 - `?` to match any value, and to discard the result.
- `linda-read` as `linda-in` but does not remove the tuple from the pool
- `(linda-eval fun arg arg ...)` starts a new thread, running the function with the arguments.

Debugging tools are `print-linda-pool` to print the current values in a pool, and `(tril t)` to print some trace information as the system is running.

The `tag` must be a symbol or number.

Modular Numbers

```
(import "modular")
```

The module `modular` is a simple implementation of modular integers. The function `mod` constructs a modular number

```
(setq a (mod 3 5))  -> #<3 mod 5>
(setq b (+ a a))    -> #<1 mod 5>
(/ a)              -> #<2 mod 5>
```

Scheme

```
(import "scheme")
```

This module, `scheme`, provides a mostly-conformant Scheme environment. It is probably not wise to mix Scheme constructs, such as `call/cc`, with EuLisp constructs, such as `threads`.

Paralation Lisp

```
(import "tpl")
```

This emulates a paralation system. The module `tpl` (for *tiny paralation lisp*) exports

- `(make-paralation n)` to make a new paralation of size `n`. This returns a index field of the new paralation.
- `elwise` is the element-wise operator:

```
(elwise (a b) (+ a b))
```

where `a` and `b` are fields on the same paralation.

- `(match field field)` to create a map between fields, and
- `(move field map combine default)` to move a `field` down a `map`, using `combine`, (a function taking an appropriate number of arguments) to combine elements that end up at the same element of the target field, and `default` as the default value for a field element that is not in the image of the map.

Values

```
(import "values")
```

This is an emulation of Scheme and Common Lisp's multiple values. The module `values` exports

- `(values val val ...)` as the basic multiple value return
- `call-with-values` for the Scheme-like values:

```
(call-with-values
  (lambda () ...)           ; a thunk returning values
  (lambda (a b c ...) ...)  ; that are passed here, bound
                             ; to a, b, etc.
```

- `multiple-value-setq`; `multiple-value-list`; `multiple-value-call`; `values-list`; `multiple-value-bind` are all as in Common Lisp.

If you pass multiple values to a continuation that only expects a single value you will probably get strange results.

Sort

```
(import "sort")
```

A fast stable merge sort. The module `sort` exports `sort` (non-destructive) and `sort!` (destructive). They are called as `(sort l)`, where `l` is a list of values to be sorted. The comparison operator used is `<`. Alternatively, you can use `(sort l comp)`, where `comp` is a comparator function.

17. Euscheme functions

Here is a summary of the functions available in Euscheme. Not all of these correspond to EuLisp.

```
;; specials
quote
lambda
delay
let
let*
setq
if
cond
progn
and
or
let/cc
while
block
return-from
labels
when
unless
export
expose
enter-module
!>
reenter-module
!>>
call-next-method
next-method-p
import
generic-lambda
method-lambda

;; defining forms
defun
defgeneric
defmethod
deflocal
defconstant
defmodule
defmacro

;; list functions
cons
car
cdr
caar
cadr
cdar
cddr
caaar
caadr
cadar
caddr
cdaar
cdadr
cddar
cdddr
caaaar
caaadr
caadar
caaddr
cadaar
cadadr
caddar
cadddr
cdaaar
```

```
cdaadr
cdadar
cdaddr
cddaar
cddadr
cdddar
cddddr
list
list*
append
last-pair
length
memv
memq
assv
assq
list-ref
list-tail

;; symbol functions
bound?
symbol-value
symbol-plist
gensym
get
put

;; vector functions
vector
make-vector
vector-length
vector-ref

;; predicates
null
atom
listp
numberp
booleanp
consp
symbolp
keywordp
complexp
floatp
double-float-p
rationalp
integerp
charp
stringp
vectorp
functionp
portp
input-port-p
output-port-p
objectp
eof-object-p
default-object-p
eq
eql
equal

;; arithmetic functions
+
-
*
```

```
/
%
zerop
positivep
negativep
oddp
evenp
truncate
floor
ceiling
round
random
quotient
remainder
sin
cos
tan
asin
acos
atan
exp
sqrt
log

;; bitwise logical functions
logand
logior
logxor
lognot

;; string functions
make-string
string-length
string-null?
string-append
string-ref
substring

;; i/o functions
read
read-char
read-byte
read-short
read-long
write
write-char
write-byte
write-short
write-long
prin
print
newline
char-ready-p
peek-char
format

;; print control functions
print-breadth
print-depth

;; file i/o functions
open-input-file
open-output-file
open-append-file
open-update-file
```

```
close-port
close-input-port
close-output-port
get-file-position
unlink
current-input-port
current-output-port

;; utility functions
transcript-on
transcript-off
getarg
prompt?
exit
compile
decompile
gc
save
restore

;; debugging functions
trace-on
trace-off

;; module functions
module-symbols
module-exports
symbol-module
current-module
module-list
unintern

;; telos
allocate
describe
classp
subclassp

;; tables
make-table
table-ref
table-comparator
table-delete
table-length
table-keys
table-values
table-fill
table-clear

;; plus some others
binary
text
not
prin1
princ
t
nil
eval                ; no guarantees this one will work
else
system
getenv
putenv
tmpfile
current-time
ticks-per-second
```

```
backtrace
backtracep

;; threads
<thread>
<simple-thread>
make-thread
threadp
thread-reschedule
current-thread
thread-kill
thread-queue
current-thread
thread-start
thread-value
thread-state
<thread-condition>
<thread-error>
<thread-already-started>

<lock>
<simple-lock>
make-lock
lockp
lock
unlock
<lock-condition>
<lock-error>

wait
<wait-condition>
<wait-error>

;; errors and handlers
with-handler
unwind-protect
<wrong-condition-class>
signal
error
cerror

;; classes
<object>
<class>
<simple-class>
<list>
<cons>
<null>
<number>
<integer>
<fpi>
<float>
<double-float>
<symbol>
<keyword>
<string>
<simple-string>
<port>
<input-port>
<output-port>
<i/o-port>
<vector>
<simple-vector>
<char>
<simple-char>
```

```
<promise>
<table>
<hash-table>
<function>
<simple-function>
<subr>
<continuation>
<generic>
<simple-generic>
<method>
<simple-method>
<slot>
<local-slot>
<structure>

generic-prin
generic-write
wait

make
initialize
class-hierarchy

;; setter
setter

;; converter
converter
convert
<conversion-condition>
<no-converter>

;; condition classes
defcondition
conditionp
condition-message
condition-value
<condition>
<telos-condition>
<telos-error>
<telos-general-error>
<telos-bad-ref>
<no-applicable-method>
<no-next-method>
<incompatible-method-domain>
<arithmetic-condition>
<arithmetic-error>
<error>
<general-error>
<bad-type>
<unbound-error>
<compilation-error>
<macro-error>
<syntax-error>
<user-interrupt>

;; generic arithmetic
binary+
binary-
unary-
binary*
binary/
unary/
binary%
binary-gcd
```



```
gcd
abs
pow

;; comparisons
equal
binary<
binary=
<
=
>
<=
>=
max
min
assoc

;; macros
defmacro
quasiquote
unquote
unquote-splicing
symbol-macro
macroexpand
macroexpand1
syntax

;; collections and sequences
<collection-condition>
<collection-error>
collectionp
sequencep
accumulate
accumulate1
allp
anyp
concatenate
delete
do
element
empty?
fill
map
member
remove
reverse
size

;; copying
deep-copy
shallow-copy

;; telos introspection
class-of
class-name
class-superclasses
class-precedence-list
class-slots
class-keywords
class-subclasses
class-instance-size
class-abstract-p
generic-name
generic-args
generic-optargs?
```

```

generic-methods
generic-cache1
generic-cache2
method-generic
method-function
method-domain
add-method
slot-name
slot-keyword
slot-default
slot-required-p

;; other functions
apply
map-list
load
load-noisily
force

```

18. Command Line Arguments

The Euscheme interpreter accepts a few arguments:

- `-t` enable trace debugging
- `-n` do not load an image
- `-q` do not print results in the read-eval-print loop
- `-f` see [below](#)
- `-s` disable the `system` function

Other arguments are passed to the interpreter and are available as `(getarg 0)` (the name of the program), `(getarg 1)` (first argument), `(getarg 2)` (second argument), and so on. The function `getarg` returns `()` for a non-existent argument.

Shell Scripts

Euscheme can be used in a shell script by means of the `-f` flag:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/euscheme -f

(print "hello world")
```

It is usual to use the `-q` flag to prevent the echo from the read-eval-print loop, and the `-s` flag to prevent the use of the `system` function.

```
#!/usr/local/bin/euscheme -fq

(print "hello world")
```

[Here](#) is the latest version of these notes.