

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

Programming Languages

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Datatype-Programming in Racket Without Structs

Life without datatypes

Racket has nothing like a datatype binding for one-of types

No need in a dynamically typed language:

- Can just mix values of different types and use primitives like **number?**, **string?**, **pair?**, etc. to “see what you have”
- Can use cons cells to build up any kind of data

This segment: Coding up datatypes with what we already know

Next segment: Better approach for the same thing with structs

- Contrast helps explain advantages of structs

Mixed collections

In ML, cannot have a list of “ints or strings,” so use a datatype:

```
datatype int_or_string = I of int | S of string

fun funny_sum xs = (* int_or_string list -> int *)
  case xs of
    [] => 0
  | (I i) :: xs' => i + funny_sum xs'
  | (S s) :: xs' => String.size s + funny_sum xs'
```

In Racket, dynamic typing makes this natural without explicit tags

- Instead, every value has a tag with primitives to check it
- So just check car of list with **number?** or **string?**

Recursive structures

More interesting datatype-programming we know:

```
datatype exp = Const of int
             | Negate of exp
             | Add of exp * exp
             | Multiply of exp * exp
```

```
fun eval_exp e =
  case e of
    Constant i => i
  | Negate e2 => ~ (eval_exp e2)
  | Add(e1,e2) => (eval_exp e1) + (eval_exp e2)
  | Multiply(e1,e2) => (eval_exp e1) * (eval_exp e2)
```

Change how we do this

- Previous version of `eval_exp` has type `exp -> int`
- From now on will write such functions with type `exp -> exp`
- Why? Because will be interpreting languages with multiple kinds of results (ints, pairs, functions, ...)
 - Even though much more complicated for example so far
- How? [See the ML code file:](#)
 - Base case returns entire expression, e.g., `(Const 17)`
 - Recursive cases:
 - Check variant (e.g., make sure a `Const`)
 - Extract data (e.g., the number under the `Const`)
 - Also return an `exp` (e.g., create a new `Const`)

New way in Racket

See the Racket code file for coding up the same new kind of “**exp** \rightarrow **exp**” *interpreter*

- Using lists where car of list encodes “what kind of exp”

Key points:

- Define our own constructor, test-variant, extract-data functions
 - Just better style than hard-to-read uses of **car**, **cdr**
- Same recursive structure without pattern-matching
- With no type system, no notion of “what is an exp” except in documentation
 - But if we use the helper functions correctly, then okay
 - Could add more explicit error-checking if desired

Optional: Symbols

Will not focus on Racket *symbols* like `'foo`, but in brief:

- Syntactically start with quote character
- Like strings, can be almost any character sequence
- Unlike strings, compare two symbols with `eq?` which is fast

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Datatype-Programming in Racket With Structs

New feature

```
(struct foo (bar baz quux) #:transparent)
```

Defines a new kind of thing and introduces several new functions:

- `(foo e1 e2 e3)` returns “a foo” with `bar`, `baz`, `quux` fields holding results of evaluating `e1`, `e2`, and `e3`
- `(foo? e)` evaluates `e` and returns `#t` if and only if the result is something that was made with the `foo` function
- `(foo-bar e)` evaluates `e`. If result was made with the `foo` function, return the contents of the `bar` field, else an error
- `(foo-baz e)` evaluates `e`. If result was made with the `foo` function, return the contents of the `baz` field, else an error
- `(foo-quux e)` evaluates `e`. If result was made with the `foo` function, return the contents of the `quux` field, else an error

An idiom

```
(struct const (int) #:transparent)
(struct negate (e) #:transparent)
(struct add (e1 e2) #:transparent)
(struct multiply (e1 e2) #:transparent)
```

For “datatypes” like `exp`, create one struct for each “kind of exp”

- structs are like ML constructors!
- But provide constructor, tester, and extractor functions
 - Instead of patterns
 - E.g., `const`, `const?`, `const-int`
- Dynamic typing means “these are the kinds of exp” is “in comments” rather than a *type system*
- Dynamic typing means “types” of fields are also “in comments”

All we need

These structs are all we need to:

- Build trees representing expressions, e.g.,

```
(multiply (negate (add (const 2) (const 2)))  
          (const 7))
```

- Build our `eval-exp` function (see code):

```
(define (eval-exp e)  
  (cond [(const? e) e]  
        [(negate? e)  
         (const (- (const-int  
                    (eval-exp (negate-e e)))))]  
        [(add? e) ...]  
        [(multiply? e) ...]...)
```

Attributes

- **`#:transparent`** is an optional attribute on struct definitions
 - For us, prints struct values in the REPL rather than hiding them, which is convenient for debugging homework

- **`#:mutable`** is another optional attribute on struct definitions
 - Provides more functions, for example:

```
(struct card (suit rank) #:transparent #:mutable)  
; also defines set-card-suit!, set-card-rank!
```

- Can decide if each struct supports mutation, with usual advantages and disadvantages
 - As expected, we will avoid this attribute
- `mcons` is just a predefined mutable struct

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Advantages of Structs

Contrasting Approaches

```
(struct add (e1 e2) #:transparent)
```

Versus

```
(define (add e1 e2) (list 'add e1 e2))  
(define (add? e) (eq? (car e) 'add))  
(define (add-e1 e) (car (cdr e)))  
(define (add-e2 e) (car (cdr (cdr e))))
```

This is *not* a case of syntactic sugar

The key difference

```
(struct add (e1 e2) #:transparent)
```

- The result of calling `(add x y)` is *not* a list
 - And there is no list for which `add?` returns `#t`
- `struct` makes a new kind of thing: extending Racket with a new kind of data
- So calling `car`, `cdr`, or `mult-e1` on “an add” is a run-time error

List approach is error-prone

```
(define (add e1 e2) (list 'add e1 e2))  
(define (add? e) (eq? (car e) 'add))  
(define (add-e1 e) (car (cdr e)))  
(define (add-e2 e) (car (cdr (cdr e))))
```

- Can break abstraction by using `car`, `cdr`, and list-library functions directly on “add expressions”
 - Silent likely error:

```
(define xs (list (add (const 1) (const 4)) ...))  
(car (car xs))
```
- Can make data that `add?` wrongly answers `#t` to

```
(cons 'add "I am not an add")
```


Summary of advantages

Struct approach:

- Is better style and more concise for *defining* data types
- Is about equally convenient for *using* data types
- But much better at timely errors when *misusing* data types
 - Cannot accessor functions on wrong kind of data
 - Cannot confuse tester functions

More with abstraction

Struct approach is even better combined with other Racket features not discussed here:

- The *module system* lets us hide the constructor function to enforce invariants
 - List-approach cannot hide cons from clients
 - Dynamically-typed languages can have abstract types by letting modules define new types!
- The *contract system* lets us check invariants even if constructor is exposed
 - For example, fields of “an add” must also be “expressions”

Struct is special

Often we end up learning that some convenient feature could be coded up with other features

Not so with struct definitions:

- A function cannot introduce multiple bindings
- Neither functions nor macros can create a new kind of data
 - Result of constructor function returns **#f** for *every* other tester function: **number?**, **pair?**, other structs' tester functions, etc.

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Implementing Programming Languages

Typical workflow

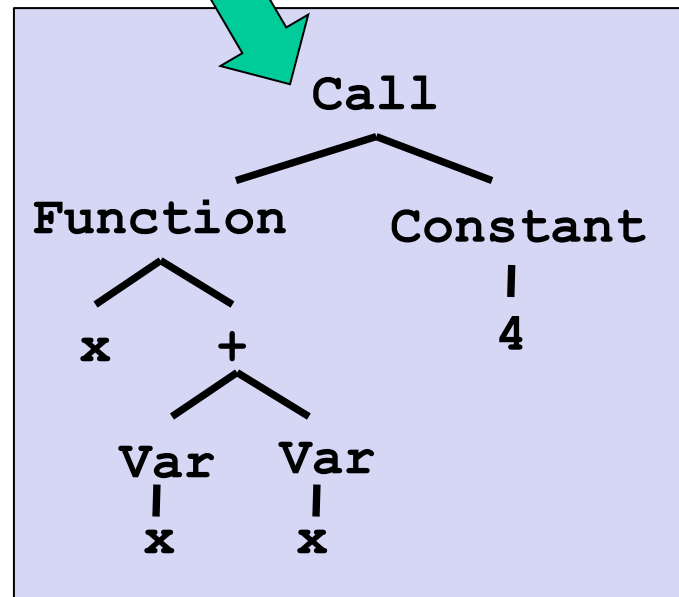
concrete syntax (string)

```
"(fn x => x + x) 4"
```

**Possible
errors /
warnings**

Parsing

abstract syntax (tree)



**Possible
errors /
warnings**

Type checking?

Rest of implementation

Interpreter or compiler

So “rest of implementation” takes the abstract syntax tree (AST) and “runs the program” to produce a result

Fundamentally, two approaches to implement a PL B :

- Write an **interpreter** in another language A
 - Better names: evaluator, executor
 - Take a program in B and produce an answer (in B)
- Write a **compiler** in another language A to a third language C
 - Better name: translator
 - Translation must *preserve meaning* (equivalence)

We call A the **metalanguage**

- Crucial to keep A and B straight

Reality more complicated

Evaluation (interpreter) and translation (compiler) are your options

- But in modern practice have both and multiple layers

A plausible example:

- Java compiler to bytecode intermediate language
- Have an interpreter for bytecode (itself in binary), but compile frequent functions to binary at run-time
- The chip is itself an interpreter for binary
 - Well, except these days the x86 has a translator in hardware to more primitive micro-operations it then executes

Racket uses a similar mix

Sermon

Interpreter versus compiler versus combinations is about a particular language **implementation**, not the language **definition**

So there is no such thing as a “compiled language” or an “interpreted language”

- Programs cannot “see” how the implementation works

Unfortunately, you often hear such phrases

- “C is faster because it’s compiled and LISP is interpreted”
- This is nonsense; politely correct people
- (Admittedly, languages with “eval” must “ship with some implementation of the language” in each program)

Typical workflow

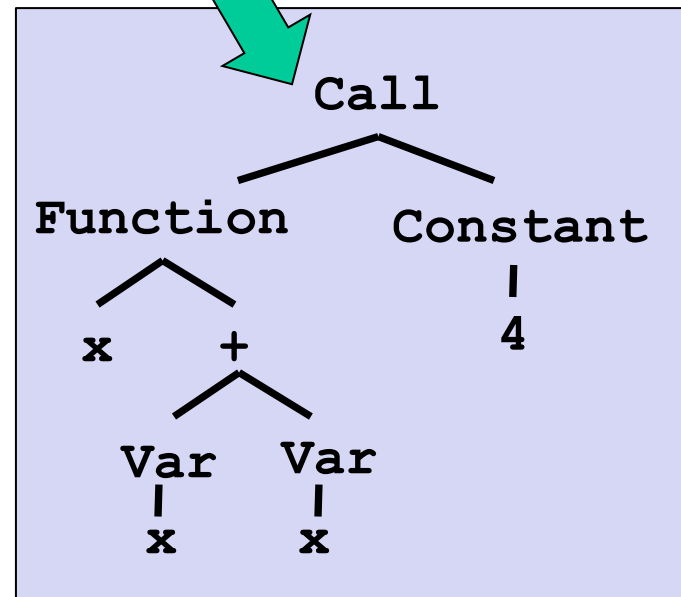
concrete syntax (string)

```
"(fn x => x + x) 7"
```

**Possible
errors /
warnings**

Parsing

abstract syntax (tree)



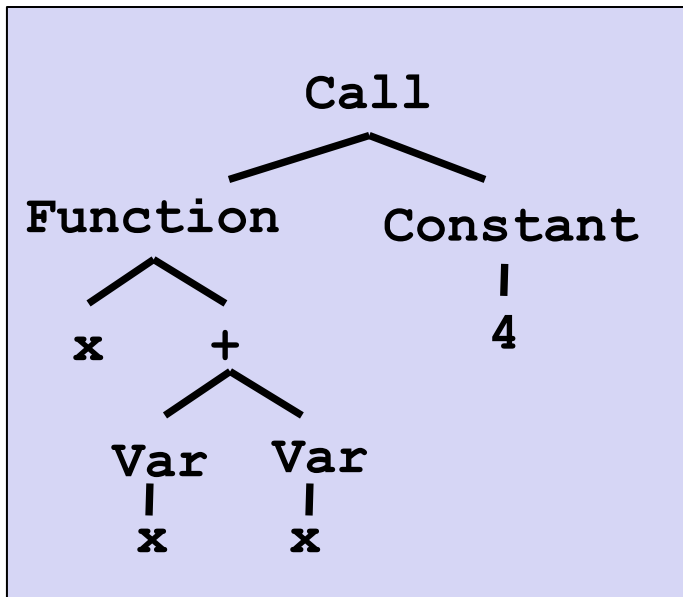
**Possible
errors /
warnings**

Type checking?

Interpreter or translator

Skipping parsing

- If implementing PL *B* in PL *A*, we can **skip parsing**
 - Have *B* programmers write ASTs directly in PL *A*
 - Not so bad with ML constructors or Racket structs
 - Embeds *B* programs as trees in *A*



```
; define B's abstract syntax  
(struct call ...)  
(struct function ...)  
(struct var ...)  
...
```

```
; example B program  
(call (function (list "x")  
      (add (var "x")  
          (var "x"))))  
(const 4))
```

Already did an example!

- Let the metalanguage A = Racket
- Let the language-implemented B = “*Arithmetic Language*”
- Arithmetic programs written with calls to Racket constructors
- The interpreter is **eval-exp**

```
(struct const (int) #:transparent)
(struct negate (e) #:transparent)
(struct add (e1 e2) #:transparent)
(struct multiply (e1 e2) #:transparent)
```

```
(define (eval-exp e)
  (cond [(const? e) e]
        [(negate? e)
         (const (- (const-int
                     (eval-exp (negate-e e)))))]
        [(add? e) ...]
        [(multiply? e) ...]...)
```

*Racket data structure is
Arithmetic Language
program, which eval-
exp runs*

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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What Your Interpreter Can and Cannot Assume

What we know

- Define (abstract) syntax of language B with Racket structs
 - B called MUPL in homework
- Write B programs directly in Racket via constructors
- Implement interpreter for B as a (recursive) Racket function

Now, a subtle-but-important distinction:

- Interpreter can *assume* input is a “legal AST for B”
 - Okay to give wrong answer or inscrutable error otherwise
- Interpreter *must check* that recursive results are the right kind of *value*
 - Give a good error message otherwise

Legal ASTs

- “Trees the interpreter must handle” are a subset of all the trees Racket allows as a dynamically typed language

```
(struct const (int) #:transparent)
(struct negate (e) #:transparent)
(struct add (e1 e2) #:transparent)
(struct multiply (e1 e2) #:transparent)
```

- Can assume “right types” for struct fields
 - **const** holds a number
 - **negate** holds a legal AST
 - **add** and **multiply** hold 2 legal ASTs
- Illegal ASTs can “crash the interpreter” – *this is fine*

```
(multiply (add (const 3) "uh-oh") (const 4))
(negate -7)
```

Interpreter results

- Our interpreters return expressions, but not any expressions
 - Result should always be a *value*, a kind of expression that evaluates to itself
 - If not, the interpreter has a bug
- So far, only values are from **const**, e.g., (**const** 17)
- But a larger language has more values than just numbers
 - Booleans, strings, etc.
 - Pairs of values (definition of value recursive)
 - Closures
 - ...

Example

See code for language that adds booleans, number-comparison, and conditionals:

```
(struct bool (b) #:transparent)
(struct eq-num (e1 e2) #:transparent)
(struct if-then-else (e1 e2 e3) #:transparent)
```

What if the program is a legal AST, but evaluation of it tries to use the wrong kind of value?

- For example, “add a boolean”
- You should detect this and give an error message not in terms of the interpreter implementation
- Means checking a recursive result whenever a particular kind of value is needed
 - No need to check if any kind of value is okay


```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

Programming Languages

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Implementing Variables and Environments

Dealing with variables

- Interpreters so far have been for languages without variables
 - No let-expressions, functions-with-arguments, etc.
 - Language in homework has all these things
- This segment describes in English what to do
 - Up to you to translate this to code
- Fortunately, what you have to implement is what we have been stressing since the very, very beginning of the course

Dealing with variables

- An environment is a mapping from variables (Racket strings) to values (as defined by the language)
 - Only ever put pairs of strings and values in the environment
- Evaluation takes place in an environment
 - Environment passed as argument to interpreter helper function
 - A variable expression looks up the variable in the environment
 - Most subexpressions use same environment as outer expression
 - A let-expression evaluates its body in a larger environment

The Set-up

So now a recursive helper function has all the interesting stuff:

```
(define (eval-under-env e env)
  (cond ... ; case for each kind of
    ))      ; expression
```

- Recursive calls must “pass down” correct environment

Then **eval-exp** just calls **eval-under-env** with same expression and the *empty environment*

On homework, environments themselves are just Racket lists containing Racket pairs of a string (the MUPL variable name, e.g., **"x"**) and a MUPL value (e.g., **(int 17)**)

A grading detail

- Stylistically `eval-under-env` would be a helper function one could define locally inside `eval-exp`
- But do not do this on your homework
 - We have grading tests that call `eval-under-env` directly, so we need it at top-level

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Implementing Closures

The best part

- The most interesting and mind-bending part of the homework is that the language being implemented has first-class closures
 - With lexical scope of course
- Fortunately, what you have to implement is what we have been stressing since we first learned about closures...

Higher-order functions

The “magic”: How do we use the “right environment” for lexical scope when functions may return other functions, store them in data structures, etc.?

Lack of magic: The interpreter uses a closure data structure (with two parts) to keep the environment it will need to use later

```
(struct closure (env fun) #:transparent)
```

Evaluate a function expression:

- A function is *not* a value; a closure *is* a value
 - Evaluating a function returns a closure
- Create a closure out of (a) the function and (b) the current environment when the function was evaluated

Evaluate a function call:

- ...

Function calls

```
(call e1 e2)
```

- Use current environment to evaluate **e1** to a closure
 - Error if result is a value that is not a closure
- Use current environment to evaluate **e2** to a value
- Evaluate closure's function's body **in the closure's environment**, extended to:
 - Map the function's argument-name to the argument-value
 - And for recursion, map the function's name to the whole closure

This is the same semantics we learned a few weeks ago “coded up”

Given a closure, the code part is *only* ever evaluated using the environment part (extended), *not* the environment at the call-site

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Optional: Are Closures Efficient?

Is that expensive?

- *Time* to build a closure is tiny: a struct with two fields
- *Space* to store closures *might* be large if environment is large
 - But environments are immutable, so natural and correct to have lots of sharing, e.g., of list tails (cf. lecture 3)
 - Still, end up keeping around bindings that are not needed
- Alternative used in practice: When creating a closure, store a possibly-smaller environment holding only the variables that are **free variables** in the function body
 - Free variables: Variables that occur, not counting shadowed uses of the same variable name
 - A function body would never need anything else from the environment

Free variables examples

```
(lambda () (+ x y z)) ; {x, y, z}
```

```
(lambda (x) (+ x y z)) ; {y, z}
```

```
(lambda (x) (if x y z)) ; {y, z}
```

```
(lambda (x) (let ([y 0]) (+ x y z))) ; {z}
```

```
(lambda (x y z) (+ x y z)) ; {}
```

```
(lambda (x) (+ y (let ([y z]) (+ y y)))) ; {y, z}
```

Computing free variables

- So does the interpreter have to analyze the code body every time it creates a closure?
- No: Before evaluation begins, compute free variables of every function in program and store this information with the function
- Compared to naïve store-entire-environment approach, building a closure now takes more time but less space
 - And time proportional to number of free variables
 - And various optimizations are possible
- [Also use a much better data structure for looking up variables than a list]

Compiling higher-order functions

[This is extra-optional]

- If we are compiling to a language without closures (like assembly), cannot rely on there being a “current environment”
- So compile functions by having the translation produce “regular” functions that *all* take an *extra explicit argument* called “environment”
- And compiler replaces all uses of free variables with code that looks up the variable using the environment argument
 - Can make these fast operations with some tricks
- Running program still creates closures and every function call passes the closure’s environment to the closure’s code

```
fun append (xs,ys) =  
  if xs=[]  
  then ys  
  else (hd xs)::append(tl xs,ys)  
  
fun map (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
  | x::xs' => (f x)::(map(f,xs'))  
  
val a = map (increment, [4,8,12,16])  
val b = map (hd, [[8,6],[7,5],[3,0,9]])
```

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Racket Functions As “Macros”
For Interpreted Language

Recall...

Our approach to language implementation:

- Implementing language *B* in language *A*
- Skipping parsing by writing language *B* programs directly in terms of language *A* constructors
- An interpreter written in *A* recursively evaluates

What we know about macros:

- Extend the syntax of a language
- Use of a macro expands into language syntax before the program is run, i.e., before calling the main interpreter function

Put it together

With our set-up, we can use language *A* (i.e., Racket) *functions* that produce language *B* abstract syntax as language *B* “macros”

- Language *B* programs can use the “macros” as though they are part of language *B*
- No change to the interpreter or struct definitions
- Just a programming idiom enabled by our set-up
 - Helps teach what macros are
- See code for example “macro” definitions and “macro” uses
 - “macro expansion” happens before calling **eval-exp**

Optional: Hygiene issues

- Earlier we had (optional) material on hygiene issues with macros
 - (Among other things), problems with shadowing variables when using local variables to avoid evaluating expressions more than once
- The “macro” approach described here does not deal well with this