# Some Lisp Programming

#### Conditional Evaluation and Predicates

The basic Lisp conditional evaluation construct is **cond**.

Several simplified versions exist, including if, unless and when

```
(defun my-abs (x) (if (>= x 0) x (-x)))
```

Another simplified version of cond is case:

Logical expressions can be combined using and, or, and not.

```
> (defun in-range (x) (and (< 3 x) (< x 5)))
IN-RANGE
> (in-range 2)
NIL
> (in-range 4)
Τ
> (defun not-in-range (x)
    (or (>= 3 x) (>= x 5)))
NOT-IN-RANGE
> (not-in-range 2)
Τ
> (defun in-range (x) (< 3 x 5))
IN-RANGE
> (in-range 2)
NIL
> (in-range 4)
> (defun not-in-range (x) (not (in-range x)))
NOT-IN-RANGE
```

#### More on Functions

#### Function as Data

Suppose we want a function **num-deriv** to compute a numerical derivative.

If we define

```
(defun f (x) (+ x (^ x 2)))
then we want to get
> (num-deriv #'f 1)
3
```

Defining num-deriv as

will not work – our function is the value of fun, not its function definition:

```
> (num-deriv #'f 1)
error: unbound function - FUN
```

We need a function that calls the value of **fun** with an argument:

```
> (funcall #'+ 1 2)
3
```

A correct definition of num-deriv is

Another useful function is apply:

```
> (apply #'+ '(1 2 3))
6
> (apply #'+ 1 2 '(3 4))
10
> (apply #'+ 1 '(2 3))
6
```

## Anonymous Functions

Defining and naming throw-away functions like **f** is awkward.

The same problem exists in mathematics.

Logicians developed the *lambda calculus*:

$$\lambda(x)(x+x^2)$$

is "the function that returns  $x + x^2$  for the argument x."

Lisp uses this idea:

$$(lambda (x) (+ x (^ x 2)))$$

is a *lambda expression* for our function.

Lambda expressions are not yet Lisp functions.

To make them into functions, you need to use function or #':

$$\#$$
'(lambda (x) (+ x (^ x 2)))

To take our derivative:

To plot  $2x + x^2$  over the range [-2, 4],

Functions can also use lambda expressions to make new functions and return them as the value of the function.

We will see a few examples of this a bit later.

## Local Variables and Environments

# Variables and Scoping

A pairing of a variable symbol with a value is called a binding

Collections of bindings are called an *environment*.

Bindings can be global or they can be local to a group of expressions.

let and let\* expressions and function definitions set up local bindings.

Consider the lambda expression

(lambda (x) (+ x a))

The meaning of  $\mathbf{x}$  in the body is clear – it is bound to the calling argument.

The meaning of  $\mathbf{a}$  is not so clear – it is a *free* variable.

We need a convention for determining the bindings of free variables.

This is the reason we need to use **function** on lambda expressions:

Free variables in a function are bound to their values in the environment where the function is created

This is called the *lexical* or *static* scoping rule.

Other scoping rules are possible.

An example: making a derivative function:

Another example: making a normal log likelihood:

The log likelihood of a sample from a normal distribution is

$$-\frac{n}{2} \left[ \log \sigma^2 + \frac{(\overline{x} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{s^2}{\sigma^2} \right]$$

A function for evaluating this expression as a function of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  is returned by

The result returned by this function can be maximized, or it can be plotted with spin-function or contour-function.

#### Local Functions

It is also possible to set up local functions using flet:

flet sets up bindings in parallel, like let

flet cannot be used to define local recursive functions.

labels is like flet but allows mutually recursive function definitions.

## Optional, Keyword and Rest Arguments

A number of functions used so far take optional arguments, keyword arguments, or variable numbers of arguments.

A function taking an optional argument is defined one of three ways:

```
(defun f (x &optional y) ...)
(defun f (x &optional (y 1)) ...)
(defun f (x &optional (y 1 z)) ...)
```

In the second and third forms, the default value is 1; in the first form it is nil

In the third form, **z** is **t** if the optional argument is supplied; otherwise **z** is **nil**.

We can add an optional argument for the step size to num-deriv:

Keyword arguments are defined similarly to optional arguments:

```
(defun f (x &key y) ...)
(defun f (x &key (y 1)) ...)
(defun f (x &key (y 1 z)) ...)
```

The function is then called as

```
(f 1 : y 2)
```

Using a keyword argument in num-deriv:

With a keyword argument, num-deriv is called as

```
(num-deriv #'f 1 :h 0.001)
```

A function with a variable number of arguments is defined as

```
(defun f (x &rest y) ...)
```

All arguments beyond the first are made into a list and bound to **y**.

For example:

```
> (defun my-plus (&rest x) (apply #'+ x))
MY-PLUS
> (my-plus 1 2 3)
6
```

If more than one of these modifications is used, they must appear in the order &optional, &rest, &key.

There is an upper limit on the number of arguments a function can receive.

# **Mapping**

Mapping is the process of applying a function elementwise to a list.

The primary mapping function is mapcar:

```
> (setf x (normal-rand '(2 3 2)))
((0.27397 3.5358) (-0.11065 1.2178 1.050)
  (0.78268 0.95955))
> (mapcar #'mean x)
(1.904895 0.71913 0.8711149)
```

Mapcar can take several lists as arguments:

```
> (mapcar #'+ '(1 2 3) '(4 5 6))
(5 7 9)
```

Using mapcar, we can define a simple numerical integrator for functions on [0, 1]:

# More on Compound Data

## <u>Lists</u>

Lists are the most important compound data type. Lists can be empty:

```
> (list)
NIL
> '()
NIL
> ()
NIL
```

They can be used to represent sets:

```
> (union '(1 2 3) '(3 4 5))
(5 4 1 2 3)
> (intersection '(1 2 3) '(3 4 5))
(3)
> (set-difference '(1 2 3) '(3 4 5))
(2 1)
```

In addition to using **select**, you can get pieces of a list with

```
> (first '(1 2 3))
1
> (second '(1 2 3))
2
> (rest '(1 2 3))
(2\ 3)
Two other useful functions are
remove-duplicates
> (remove-duplicates '(1 1 2 3 3))
(1 2 3)
and count:
> (count 2 '(1 2 3 4) :test #'=)
> (count 2 '(1 2 3 4) :test #'<=)</pre>
3
```

remove-duplicates also accepts a :test argument.

#### <u>Vectors</u>

Vectors are a second form of compound data.

A vector is constructed with the **vector** function

```
> (vector 1 2 3)
#(1 2 3)
```

or by typing its printed representation:

```
> (setf x '#(1 2 3))
#(1 2 3)
> x
#(1 2 3)
```

Elements of vectors can be extracted and changed with select:

```
> (select x 1)
2
> (setf (select x 1) 5)
5
> x
#(1 5 3)
```

Vectors can be copied with copy-vector.

Vectors are usually stored more efficiently than lists, and their elements can be accessed more rapidly.

But there are fewer functions for operating on vectors than on lists:

```
> (first x)
error: bad argument type - #(1 5 3)
> (rest x)
error: bad argument type - #(1 5 3)
```

# Sequences

Lists, vectors, and strings are sequences.

Several functions operate on any sequence:

```
> (length '(1 2 3))
3
> (length '#(1 2 3))
3
> (length "abc")
3
> (select '(1 2 3) 0)
1
> (select '#(1 2 3) 0)
1
> (select "abc" 0)
#\a
```

Sequences can be coerced to different types with coerce:

```
> (coerce '(1 2 3) 'vector)
#(1 2 3)
> (coerce "abc" 'list)
(#\a #\b #\c)
```

## Arrays

The matrix function constructs a two-dimensional array:

```
> (matrix '(2 3) '(1 2 3 4 5 6))
#2A((1 2 3) (4 5 6))
```

Again you can type the printed representation

```
> (setf m '#2A((1 2 3) (4 5 6)))
#2A((1 2 3) (4 5 6))
```

and select extracts and modifies elements:

```
> (select m 1 1)
5
> (select m 1 '(0 1))
#2A((4 5))
> (select m '(0 1) '(0 1))
#2A((1 2) (4 5))
> (setf (select m 1 1) 'a)
A
> m
#2A((1 2 3) (4 A 6))
```

## **Format**

format is a very flexible output function.

It prints to *output streams* or to strings.

The default output stream is \*standard-output\*; it can be abbreviated to t:

```
> (format *standard-output* "Hello~%")
Hello
NIL
> (format t "Hello~%")
Hello
NIL
> (format nil "Hello")
"Hello"
```

<sup>~%</sup> is the format directive for a new line.

Other useful format directives are "a and "s:

```
> (format t "Examples: ~a ~s~%" '(1 2) '(3 4))
Examples: (1 2) (3 4)
NIL
> (format t "Examples: ~a ~s~%" "ab" "cd")
Examples: ab "cd"
```

These two directives differ in their handling of escape characters.

There are many other format directives.

## Some Statistical Functions

## Some Basic Functions

```
> (difference '(1 3 6 10))
(2 3 4)
> (pmax '(1 2 3) 2)
(2 2 3)
> (split-list '(1 2 3 4 5 6) 3)
((1 2 3) (4 5 6))
> (cumsum '(1 2 3 4))
(1 3 6 10)
> (accumulate #'* '(1 2 3 4))
(1 2 6 24)
```

## Sorting Functions

```
> (sort-data '(14 10 12 11))
(10 11 12 14)
> (rank '(14 10 12 11))
(3 0 2 1)
> (order '(14 10 12 11))
(1 3 2 0)
```

## Interpolation and Smoothing

```
(spline x y :xvals xv)
(lowess x y)
(kernel-smooth x y :width w)
(kernel-dens x)
```

## Linear Algebra Functions

```
(identity-matrix 4)
(diagonal '(1 2 3))
(diagonal '#2a((1 2)(3 4)))
(transpose '#2a((1 2)(3 4)))
(transpose '((1 2)(3 4)))
(matmult a b)
(make-rotation '(1 0 0) '(0 1 0) 0.05)
(lu-decomp a)
(inverse a)
(determinant a)
(chol-decomp a)
(qr-decomp a)
(sv-decomp a)
```

## Odds and Ends

#### Errors

The **error** functions signals an error:

```
> (error "bad value")
```

error: bad value

> (error "bad value: ~s" "A")

error: bad value: "A"

# Debugging

Several debugging functions are available:

debug/nodebug – toggle debug mode; in debug mode, an error puts you into a break loop.

break - called within a function to enter a break
loop

**baktrace** – prints traceback in a beak loop.

step - single steps through an evaluation.

# Example

## Estimating a Survival Function

Suppose the variable **times** contains survival times and **status** contains status values, with 1 representing death and 0 censoring.

To compute a Kaplan-Meier or Fleming-Harrington estimator, we first need the death times and the unique death times:

Next, we need the number of deaths and the number at risk at each death time:

Using these values, we can compute the Kaplan-Meier estimator at the death times as

```
(setf km (accumulate \#'* (/ (- r d) r)))
```

The Fleming-Harrington estimator is

```
(setf fh (exp (- (cumsum (/ d r)))))
```

Greenwood's formula for the variance is

```
(* (^ km 2) (cumsum (/ d r (pmax (- r d) 1))))
```

The pmax expression prevents a division by zero.

Tsiatis' formula leads to

```
(* (^ km 2) (cumsum (/ d (^ r 2))))
```

To construct a plot we need a function that builds the consecutive corners of a step function:

Then

```
(plot-lines (make-steps udt km))
```

produces a plot of the Kaplan-Meier estimator.

# Weibull Regression

Suppose times are survival times, status contains death/censoring indicators, and x contains a matrix of covariates, including a column of ones.

A Weibull model for these data has a log likelihood of the form

$$\sum s_i \log \alpha + \sum (s_i \log \mu_i - \mu_i)$$

where

$$\log \mu_i = \alpha \log t_i + \eta_i$$
$$\eta_i = x_i \beta$$

and  $\alpha$  is the Weibull exponent,  $\beta$  is a vector of parameters.

A function to compute this log likelihood is

Reasonable initial estimates for the parameters might be  $\alpha = 1$ ,

$$\beta_0 = \frac{\sum s_i}{\sum t_i}$$

for the constant term, and  $\beta_i = 0$  for all other i. For a single covariate: