

LispPad Library Reference

Version 1.6.3

Matthias Zenger

2021-12-13

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1 Introduction

1.1 Overview

LispPad is an integrated development environment for Scheme on macOS. LispPad's Scheme interpreter is based on LispKit, a R7RS-compliant implementation of Scheme which comes with a large number of prepackaged Scheme libraries. There is also a version of LispPad for iOS, called LispPad Go, which includes almost the same set of libraries.

This document is a reference manual for the core Scheme libraries coming with LispKit and LispPad. The LispPad homepage provides access to frequently updated online documentation.

1.2 Further reading

There are several books which can be recommended for learning Scheme and related topics:

- "The Scheme Programming Language" by R. Kent Dybvig provides a comprehensive introduction into Scheme based on R6RS. It discusses several advanced topics and covers many Scheme libraries.
- "Simply Scheme: Introducing Computer Science" by Brian Harvey and Matthew Wright introduces Scheme slowly to beginners.
- "Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs" by Harold Abelson and Gerald Jay Syssman is the ultimate book teaching Computer Science, all in Scheme. The book covers a broad range of Computer Science topics and should be standing on every Scheme programmers desk.
- "Essentials of Programming Languages" by Daniel P. Friedman and Mitchell Wand provides a deep understanding of the essential concepts of programming languages and uses Scheme as the language to implement the concepts.

1.3 Acknowledgments

Some of this documentation is derived from existing Scheme language specifications, such as the R5RS, the R6RS, and the R7RS standards. In recent years, these standards evolved using the SRFI process, which provides access to a large number of standardized Scheme components and libraries.

The following people have contributed over the last 20 years to the evolution, standardization, and documentation of Scheme: R. Kelsey, W. Clinger, J. Rees, H. Abelson, N. I. Adams IV, D. H. Bartley, G. Brooks, W. Corcoran-Mathe, R. K. Dybvig, D. P. Friedman, R. Halstead, C. Hanson, C. T. Haynes, E. Kohlbecker, D. Oxley, M. Nieper-Wißkirchen, K. M. Pitman, M. Sperber, M. Flatt, A. v. Straaten, A. Shinn, J. Cowan, A. A. Gleckler, S. Ganz, A. W. Hsu, B. Lucier, E. Medernach, A. Radul, J. T. Read, D. Rush, B. L. Russel, O. Shivers, A. Snell-Pym, and G. J. Sussman.

2 LispKit Archive Zip

Library (lispkit archive zip) provides an API for creating and managing zip archives. Zip archives are either persisted on the file system, or they are created in-memory. Zip archives can be opened either in read-only or read-write mode. They allow either files or in-memory data (in the form of bytevectors) to be included. Such *zip entries* are either a file, a directory, or a symbolic link. In an archive, files are stored in either compressed or uncompressed form.

2.1 Constructors

(make-zip-archive) (make-zip-archive bvec) (make-zip-archive bvec mutable?) procedure

Procedure make-zip-archive creates an in-memory zip archive. If bytevector *bvec* is provided, the zip archive is created from the given binary data, otherwise, a new empty zip archive is returned. For a zip archive created from a bytevector, parameter *mutable?* determines if it is a read-only or read-write zip archive. In the latter case, *mutable?* has to be set to #t, the default is #f.

(create-zip-archive path)

procedure

Creates a new empty read-write zip archive at the given file path.

(open-zip-archive *path*)

procedure

(open-zip-archive path mutable?)

Opens a zip archive at the given file path. By default, the zip archive is opened in read-only mode, unless *mutable?* is set to #t.

2.2 Properties of archives

(zip-archive? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* refers to a zip archive, otherwise #f is being returned.

(zip-archive-mutable? archive)

procedure

Returns #t if the given zip archive is mutable, i.e. opened in read-write mode, #f otherwise.

(zip-archive-path archive)

procedure

Procedure zip-archive-path returns the file path at which *archive* is being persisted. If *archive* is a in-memory zip archive, then #f is returned.

(zip-archive-bytevector archive)

procedure

Procedure zip-archive-bytevector returns *archive* as a bytevector. This bytevector can be written to disk or used to create a in-memory copy of the zip archive.

2.3 Introspecting entries

Entries in zip archives are referred to via their relative file path in the archive. All procedures that provide information about a zip archive entry therefore expect two arguments: the zip archive and a file path.

(zip-entry-count archive)

procedure

Returns the number of entries in archive.

(zip-entries archive)

procedure

Returns a list of file paths for all entries of zip archive archive.

(zip-entry-exists? archive path)

procedure

Returns #t if archive contains an entry with the given file path.

(zip-entry-compressed? archive path)

procedure

Returns #t if *archive* contains an entry for the given file path and this entry is stored in compressed form. If *path* does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-compressed? fails with an error.

(zip-entry-file? archive path)

procedure

Returns #t if *archive* contains an entry for the given file path and this entry is a file. If *path* does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-file? fails with an error.

(zip-entry-directory? archive path)

procedure

Returns #t if *archive* contains an entry for the given file path and this entry is a directory. If path does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-directory? fails with an error.

(zip-entry-symlink? archive path)

procedure

Returns #t if *archive* contains an entry for the given file path and this entry is a symbolic link. If *path* does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-directory? fails with an error.

(zip-entry-compressed-size archive path)

procedure

Returns the size of the compressed file for the entry at the given path in bytes. If *path* does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-compressed-size fails with an error.

(zip-entry-uncompressed-size archive path)

procedure

Returns the size of the uncompressed file for the entry at the given path in bytes. If *path* does not refer to a valid entry in *archive*, the procedure zip-entry-uncompressed-size fails with an error.

2.4 Adding and removing entries

(add-zip-entry archive path base)

procedure

(add-zip-entry archive path base compressed?)

Adds the file, directory, or symbolic link at *path* relative to path *base* to the given zip *archive*. The corresponding entry in *archive* is identified via *path*. The file is stored in uncompressed form if *compressed?* is set to #f. The default for *compressed?* is #t.

(write-zip-entry archive path bvec)

procedure

(write-zip-entry archive path bvec compressed?)

(write-zip-entry archive path bvec compressed? time)

Adds a new file entry to *archive* at *path* based on the content of bytevector *bvec*. The entry is stored in uncompressed form if *compressed*? is set to #f. The default for *compressed*? is #t. *time* is a date-time object as defined by library (lispkit date-time) which defines the modification time of the new entry.

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(delete-zip-entry archive path)

procedure

Deletes the entry at *path* from *archive*. Procedure delete-zip-entry fails if the entry does not exist or if the archive is opened in read-only mode.

2.5 Extracting entries

(extract-zip-entry archive path base)

procedure

Extracts the entry at path in archive and stores it on the file system at path relative to path base.

(read-zip-entry archive path)

procedure

Returns the file entry at *path* in *archive* in form of a bytevector. Procedure read-zip-entry fails if the entry does not exist or if the entry is not a file entry.

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3 LispKit Base

Library (lispkit base) aggregates all exported values, parameter objects, and functions from the following libraries and re-exports them.

- (lispkit box)
- (lispkit bytevector)
- (lispkit char)
- (lispkit control)
- (lispkit core)
- (lispkit dynamic)
- (lispkit hashtable)
- (lispkit list)
- (lispkit math)
- (lispkit port)
- (lispkit record)
- (lispkit string)
- (lispkit system)
- (lispkit type)
- (lispkit vector)

4 LispKit Box

LispKit is a R7RS-compliant implementation with one exception: pairs are immutable. This library provides implementations of basic mutable data structures with reference semantics: mutable multi-place buffers, also called *boxes*, and mutable pairs. The difference between a two-place box and a mutable pair is that a mutable pair allows mutations of the two elements independent of each other.

4.1 Boxes

(box? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a box; #f otherwise.

(box obj ...)

procedure

Returns a new box object that contains the objects obj

(unbox box)

procedure

Returns the current contents of *box*. If multiple values have been stored in the box, unbox will return multiple values. This procedure fails if *box* is not referring to a box.

(set-box! box obj ...)

procedure

Sets the content of box to objects obj This procedure fails if box is not referring to a box.

(update-box! box proc)

procedure

Invokes *proc* with the content of *box* and stores the result of this function invocation in *box*. update-box! is implemented like this:

```
(define (update-box! box proc)
  (set-box! box (apply-with-values proc (unbox box))))
```

4.2 Mutable pairs

(mpair? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if v is a mutable pair (mpair); #f otherwise.

(mcons car cdr)

procedure

Returns a new mutable pair whose first element is set to \overline{cdr} and whose second element is set to \overline{cdr} .

(mcar mpair)

procedure

Returns the first element of the mutable pair *mpair*.

(mcdr mpair)

procedure

Returns the second element of the mutable pair *mpair*.

(set-mcar! mpair obj)

procedure

Sets the first element of the mutable pair *mpair* to *obj*.

(set-mcdr! mpair obj)

procedure

Sets the second element of the mutable pair *mpair* to *obj*.

5 LispKit Bytevector

Bytevectors represent blocks of binary data. They are fixed-length sequences of bytes, where a *byte* is a fixnum in the range from 0 to 255 inclusive. A bytevector is typically more space-efficient than a vector containing the same values.

The *length* of a bytevector is the number of elements that it contains. The length is a non-negative integer that is fixed when the bytevector is created. The *valid indexes* of a bytevector are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the bytevector, starting at index zero as with vectors.

Bytevectors are written using the notation #u8(byte ...). For example, a bytevector of length 3 containing the byte 0 in element 0, the byte 10 in element 1, and the byte 5 in element 2 can be written as follows: $\#u8(0\ 10\ 5)$. Bytevector constants are self-evaluating, so they do not need to be quoted.

5.1 Basic

(bytevector? *obj*)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a bytevector; otherwise, #f is returned.

(bytevector byte ...)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated bytevector containing its arguments as bytes in the given order.

```
(bytevector 1 3 5 1 3 5) ⇒ #u8(1 3 5 1 3 5)
(bytevector) ⇒ #u8()
```

(make-bytevector k) (make-bytevector k byte)

procedure

The make-bytevector procedure returns a newly allocated bytevector of length *k*. If *byte* is given, then all elements of the bytevector are initialized to *byte*, otherwise the contents of each element are unspecified.

```
(make-bytevector 3 12) \Rightarrow #u8(12 12 12)
```

(bytevector-length bytevector)

procedure

Returns the length of bytevector in bytes as an exact integer.

(bytevector-u8-ref bytevector k)

procedure

Returns the k-th byte of bytevector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of bytevector.

```
(bytevector-u8-ref #u8(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) 5) \Rightarrow 8
```

(bytevector-u8-set! *bytevector k byte*)

procedure

Stores *byte* as the k-th byte of bytevector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of bytevector.

```
(let ((bv (bytevector 1 2 3 4)))
 (bytevector-u8-set! bv 1 3)
 bv)
 #u8(1 3 3 4)
```

(bytevector-copy bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-copy bytevector start)

(bytevector-copy bytevector start end)

Returns a newly allocated bytevector containing the bytes in bytevector between start and end. If end is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of bytevector. If start is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

```
(define a #u8(1 2 3 4 5))
(bytevector-copy a 2 4))
                              \Rightarrow #u8(3 4)
```

(bytevector-copy! to at from)

procedure

(bytevector-copy! to at from start)

(bytevector-copy! to at from start end)

Copies the bytes of bytevector from between start and end to bytevector to, starting at at. The order in which bytes are copied is unspecified, except that if the source and destination overlap, copying takes place as if the source is first copied into a temporary bytevector and then into the destination. This can be achieved without allocating storage by making sure to copy in the correct direction in such circumstances.

It is an error if at is less than zero or greater than the length of to. It is also an error if (- (bytevectorlength to) at) is less than (- end start).

```
(define a (bytevector 1 2 3 4 5))
(define b (bytevector 10 20 30 40 50))
(bytevector-copy! b 1 a 0 2)
b \Rightarrow \#u8(10\ 1\ 2\ 40\ 50)
```

(bytevector-append bytevector ...)

Returns a newly allocated bytevector whose elements are the concatenation of the elements in the given bytevectors.

```
(bytevector-append #u8(0 1 2) #u8(3 4 5))
 \Rightarrow #u8(0 1 2 3 4 5)
```

5.2 Input/Output

(read-binary-file path)

procedure

Reads the file at path and stores its content in a new bytevector which gets returned by read-binaryfile.

(write-binary-file path bytevector)

procedure

(write-binary-file path bytevector start)

(write-binary-file path bytevector start end)

Writes the bytes of bytevector between start and end into a new binary file at path. If end is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

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5.3 Compression

(bytevector-deflate bytevector) (bytevector-deflate bytevector start)

procedure

(bytevector-deflate bytevector start end)

bytevector-deflate encodes *bytevector* between *start* and *end* using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm returning a new compressed bytevector. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-inflate bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-inflate bytevector start)

(bytevector-inflate bytevector start end)

bytevector-inflate assumes *bytevector* is encoded using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm between *start* and *end*. The procedure returns a corresponding new decoded bytevector.

If is an error if *bytevector*, between *start* and *end*, is not encoded using *Deflate*. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-zip bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-zip bytevector start)

(bytevector-zip bytevector start end)

bytevector-zip encodes *bytevector* between *start* and *end* using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm returning a new compressed bytevector which is using a *zlib* wrapper. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-unzip bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-unzip bytevector start)

(bytevector-unzip bytevector start end)

bytevector-unzip assumes *bytevector* is using a *zlib* wrapper for data encoded using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm between *start* and *end*. The procedure returns a corresponding new decoded bytevector.

If is an error if *bytevector*, between *start* and *end*, is not encoded using *Deflate* or is not using the *zlib* wrapper format. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-gzip bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-gzip bytevector start)

(bytevector-gzip bytevector start end)

bytevector-gzip encodes *bytevector* between *start* and *end* using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm returning a new compressed bytevector which is using a *gzip* wrapper. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-gunzip bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-gunzip bytevector start)

(bytevector-gunzip bytevector start end)

bytevector-gunzip assumes *bytevector* is using a *gzip* wrapper for data encoded using the *Deflate* data compression alogrithm between *start* and *end*. The procedure returns a corresponding new decoded bytevector.

If is an error if *bytevector*, between *start* and *end*, is not encoded using *Deflate* or is not using the *gzip* wrapper format. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

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5.4 Advanced

(utf8->string bytevector)
(utf8->string bytevector start)
(utf8->string bytevector start end)
(string->utf8 string)
(string->utf8 string start)
(string->utf8 string start end)

procedure

These procedures translate between strings and bytevectors that encode those strings using the UTF-8 encoding. The utf8->string procedure decodes the bytes of a *bytevector* between *start* and *end* and returns the corresponding string. The string->utf8 procedure encodes the characters of a *string* between *start* and *end* and returns the corresponding bytevector.

It is an error for bytevector to contain invalid UTF-8 byte sequences.

```
(utf8->string #u8(#x41)) ⇒ "A"

(string->utf8 "\lambda") ⇒ #u8(#xCE #xBB)
```

(bytevector->base64 bytevector)

(bytevector->base64 bytevector start)

(bytevector->base64 bytevector start end)

bytevector->base64 encodes *bytevector* between *start* and *end* as a string consisting of ASCII characters using the *Base64* encoding scheme. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(base64->bytevector *str*)

procedure

procedure

(base64->bytevector str start)

(base64->bytevector str start end)

base64->bytevector assumes string *str* is encoded using *Base64* between *start* and *end* and returns a corresponding new decoded bytevector.

If is an error if *str* between *start* and *end* is not a valid *Base64*-encoded string. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *str*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-adler32 bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-adler32 bytevector start)

(bytevector-adler32 bytevector start end)

bytevector-adler32 computes the Adler32 checksum for *bytevector* between *start* and *end*. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

(bytevector-crc32 bytevector)

procedure

(bytevector-crc32 bytevector start)

(bytevector-crc32 bytevector start end)

bytevector-crc32 computes the CRC32 checksum for *bytevector* between *start* and *end*. If *end* is not provided, it is assumed to be the length of *bytevector*. If *start* is not provided, it is assumed to be 0.

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6 LispKit Char-Set

Library (lispkit char-set) implements efficient means to represent and manipulate sets of characters. Its design is based on SRFI 14 but the implementation is specific to the definition of characters in LispKit; i.e. library (lispkit char-set) assumes that characters are UTF-16 code units.

As opposed to SRFI 14, it can be assumed that the update procedures ending with "!" are mutating the corresponding character set. This means that clients of these procedures may rely on these procedures performing their functionality in terms of side effects.

In the procedure specifications below, the following conventions are used:

- A cs parameter is a character set.
- A s parameter is a string.
- A char parameter is a character.
- A char-list parameter is a list of characters.
- A *pred* parameter is a unary character predicate procedure, returning either #t or #f when applied to a character.
- An *obj* parameter may be any value at all.

Passing values to procedures with these parameters that do not satisfy these types is an error.

Unless otherwise noted in the specification of a procedure, procedures always return character sets that are distinct from the parameter character sets (unless the procedure mutates a character set and its name ends with "!"). For example, char-set-adjoin is guaranteed to provide a fresh character set, even if it is not given any character parameters.

Library (lispkit char-set) supports both mutable as well as immutable character sets. Character sets are assumed to be mutable unless they are explicitly specified to be immutable.

6.1 Constants

char-set:lower-case char-set:upper-case char-set:title-case char-set:letter char-set:letter+digit char-set:graphic char-set:printing char-set:whitespace char-set:newlines char-set:iso-control char-set:punctuation char-set:symbol char-set:hex-digit char-set:blank constant

char-set:ascii char-set:empty char-set:full

Library (lispkit char-set) predefines these frequently used immutable character sets.

Note that there may be characters in char-set:letter that are neither upper or lower case. The char-set:whitespaces character set contains whitespace and newline characters. char-set:blanks only contains whitespace (i.e. "blank") characters. char-set:newlines only contains newline characters.

6.2 Predicates

(char-set? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a character set, otherwise returns #f.

(char-set-empty? cs)

procedure

Returns #t if the character set cs does not contain any characters, otherwise returns #f.

(char-set=? cs ...)

procedure

Returns #t if all the provided character sets cs ... contain the exact same characters; returns #f otherwise. For both corner cases, (char-set=?) and (char-set=? cs), char-set=? returns #t.

(char-set<=? *cs* ...)

procedure

Returns #t if every character set cs-i is a subset of character set cs-i+1; returns #f otherwise. For both corner cases, (char-set<=?) and (char-set<=? cs), char-set<=? returns #t.

(char-set-disjoint? cs1 cs2)

procedure

Returns #t if character sets cs1 and cs2 are disjoint, i.e. they do not share a single character; returns #f otherwise.

(char-set-contains? cs char)

procedure

Returns #t if character char is contained in character set cs; returns #f otherwise.

(char-set-every? pred cs)

procedure

(char-set-any? pred cs)

The char-set-every? procedure returns #t if predicate *pred* returns #t for every character in the character set *cs*. Likewise, char-set-any? applies *pred* to every character in character set *cs*, and returns #t if there is at least one character for which *pred* returns #t. If no character produces a #t value, it returns #f. The order in which these procedures sequence through the elements of *cs* is not specified.

6.3 Constructors

(char-set char ...)

procedure

Return a newly allocated mutable character set containing the given characters.

(immutable-char-set char ...)

procedure

Return a newly allocated immutable character set containing the given characters.

(char-set-copy cs)

procedure

(char-set-copy cs mutable?)

Returns a newly allocated copy of the character set cs. The copy is mutable by default unless parameter mutable? is provided and set to #f.

(list->char-set char-list)

(list->char-set char-list base-cs)

procedure

Return a newly allocated mutable character set containing the characters in the list of characters *char-list*. If character set *base-cs* is provided, the characters from *base-cs* are added to it as well.

(string->char-set s)

procedure

(string->char-set *s base-cs*)

Return a newly allocated mutable character set containing the characters of the string *s*. If character set *base-cs* is provided, the characters from *base-cs* are added to it as well.

(ucs-range->char-set lower upper)

procedure

(ucs-range->char-set lower upper base-cs)

(ucs-range->char-set lower upper limit base-cs)

Returns a newly allocated mutable character set containing every character whose ISO/IEC 10646 UCS-4 code lies in the half-open range [lower,upper). lower and upper are exact non-negative integers where lower <= upper <= limit is required to hold. limit is either an exact non-negative integer specifying the maximum upper limit, or it is #t which specifies the maximum UTF-16 code unit value. If limit is not provided, a very large default is assumed (equivalent to limit being #f).

This signature is compatible with the SRFI 16 specification which states that if the requested range includes unassigned UCS values, these are silently ignored. If the requested range includes "private" or "user space" codes, these are passed through transparently. If any code from the requested range specifies a valid, assigned UCS character that has no corresponding representative in the implementation's character type, then

- 1. an error is raised if *limit* is #t, and
- 2. the code is ignored if *limit* is #f (the default).

If character set *base-cs* is provided, the characters of *base-cs* are included in the newly allocated mutable character set.

(char-set-filter pred cs)

procedure

(char-set-filter pred cs base-cs)

Returns a new character set containing every character *c* in character set *cs* such that (*pred c*) returns true. If character set *base-cs* is provided, the characters specified by *base-cs* are added to it.

 $(-> \operatorname{char-set} x)$ procedure

Coerces object *x* into a character set. *x* may be a string, character or character set. A string is converted to the set of its constituent characters; a character is converted to a singleton character set; a character set is returned as is. This procedure is intended for use by other procedures that want to provide "user-friendly", wide-spectrum interfaces to their clients.

6.4 Querying character sets

(char-set-size cs)

procedure

Returns the number of elements in character set cs.

(char-set-count pred cs)

procedure

Apply *pred* to the characters of character set *cs*, and return the number of characters that caused the predicate to return #t.

(char-set->list cs)

procedure

This procedure returns a list of the characters of character set *cs*. The order in which *cs*'s characters appear in the list is not defined, and may be different from one call to another.

(char-set->string cs) procedure

This procedure returns a string containing the characters of character set cs. The order in which cs's characters appear in the string is not defined, and may be different from one call to another.

```
(char-set-hash cs) [procedure] (char-set-hash cs bound)
```

Compute a hash value for the character set cs. bound is a non-negative exact integer specifying the range of the hash function. A positive value restricts the return value to the range [0, bound). If bound is either zero or not given, a default value is used, chosen to be as large as it is efficiently practical.

6.5 Character set algebra

(char-set-adjoin cs char ...)

procedure

Return a newly allocated mutable copy of cs into which the characters char ... were inserted.

(char-set-delete cs char ...)

procedure

Return a newly allocated mutable copy of cs from which the characters char ... were removed.

(char-set-complement cs)

procedure

Return a newly allocated character set containing all characters that are not contained in cs.

```
(char-set-union cs ...)
(char-set-intersection cs ...)
(char-set-difference cs ...)
(char-set-xor cs ...)
```

(char-set-diff+intersection cs1 cs2 ...)

the other arguments), and requires at least one argument.

procedure

These procedures implement set complement, union, intersection, difference, and exclusive-or for character sets. The union, intersection and xor operations are n-ary. The difference function is also n-ary, associates to the left (that is, it computes the difference between its first argument and the union of all

Boundary cases:

char-set-diff+intersection returns both the difference and the intersection of the arguments, i.e. it partitions its first parameter. It is equivalent to (values (char-set-difference cs1 cs2 ...) (char-set-intersection cs1 (char-set-union cs2 ...))) but can be implemented more efficiently.

```
(char-set-filter pred cs)
(char-set-filter pred cs base-cs)
```

Returns a new character set containing every character *c* in *cs* such that (*pred c*) returns #t . If character set *base-cs* is provided, the characters specified by *pred* are added to a copy of it.

6.6 Mutating character sets

(char-set-adjoin! cs char ...)

procedure

Insert the characters *char* ... into the character set *cs*.

(char-set-delete! cs char ...)

Remove the characters *char* ... from the character set *cs*.

procedure

(char-set-complement! cs)

procedure

Complement the character set *cs* by including all characters that were not contained in *cs* previously and by removing all previously contained characters.

(char-set-union! cs1 cs2 ...)

procedure

(char-set-intersection! cs1 cs2 ...)

(char-set-difference! cs1 cs2 ...)

(char-set-xor! cs1 cs2 ...)

(char-set-diff+intersection! cs1 cs2 cs3 ...)

These are update variants of the set-algebra functions mutating the first character set *cs1* instead of creating a new one. char-set-diff+intersection! will perform a side-effect on both of its two required parameters *cs1* and *cs2*.

(char-set-filter! pred cs base-cs)

procedure

Adds every character c in cs for which (pred c) returns #t to the given character set base-cs.

(list->char-set! *char-list base-cs*)

procedure

Add the characters from the character list *char-list* to character set *base-cs* and return the mutated character set *base-cs*.

(string->char-set! s base-cs)

procedure

Add the characters of the string s to character set base-cs and return the mutated character set base-cs.

(ucs-range->char-set! lower upper base-cs)

procedure

(ucs-range->char-set! lower upper limit base-cs)

Mutates the mutable character set *base-cs* including every character whose ISO/IEC 10646 UCS-4 code lies in the half-open range [lower,upper). lower and upper are exact non-negative integers where lower <= upper <= limit is required to hold. limit is either an exact non-negative integer specifying the maximum upper limit, or it is #t which specifies the maximum UTF-16 code unit value. If *limit* is not provided, a very large default is assumed (equivalent to *limit* being #f).

(char-set-unfold! f p g seed base-cs)

procedure

This is a fundamental constructor for character sets.

- g is used to generate a series of "seed" values from the initial seed: seed, (g seed), (g2 seed), (g3 seed), ...
- *p* tells us when to stop by returning #t when applied to one of these seed values.
- f maps each seed value to a character. These characters are added to the base character set base-cs to form the result. char-set-unfold! adds the characters by mutating base-cs as a side effect.

6.7 Iterating over character sets

(char-set-cursor cs)

procedure

(char-set-ref cs cursor)

(char-set-cursor-next cs cursor)

(end-of-char-set? cursor)

Cursors are a low-level facility for iterating over the characters in a character set cs. A cursor is a value that indexes a character in a character set. char-set-cursor produces a new cursor for a given character set. The set element indexed by the cursor is fetched with char-set-ref. A cursor index is incremented with char-set-cursor-next; in this way, code can step through every character in a character set. Stepping

a cursor "past the end" of a character set produces a cursor that answers true to end-of-char-set? . It is an error to pass such a cursor to char-set-ref or to char-set-cursor-next.

A cursor value may not be used in conjunction with a different character set; if it is passed to char-set-ref or char-set-cursor-next with a character set other than the one used to create it, the results and effects are undefined. These primitives are necessary to export an iteration facility for character sets to loop macros.

(char-set-fold kons knil cs)

procedure

This is the fundamental iterator for character sets. Applies the function kons across the character set cs using initial state value knil. That is, if cs is the empty set, the procedure returns knil. Otherwise, some element c of cs is chosen; let cs be the remaining, unchosen characters. The procedure returns (charset-fold kons (kons c knil) cs).

```
; CHAR-SET-MEMBERS
(lambda (cs) (char-set-fold cons '() cs))
; CHAR-SET-SIZE
(lambda (cs) (char-set-fold (lambda (c i) (+ i 1)) 0 cs))
; How many vowels in the char set?
(lambda (cs)
  (char-set-fold (lambda (c i) (if (vowel? c) (+ i 1) i)) 0 cs))
```

(char-set-unfold f p g seed) (char-set-unfold f p g seed base-cs)

procedure

This is a fundamental constructor for character sets.

- g is used to generate a series of "seed" values from the initial seed: seed, (g seed), (g2 seed), (g3 seed), ...
- p tells us when to stop, when it returns #t when applied to one of these seed values.
- *f* maps each seed value to a character. These characters are added to a mutable copy of the base character set *base-cs* to form the result; *base-cs* defaults to an empty set.

More precisely, the following definitions hold, ignoring the optional-argument issues:

Examples:

(char-set-for-each proc cs)

procedure

Apply procedure *proc* to each character in the character set *cs*. Note that the order in which proc is applied to the characters in the set is not specified, and may even change from one procedure application to another.

(char-set-map proc cs)

procedure

proc is a procedure mapping characters to characters. It will be applied to all the characters in the character set *cs*, and the results will be collected in a newly allocated mutable character set which will be returned by char-set-map.

7 LispKit Char

Characters are objects that represent printed characters such as letters and digits. In LispKit, characters are UTF-16 code units.

Character literals are written using the notation #\ character, or #\ character-name, or #\x hex-scalar-value. Characters written using this #\ notation are self-evaluating, i.e. they do not have to be quoted.

The following standard character names are supported by LispKit:

#\alarm: U+0007#\backspace: U+0008#\delete: U+007F#\escape: U+001B

• #\newline: the linefeed character U+000A

#\null: the null character U+0000#\return: the return character U+000D

#\return: the return character 0+0000
#\space: the space character U+0020

• #\tab: the tab character U+0009

Here are some examples using the #\ notation:

#\m: lowercase letter 'm'
#\M: uppercase letter 'M'
#\(: left parenthesis ')'
#\\: backslash '\'

• #\: space character''

• #\x03BB: the lambda character

Case is significant in #\character, and in #\character-name, but not in #\x hex-scalar-value. If character in #\character is alphabetic, then any character immediately following character cannot be one that can appear in an identifier. This rule resolves the ambiguous case where, for example, the sequence of characters #\space could be taken to be either a representation of the space character or a representation of the character #\s followed by a representation of the symbol pace.

Some of the procedures that operate on characters ignore the difference between upper case and lower case. The procedures that ignore case have "-ci" (for "case insensitive") embedded in their names.

7.1 Predicates

```
(char? obj)
Returns #t if obj is a character, otherwise returns #f.

(char=? char ...)
(char<? char ...)
(char>? char ...)
(char<=? char ...)
(char>=? char ...)
```

These procedures return #t if the results of passing their arguments to char->integer are respectively equal, monotonically increasing, monotonically decreasing, monotonically non-decreasing, or monotonically non-increasing. These predicates are transitive.

```
(char-ci=? char ...)
(char-ci>? char ...)
(char-ci>=? char ...)
(char-ci>=? char ...)
```

These procedures are similar to char=? etc., but they treat upper case and lower case letters as the same. For example, (char-ci=? #\A #\a) returns #t . Specifically, these procedures behave as if char-foldcase were applied to their arguments before they were compared.

(char-alphabetic? char)

procedure

Procedure char-alphabetic? returns #t if its argument is a alphabetic character, otherwise it returns #f. Note that many Unicode characters are alphabetic but neither upper nor lower case.

(char-numeric? char)

procedure

Procedure char-numeric? returns #t if its argument is a numeric character, otherwise it returns #f

(char-whitespace? char)

procedure

Procedure char-whitespace? returns #t if its argument is a whitespace character, otherwise it returns #f.

(char-upper-case? char)

procedure

Procedure char-upper-case?? returns #t if its argument is an upper-case character, otherwise it returns #f.

(char-lower-case? char)

procedure

Procedure char-lower-case? returns #t if its argument is a lower-case character, otherwise it returns #f.

7.2 Transforming characters

(char-upcase char)

procedure

The char-upcase procedure, given an argument that is the lowercase part of a Unicode casing pair, returns the uppercase member of the pair, provided that both characters are supported by LispKit. Note that language-sensitive casing pairs are not used. If the argument is not the lowercase member of such a pair, it is returned.

(char-downcase char)

procedure

The char-downcase procedure, given an argument that is the uppercase part of a Unicode casing pair, returns the lowercase member of the pair, provided that both characters are supported by LispKit. If the argument is not the uppercase member of such a pair, it is returned.

(char-foldcase char)

procedure

The char-foldcase procedure applies the Unicode simple case-folding algorithm to its argument and returns the result. Note that language-sensitive folding is not used. If the argument is an uppercase letter, the result will be either a lowercase letter or the same as the argument if the lowercase letter does not exist or is not supported by LispKit.

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7.3 Converting characters

(digit-value char)

procedure

Procedure digit-value returns the numeric value (0 to 9) of its argument if it is a numeric digit (that is, if char-numeric? returns #t), or #f on any other character.

(char->integer *char*) (integer->char *n*)

procedure

Given a Unicode character, char->integer returns an exact integer between 0 and #xD7FF or between #xE000 and #x10FFFF which is equal to the Unicode scalar value of that character. Given a non-Unicode character, it returns an exact integer greater than #x10FFFF.

Given an exact integer that is the value returned by a character when <code>char->integer</code> is applied to it, <code>integer->char</code> returns that character.

(char-name char)

(char-name char encoded?)

procedure

If character *char* has a corresponding named XML entity, then procedure <code>char-name</code> returns the name of this entity. Otherwise, <code>char-name</code> returns <code>#f</code>. If parameter *encoded* is set to <code>#t</code>, then the name is returned including the full entity encoding.

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8 LispKit Combinator

Library (lispkit combinator) defines abstractions for *combinator-style programming*. It provides means to create and compose functions.

(const c ...)

Returns a function accepting any number of arguments and returning the values c

(flip f) procedure

Takes a function with two parameters and returns an equivalent function where the two parameters are swapped.

```
(define snoc (flip cons))
(snoc (snoc '() 3) 2) 1) \Rightarrow (1 2 3)
```

 $(\mathsf{negate}\,f)$

Returns a function which invokes f and returns the logical negation.

```
(define gvector-has-elements? (negate gvector-empty?)) (gvector-has-elements? \#g(1\ 2\ 3)) \Rightarrow \#t
```

(partial f arg ...)

Applies arguments arg ... partially to f and returns a new function accepting the remaining arguments. For a function (f a1 a2 a3 ... an), (partial f a1 a2) will return a function (lambda (a3 ... an) (f a1 a2 a3 ... an)).

(compose f...)

Composes the given functions f... such that ((compose f1 f2 ... fn) x) is equivalent to (f1 (f2 (... (fn x)))). compose supports functions returning multiple arguments.

(of...)

Composes the given functions f... such that ((o f1 f2 ... fn) x) is equivalent to (f1 (f2 ($\overline{\ldots}$ (fn x)))). o is a more efficient version of compose which only works if the involved functions only return a single argument. compose is more general and supports functions returning multiple arguments.

(conjoin f...)

Returns a function invoking all functions f ... and combining the results with and . ((conjoin f1 f2 ...) x ...) is equivalent to (and (f1 x ...) (f2 x ...) ...).

(disjoin f...)

Returns a function invoking all functions f ... and combining the results with or . ((disjoin f1 f2 ...) x ...) is equivalent to (or (f1 x ...) (f2 x ...) ...).

(list-of? f)

Returns a predicate which takes a list as its argument and returns #t if for every element x of the list (f x) returns true.

(each f...)

Returns a function which applies the functions f ... each individually to its arguments in the given order, returning the result of the last function application.

```
\begin{array}{c} (\operatorname{cut} f) \\ (\operatorname{cut} f < ... >) \\ (\operatorname{cut} f \operatorname{arg} ...) \\ (\operatorname{cut} f \operatorname{arg} ... < ... >) \end{array}
```

Special form cut transforms an expression (f arg ...) into a lambda expression with as many formal variables as there are slots <> in the expression (f arg ...). The body of the resulting lambda expression calls procedure f with arguments arg ... in the order they appear. In case there is a rest symbol <...> at the end, the resulting procedure is of variable arity, and the body calls f with all arguments provided to the actual call of the specialized procedure.

```
(cute f)
(cute f < ... >)
(cute f arg ...)
(cute f arg ... < ... >)
```

Special form cute is similar to cut, except that it first binds new variables to the result of evaluating the non-slot expressions (in an unspecific order) and then substituting the variables for the non-slot expressions. In effect, cut evaluates non-slot expressions at the time the resulting procedure is called, whereas cute evaluates the non-slot expressions at the time the procedure is constructed.

```
(cute cons (+ a 1) <>)

⇒ (let ((a1 (+ a 1))) (lambda (x2) (cons a1 x2)))
```

 $(\mathbf{Y}f)$ procedure

Y combinator for computing a fixed point of a function f. This is a value that is mapped to itself.

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9 LispKit Comparator

Comparators bundle a type test predicate, an equality predicate, an optional ordering predicate, and an optional hash function into a single object. By packaging these procedures together, they can be treated as a single item for use in the implementation of data structures that typically rely on a consistent combination of such functions.

Library (lispkit comparator) implements a large part of the API of SRFI 128 and thus, can be used as a drop-in replacement for the core functionality of library (srfi 128). A few procedures and objects from SRFI 162 were adopted as well.

9.1 Comparator objects

Comparators are objects of a distinct type which bundle procedures together that are useful for comparing two objects in a total order. It is an error, if any of the procedures have side effects. There are four procedures in the bundle:

- The *type test predicate* returns #t if its argument has the correct type to be passed as an argument to the other three procedures, and #f otherwise.
- The *equality predicate* returns #t if the two objects are the same in the sense of the comparator, and #f otherwise. It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that it is reflexive, symmetric, transitive, and can handle any arguments that satisfy the type test predicate.
- The *ordering predicate* returns #t if the first object precedes the second in a total order, and #f otherwise. Note that if it is true, the equality predicate must be false. It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that it is irreflexive, antisymmetric, transitive, and can handle any arguments that satisfy the type test predicate.
- The *hash function* takes an object and returns an exact non-negative integer. It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that it can handle any argument that satisfies the type test predicate, and that it returns the same value on two objects if the equality predicate says they are the same (but not necessarily the converse).

It is also the programmer's responsibility to ensure that all four procedures provide the same result whenever they are applied to the same objects in the sense of eqv?, unless the objects have been mutated since the last invocation.

Comparator objects are not applicable to circular structure, or to objects containing any of these. Attempts to pass any such objects to any procedure defined here, or to any procedure that is part of a comparator defined here, has undefined behavior.

9.2 Predicates

(comparator? *obj*)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a comparator, and #f otherwise.

(comparator-ordered? cmp)

procedure

Returns #t if comparator cmp has a supplied ordering predicate, and #f otherwise.

(comparator-hashable? *cmp*)

procedure

Returns #t if comparator cmp has a supplied hash function, and #f otherwise.

9.3 Constructors

(make-comparator test equality ordering hash)

procedure

Returns a comparator which bundles the *test*, *equality*, *ordering*, and *hash* procedures provided as arguments to make-comparator. If *ordering* or *hash* is #f, a procedure is provided that signals an error on application. The predicates comparator-ordered? and comparator-hashable? will return #f in the respective cases.

Here are calls on make-comparator that will return useful comparators for standard Scheme types:

- (make-comparator boolean? boolean=? (lambda (x y) (and (not x) y)) boolean-hash) will return a comparator for booleans, expressing the ordering #f < #t and the standard hash function for booleans
- (make-comparator real? = < (lambda (x) (exact (abs x)))) will return a comparator expressing the natural ordering of real numbers and a plausible hash function
- (make-comparator string? string=? string<? string-hash) will return a comparator expressing the implementation's ordering of strings and the standard hash function
- (make-comparator string? string-ci=? string-ci<? string-ci-hash) will return a comparator expressing the implementation's case-insensitive ordering of strings and the standard case-insensitive hash function

(make-pair-comparator car-comparator cdr-comparator)

procedure

This procedure returns comparators whose functions behave as follows:

- The type test returns #t if its argument is a pair, if the car satisfies the type test predicate of *car-comparator*, and the cdr satisfies the type test predicate of *cdr-comparator*
- The equality function returns #t if the cars are equal according to *car-comparator* and the cdrs are equal according to *cdr-comparator*, and #f otherwise. The ordering function first compares the cars of its pairs using the equality predicate of *car-comparator*. If they are not equal, then the ordering predicate of *car-comparator* is applied to the cars and its value is returned. Otherwise, the predicate compares the cdrs using the equality predicate of *cdr-comparator*. If they are not equal, then the ordering predicate of *cdr-comparator* is applied to the cdrs and its value is returned
- The hash function computes the hash values of the car and the cdr using the hash functions of *car-comparator* and *cdr-comparator* respectively and then hashes them together in an implementation-defined way

(make-list-comparator element-comparator type-test empty? head tail)

procedure

This procedure returns comparators whose functions behave as follows:

- The type test returns #t if its argument satisfies *type-test* and the elements satisfy the type test predicate of *element-comparator*
- The total order defined by the equality and ordering functions is *lexicographic*. It is defined as follows:
 - The empty sequence, as determined by calling *empty?*, compares equal to itself
 - The empty sequence compares less than any non-empty sequence
 - Two non-empty sequences are compared by calling the *head* procedure on each. If the heads are not equal when compared using *element-comparator*, the result is the result of that comparison. Otherwise, the results of calling the *tail* procedure are compared recursively.
- The hash function computes the hash values of the elements using the hash function of *element-comparator* and then hashes them together in an implementation-defined way

(make-vector-comparator element-comparator type-test length ref)

procedure

This procedure returns comparators whose functions behave as follows:

- The type test returns #t if its argument satisfies *type-test* and the elements satisfy the type test predicate of *element-comparator*.
- The equality predicate returns #t if both of the following tests are satisfied in order: the lengths of the vectors are the same in the sense of = , and the elements of the vectors are the same in the sense of the equality predicate of *element-comparator*.
- The ordering predicate returns #t if the results of applying *length* to the first vector is less than the result of applying *length* to the second vector. If the lengths are equal, then the elements are examined pairwise using the ordering predicate of *element-comparator*. If any pair of elements returns #t, then that is the result of the list comparator's ordering predicate; otherwise the result is #f
- The hash function computes the hash values of the elements using the hash function of *element-comparator* and then hashes them together in an implementation-defined way

Here is an example, which returns a comparator for byte vectors:

```
(make-vector-comparator
  (make-comparator exact-integer? = < number-hash)
  bytevector?
  bytevector-length
  bytevector-u8-ref)</pre>
```

9.4 Default comparators

eq-comparator eqv-comparator equal-comparator

object

These objects implement comparators whose functions behave as follows:

- The type test returns #t in all cases
 - The equality functions are eq?, eqv?, and equal? respectively
 - The ordering function is implementation-defined, except that it must conform to the rules for ordering functions. It may signal an error instead.
 - The hash functions are eq-hash, eqv-hash, and equal-hash respectively

boolean-comparator

object

boolean-comparator is defined as follows:

```
(make-comparator boolean? boolean=? (lambda (x y) (and (not x) y)) boolean-hash))
```

real-comparator

object

real-comparator is defined as follows:

```
(make-comparator real? = < number-hash))</pre>
```

char-comparator

object

char-comparator is defined as follows:

9.5 Accessors and invokers

(comparator-type-test-predicate *cmp*)

Returns the type test predicate of comparator *cmp*.

(make-comparator string? string-ci=? string-ci<? string-ci-hash))</pre>

(comparator-equality-predicate *cmp*)

Returns the equality predicate of comparator *cmp*.

(comparator-ordering-predicate cmp)

Returns the ordering predicate of comparator *cmp*.

(comparator-hash-function *cmp*)

Returns the hash function of comparator cmp.

(comparator-test-type cmp obj)

procedi

procedure

procedure

procedure

procedure

Invokes the type test predicate of comparator <code>cmp</code> on <code>obj</code> and returns what it returns. This procedure is convenient than <code>comparator-type-test-predicate</code>, but less efficient when the predicate is called repeatedly.

(comparator-check-type cmp obj)

procedure

Invokes the type test predicate of comparator *cmp* on *obj* and returns #t if it returns #t, but signals an error otherwise. This procedure is more convenient than comparator-type-test-predicate, but less efficient when the predicate is called repeatedly.

(comparator-hash cmp obj)

procedure

Invokes the hash function of comparator *cmp* on *obj* and returns what it returns. This procedure is more convenient than comparator-hash-function, but less efficient when the function is called repeatedly.

9.6 Comparison predicates

```
(=? cmp object1 object2 object3 ...)
(<? cmp object1 object2 object3 ...)
(>? cmp object1 object2 object3 ...)
```

```
(<=? cmp object1 object2 object3 ...)
(>=? cmp object1 object2 object3 ...)
```

These procedures are analogous to the number, character, and string comparison predicates of Scheme. They allow the convenient use of comparators to handle variable data types.

These procedures apply the equality and ordering predicates of comparator *cmp* to the *objects* as follows. If the specified relation returns #t for all *objecti* and *objectj* where n is the number of objects and 1 <= i < j <= n, then the procedures return #t, but otherwise #f. Because the relations are transitive, it suffices to compare each object with its successor. The order in which the values are compared is unspecified.

```
(comparator-max cmp obj1 obj2 ...)
(comparator-min cmp obj1 obj2 ...)
(comparator-max-in-list cmp list)
(comparator-min-in-list cmp list)
```

procedure

These procedures are analogous to min and max respectively, but may be applied to any orderable objects, not just to real numbers. They apply the ordering procedure of comparator *cmp* to the objects *obj1* ... to find and return a minimal or maximal object. The order in which the values are compared is unspecified. If two objects are equal in the sense of the comparator *cmp*, either may be returned.

The -in-list versions of the procedures accept a single list argument.

9.7 Syntax

```
(comparator-if<=> obj1 obj2 less-than equal-to greater-than)
(comparator-if<=> cmp obj1 obj2 less-than equal-to greater-than)
```

It is an error unless comparator cmp evaluates to a comparator and obj1 and obj2 evaluate to objects that the comparator can handle. If the ordering predicate returns #t when applied to the values of obj1 and obj2 in that order, then expression less-than is evaluated and its value is returned. If the equality predicate returns #t when applied in the same way, then expression equal-to is evaluated and its value is returned. If neither returns #t, expression greater-than is evaluated and its value is returned.

If cmp is omitted, equal-comparator is used as a default.

```
(if<=> obj1 obj2 less-than equal-to greater-than)
```

This special form is equivalent to (comparator-if<=> obj1 obj2 less-than equal-to greater-than), i.e. it uses the predicates provided by equal-comparator to determine whether expression less-than, equal-to, or greater-than gets evaluated and its value returned.

This documentation was derived from the SRFI 128 and the SRFI 162 specifications by John Cowan.

10 LispKit Control

10.1 Sequencing

(begin expr ... exprn)

syntax

begin evaluates *expr*, ..., *exprn* sequentially from left to right. The values of the last expression *exprn* are returned. This special form is typically used to sequence side effects such as assignments or input and output.

10.2 Conditionals

(if test consequent)

syntax

(if test consequent alternate)

An if expression is evaluated as follows: first, expression *test* is evaluated. If it yields a true value, then expression *consequent* is evaluated and its values are returned. Otherwise, *alternate* is evaluated and its values are returned. If expression *test* yields a false value and no *alternate* expression is specified, then the result of the expression is *void*.

(when test consequent ...)

syntax

The *test* expression is evaluated, and if it evaluates to a true value, the expressions *consequent* ... are evaluated in order. The result of the when expression is the value to which the last *consequent* expression evaluates or *void* if *test* evaluates to false.

```
(when (= 1 1.0)
  (display "1")
  (display "2")) ⇒ (void), prints: 12
```

(unless test alternate ...)

syntax

The *test* is evaluated, and if it evaluates to false, the expressions *alternate* ... are evaluated in order. The result of the unless expression is the value to which the last *consequent* expression evaluates or *void* if *test* evaluates to a true value.

```
(unless (= 1 1.0)
  (display "1")
  (display "2")) ⇒ (void), prints nothing
```

(cond clause1 clause2 ...)

syntax

Clauses like clause1 and clause2 take one of two forms, either

```
• (_test expr1 ..._) , or
```

```
• (_test_ => _expr_)
```

The last clause in a cond expression can be an "else clause", which has the form

```
• (else _expr1 expr2 ..._)
```

A cond expression is evaluated by evaluating the *test* expressions of successive clauses in order until one of them evaluates to a true value. When a *test* expression evaluates to a true value, the remaining expressions in its clause are evaluated in order, and the results of the last expression are returned as the results of the entire cond expression.

If the selected *clause* contains only the *test* and no expressions, then the value of the *test* expression is returned as the result of the cond expression. If the selected clause uses the => alternate form, then the expression is evaluated. It is an error if its value is not a procedure that accepts one argument. This procedure is then called on the value of the *test* and the values returned by this procedure are returned by the cond expression.

If all tests evaluate to #f, and there is no else clause, then the result of the conditional expression is *void*. If there is an else clause, then its expressions are evaluated in order, and the values of the last one are returned.

(case key clause1 clause2 ...)

syntax

key can be any expression. Each clause clause1, clause2, ... has the form:

```
• ((_datum1 ..._) _expr1 expr2 ..._)
```

where each *datum* is an external representation of some object. It is an error if any of the datums are the same anywhere in the expression. Alternatively, a clause can be of the form:

```
• ((_datum1 ..._) => _expr_)
```

The last clause in a case expression can be an "else clause", which has one of the following forms:

```
(else _expr1 expr2 ..._), or(else => _expr_)
```

A case expression is evaluated as follows. Expression *key* is evaluated and its result is compared against each *datum*. If the result of evaluating *key* is the same, in the sense of eqv? , to a *datum*, then the expressions in the corresponding clause are evaluated in order and the results of the last expression in the clause are returned as the results of the case expression.

If the result of evaluating *key* is different from every *datum*, then if there is an else clause, its expressions are evaluated and the results of the last are the results of the case expression. Otherwise, the result of the case expression is *void*.

If the selected *clause* or else clause uses the => alternate form, then the expression is evaluated. It is an error, if its value is not a procedure accepting one argument. This procedure is then called on the value of the *key* and the values returned by this procedure are returned by the case expression.

```
(case (* 2 3)
  ((2 3 5 7) 'prime)
  ((1 4 6 8 9) 'composite))  ⇒ composite
(case (car '(c d))
  ((a) 'a)
  ((b) 'b))  ⇒ (void)
(case (car '(c d))
  ((a e i o u) 'vowel)
  ((w y) 'semivowel)
  (else => (lambda (x) x)))  ⇒ c
```

10.3 Local bindings

The binding constructs let, let*, letrec, letrec*, let-values, and let*-values give Scheme a block structure. The syntax of the first four constructs is identical, but they differ in the regions they establish for their variable bindings. In a let expression, the initial values are computed before any of the variables become bound. In a let* expression, the bindings and evaluations are performed sequentially. While in letrec and letrec* expressions, all the bindings are in effect while their initial values are being computed, thus allowing mutually recursive definitions. The let-values and let*-values constructs are analogous to let and let* respectively, but are designed to handle multiple-valued expressions, binding different identifiers to the returned values.

(let bindings body) syntax

bindings has the form ((variable init) ...), where each init is an expression, and body is a sequence of zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for variable to appear more than once in the list of variables being bound.

All *init* expressions are evaluated in the current environment, the variables are bound to fresh locations holding the results, the *body* is evaluated in the extended environment, and the values of the last expression of *body* are returned. Each binding of a *variable* has *body* as its scope.

```
(let ((x 2) (y 3))

(* x y)) ⇒ 6

(let ((x 2) (y 3))

(let ((x 7)

(z (+ x y)))

(* z x))) ⇒ 35
```

(let* bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((variable init) ...), where each init is an expression, and body is a sequence of zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions.

The let* binding construct is similar to let, but the bindings are performed sequentially from left to right, and the region of a binding indicated by (*variable init*) is that part of the let* expression to the right of the binding. Thus, the second binding is done in an environment in which the first binding is visible, and so on. The variables need not be distinct.

(letrec bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((variable init) ...), where each init is an expression, and body is a sequence

of zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for *variable* to appear more than once in the list of variables being bound.

The variables are bound to fresh locations holding unspecified values, the *init* expressions are evaluated in the resulting environment, each *variable* is assigned to the result of the corresponding *init* expression, the *body* is evaluated in the resulting environment, and the values of the last expression in *body* are returned. Each binding of a *variable* has the entire letrec expression as its scope, making it possible to define mutually recursive procedures.

One restriction of letrec is very important: if it is not possible to evaluate each *init* expression without assigning or referring to the value of any *variable*, it is an error. The restriction is necessary because letrec is defined in terms of a procedure call where a lambda expression binds the variables to the values of the *init* expressions. In the most common uses of letrec, all the *init* expressions are lambda expressions and the restriction is satisfied automatically.

(letrec* bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((variable init) ...), where each init is an expression, and body is a sequence of zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for variable to appear more than once in the list of variables being bound.

The variables are bound to fresh locations, each *variable* is assigned in left-to-right order to the result of evaluating the corresponding *init* expression, the *body* is evaluated in the resulting environment, and the values of the last expression in *body* are returned. Despite the left-to-right evaluation and assignment order, each binding of a *variable* has the entire letrec* expression as its region, making it possible to define mutually recursive procedures. If it is not possible to evaluate each *init* expression without assigning or referring to the value of the corresponding *variable* or the *variable* of any of the bindings that follow it in *bindings*, it is an error. Another restriction is that it is an error to invoke the continuation of an *init* expression more than once.

(let-values bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((formals init) ...), where each formals is a list of variables, init is an expression, and body is zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for a variable to appear more than once in formals.

The *init* expressions are evaluated in the current environment as if by invoking call-with-values, and the variables occurring in list *formals* are bound to fresh locations holding the values returned by the *init* expressions, where the *formals* are matched to the return values in the same way that the *formals* in a lambda expression are matched to the arguments in a procedure call. Then, *body* is evaluated in the extended environment, and the values of the last expression of *body* are returned. Each binding of a variable has *body* as its scope.

It is an error if the variables in list *formals* do not match the number of values returned by the corresponding *init* expression.

```
(let-values (((root rem) (exact-integer-sqrt 32)))
  (* root rem)) ⇒ 35
```

(let*-values bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((formals init) ...), where each formals is a list of variables, init is an expression, and body is zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for a variable to appear more than once.

The let*-values construct is similar to let-values, but the *init* expressions are evaluated and bindings created sequentially from left to right, with the region of the bindings of each variable in *formals* including the *init* expressions to its right as well as *body*. Thus the second *init* expression is evaluated in an environment in which the first set of bindings is visible and initialized, and so on.

(letrec-values bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((formals init) ...), where each formals is a list of variables, init is an expression, and body is zero or more definitions followed by a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for a variable to appear more than once.

First, the variables of the *formals* lists are bound to fresh locations holding unspecified values. Then, the *init* expressions are evaluated in the current environment as if by invoking call-with-values, where the *formals* are matched to the return values in the same way that the *formals* in a lambda expression are matched to the arguments in a procedure call. Finally, *body* is evaluated in the resulting environment, and the values of the last expression in *body* are returned. Each binding of a *variable* has the entire letrec-values expression as its scope, making it possible to define mutually recursive procedures.

```
(let-optionals args (arg ... (var default) ...) body ...)

(let-optionals args (arg ... (var default) ... rest) body ...)
```

This binding construct can be used to handle optional arguments of procedures. args refers to the rest parameter list of a procedure or lambda expression. let-optionals binds the variables $arg\ldots$ to the arguments available in args. It is an error if there are not sufficient elements in args. Then, the variables var,\ldots are bound to the remaining elements available in list args, or to $default,\ldots$ if there are not enough elements available in args. Variables are bound in parallel, i.e. all default expressions are evaluated in the current environment in which the new variables are not bound yet. Then, body is evaluated in the extended environment including all variable definitions of let-optionals, and the values of the last expression of body are returned. Each binding of a variable has body as its scope.

syntax

syntax

```
(let*-optionals args (arg ... (var default) ...) body ...)
(let*-optionals args (arg ... (var default) ... rest) body ...)
```

The let*-optionals construct is similar to let-optionals, but the *default* expressions are evaluated and bindings created sequentially from left to right, with the scope of the bindings of each variable including the *default* expressions to its right as well as *body*. Thus, the second *default* expression is evaluated in an environment in which the first binding is visible and initialized, and so on.

(let-keywords args (binding ...) body ...)

binding has one of two forms:

- (var default), and
- (var keyword default)

where *var* is a variable, *keyword* is a symbol, and *default* is an expression. It is an error for a variable *var* to appear more than once.

This binding construct can be used to handle keyword arguments of procedures. *args* refers to the rest parameter list of a procedure or lambda expression. let-keywords binds the variables *var*, ... by name, i.e. by searching in *args* for the keyword argument. If an optional *keyword* is provided, it is used as the name of the keyword to search for, otherwise, *var* is used, appending: . If the keyword is not found in *args*, *var* is bound to *default*.

Variables are bound in parallel, i.e. all *default* expressions are evaluated in the current environment in which the new variables are not bound yet. Then, *body* is evaluated in the extended environment including all variable definitions of let-keywords, and the values of the last expression of *body* are returned. Each binding of a variable has *body* as its scope.

(let*-keywords args (binding ...) body ...)

binding has one of two forms:

- (var default), and
- (var keyword default)

where *var* is a variable, *keyword* is a symbol, and *default* is an expression. It is an error for a variable *var* to appear more than once.

The let*-keywords construct is similar to let-keywords, but the *default* expressions are evaluated and bindings created sequentially from left to right, with the scope of the bindings of each variable including the *default* expressions to its right as well as *body*. Thus the second *default* expression is evaluated in an environment in which the first binding is visible and initialized, and so on.

10.4 Local syntax bindings

The let-syntax and letrec-syntax binding constructs are analogous to let and letrec, but they bind syntactic keywords to macro transformers instead of binding variables to locations that contain values. Syntactic keywords can also be bound globally or locally with define-syntax.

(let-syntax bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((keyword transformer) ...) . Each keyword is an identifier, each transformer is an instance of syntax-rules, and body is a sequence of one or more definitions followed by one or more expressions. It is an error for a keyword to appear more than once in the list of keywords being bound.

body is expanded in the syntactic environment obtained by extending the syntactic environment of the let-syntax expression with macros whose keywords are the *keyword* symbols bound to the specified transformers. Each binding of a *keyword* has *body* as its scope.

(letrec-syntax bindings body)

syntax

bindings has the form ((keyword transformer) ...) . Each keyword is an identifier, each transformer is an instance of syntax-rules, and body is a sequence of one or more definitions followed by one or more expressions. It is an error for a keyword to appear more than once in the list of keywords being bound.

body is expanded in the syntactic environment obtained by extending the syntactic environment of the letrec-syntax expression with macros whose keywords are the keywords, bound to the specified transformers. Each binding of a *keyword* symbol has the *transformer* as well as the *body* within its scope, so the transformers can transcribe expressions into uses of the macros introduced by the letrec-syntax expression.

10.5 Iteration

```
(do ((variable init step) ...)
(test res ...)
command ...)
```

A do expression is an iteration construct. It specifies a set of variables to be bound, how they are to be initialized at the start, and how they are to be updated on each iteration. When a termination condition *test* is met (i.e. it evaluates to #t), the loop exits after evaluating the *res* expressions.

A do expression is evaluated as follows: The *init* expressions are evaluated, the variables are bound to fresh locations, the results of the *init* expressions are stored in the bindings of the variables, and then the iteration phase begins.

Each iteration begins by evaluating *test*. If the result is false, then the *command* expressions are evaluated in order, the *step* expressions are evaluated in some unspecified order, the variables are bound to fresh locations, the results of the *step* expressions are stored in the bindings of the variables, and the next iteration begins.

If *test* evaluates to #t, then the *res* expressions are evaluated from left to right and the values of the last *res* expression are returned. If no *res* expressions are present, then the do expression evaluates to void.

The scope of the binding of a variable consists of the entire do expression except for the *init* expressions. It is an error for a variable to appear more than once in the list of do variables. A *step* can be omitted, in which case the effect is the same as if (*variable init variable*) had been written instead of (*variable init*) .

11 LispKit Core

Library (lispkit core) provides a foundational API for

- primitive procedures,
- definitions (including an import mechanism),
- procedures (including support for optional arguments and tagged procedures),
- delayed execution,
- multiple return values,
- symbols,
- booleans,
- environments,
- · syntax errors, and
- loading source files and support for conditional compilation.

11.1 Primitives

(eval *expr*) (eval *expr env*)

procedure

If *expr* is an expression, it is evaluated in the specified environment *env* and its values are returned. If it is a definition, the specified identifiers are defined in the specified environment, provided the environment is not immutable. Should *env* not be provided, the global interaction environment is used.

(apply proc arg1 ... args)

procedure

The apply procedure calls *proc* with the elements of the list (append (list arg1 ...) args) as the actual arguments.

(equal? obj1 obj2)

The equal? procedure, when applied to pairs, vectors, strings and bytevectors, recursively compares them, returning #t when the unfoldings of its arguments into possibly infinite trees are equal (in the sense of equal?) as ordered trees, and #f otherwise. It returns the same as eqv? when applied to booleans, symbols, numbers, characters, ports, procedures, and the empty list. If two objects are eqv?, they must be equal? as well. In all other cases, equal? may return either #t or #f. Even if its arguments are circular data structures, equal? must always terminate. As a rule of thumb, objects are generally equal? if they print the same.

(eqv? obj1 obj2)

The eqv? procedure defines a useful equivalence relation on objects. It returns #t if obj1 and $\overline{obj2}$ are regarded as the same object.

The eqv? procedure returns #t if:

- obi1 and obi2 are both #t or both #f
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both symbols and are the same symbol according to the symbol=? procedure
- obj1 and obj2 are both exact numbers and are numerically equal in the sense of =
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both inexact numbers such that they are numerically equal in the sense of = , and they yield the same results in the sense of eqv? when passed as arguments to any other procedure

that can be defined as a finite composition of Scheme's standard arithmetic procedures, provided it does not result in a NaN value

- obj1 and obj2 are both characters and are the same character according to the char=? procedure
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both the empty list
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both a pair and car and cdr of both pairs are the same in the sense of eqv?
- *obj1* and *obj2* are ports, vectors, hashtables, bytevectors, records, or strings that denote the same location in the store
- obj1 and obj2 are procedures whose location tags are equal

The eqv? procedure returns #f if:

- obj1 and obj2 are of different types
- one of obj1 and obj2 is #t but the other is #f
- *obj1* and *obj2* are symbols but are not the same symbol according to the symbol=? procedure
- one of *obj1* and *obj2* is an exact number but the other is an inexact number
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both exact numbers and are numerically unequal in the sense of =
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both inexact numbers such that either they are numerically unequal in the sense of = , or they do not yield the same results in the sense of eqv? when passed as arguments to any other procedure that can be defined as a finite composition of Scheme's standard arithmetic procedures, provided it does not result in a NaN value. As an exception, the behavior of eqv? is unspecified when both *obj1* and *obj2* are NaN.
- obj1 and obj2 are characters for which the char=? procedure returns #f
- one of *obj1* and *obj2* is the empty list but the other is not
- *obj1* and *obj2* are both a pair but either car or cdr of both pairs are not the same in the sense of eqv?
- *obj1* and *obj2* are ports, vectors, hashtables, bytevectors, records, or strings that denote distinct locations
- *obj1* and *obj2* are procedures that would behave differently (i.e. return different values or have different side effects) for some arguments

(eq? obj1 obj2)

The eq? procedure is similar to eqv? except that in some cases it is capable of discerning distinctions finer than those detectable by eqv? . It always returns #f when eqv? also would, but returns #f in some cases where eqv? would return #t . On symbols, booleans, the empty list, pairs, and records, and also on non-empty strings, vectors, and bytevectors, eq? and eqv? are guaranteed to have the same behavior.

(quote datum) syntax

(quote *datum*) evaluates to *datum*. *datum* can be any external representation of a LispKit object. This notation is used to include literal constants in LispKit code. (quote *datum*) can be abbreviated as 'datum. The two notations are equivalent in all respects. Numerical constants, string constants, character constants, vector constants, bytevector constants, and boolean constants evaluate to themselves. They need not be quoted.

(quasiquote template) syntax

Quasiquote expressions are useful for constructing a list or vector structure when some but not all of the desired structure is known in advance. If no commas appear within *template*, the result of evaluating (quasiquote *template*) is equivalent to the result of evaluating (quote *template*). If a comma appears within *template*, however, the expression following the comma is evaluated ("unquoted") and its result is inserted into the structure instead of the comma and the expression. If a comma appears followed without intervening whitespace by @, then it is an error if the following expression does not evaluate to a list; the opening and closing parentheses of the list are then "stripped away" and the elements of the list are inserted in place of the ,@ expression sequence. ,@ normally appears only within a list or vector.

Quasiquote expressions can be nested. Substitutions are made only for unquoted components appearing

at the same nesting level as the outermost quasiquote. The nesting level increases by one inside each successive quasiquotation, and decreases by one inside each unquotation. Comma corresponds to form unquote-splicing.

```
(identity obj) procedure
```

The identity function is always returning its argument *obj*.

```
(void) procedure
```

Performs no operation and returns nothing. This is often useful as a placeholder or whenever a no-op statement is needed.

```
(void? obj)
```

Returns #t if obj is the "void" value (i.e. no value); returns #f otherwise.

11.2 Definitions

```
(define var expr)
(define var expr doc)
(define (f arg ...) expr ...)
(define (f arg ...) doc expr ...)
```

define is used to define variables. At the outermost level of a program, a definition (define $var \ expr$) has essentially the same effect as the assignment expression (set! $var \ expr$) if variable var is bound to a non-syntax value. However, if var is not bound, or is a syntactic keyword, then the definition will bind var to a new location before performing the assignment, whereas it would be an error to perform a set! on an unbound variable.

The form (define (f arg ...) expr) defines a function f with arguments arg ... and body expr. It is equivalent to (define f (lambda (arg ...) expr)).

The parameter *doc* is a string literal defining documentation for variable *var*. It can be accessed, for instance, by using the procedure environment-documentation on the environment in which the variable was bound.

```
(define pi 3.141 "documentation for `pi`")
(environment-documentation (interaction-environment) 'pi)
⇒ "documentation for `pi`"
```

```
(define-values var expr)
(define-values (var ...) expr)
(define-values (var doc ...) expr)
```

define-values creates multiple definitions *var* ... from a single expression *expr* returning multiple values. It is allowed wherever define is allowed.

expr is evaluated, and the variables *var* ... are bound to the return values in the same way that the formal arguments in a lambda expression are matched to the actual arguments in a procedure call.

It is an error if a variable *var* appears more than once in *var*

The parameter *doc* is an optional string literal defining documentation for variable *var*. It directly follows the identifier name.

```
(define-syntax keyword transformer)
(define-syntax keyword doc transformer)
```

syntax

Syntax definitions have the form (define-syntax *keyword transformer*). *keyword* is an identifier, and *transformer* is an instance of syntax-rules. Like variable definitions, syntax definitions can appear at the outermost level or nested within a body.

If the define-syntax occurs at the outermost level, then the global syntactic environment is extended by binding the *keyword* to the specified *transformer*, but previous expansions of any global binding for *keyword* remain unchanged. Otherwise, it is an internal syntax definition, and is local to the "body" in which it is defined. Any use of a syntax keyword before its corresponding definition is an error.

Macros can expand into definitions in any context that permits them. However, it is an error for a definition to define an identifier whose binding has to be known in order to determine the meaning of the definition itself, or of any preceding definition that belongs to the same group of internal definitions. Similarly, it is an error for an internal definition to define an identifier whose binding has to be known in order to determine the boundary between the internal definitions and the expressions of the body it belongs to.

Here is an example defining syntax for while loops. while evaluates the body of the loop as long as the predicate is true.

```
(define-syntax while
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((_ pred body ...)
        (let loop () (when pred body ... (loop))))))
```

The parameter doc is an optional string literal defining documentation for the keyword var:

```
(define-syntax kwote "alternative to quote"
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((kwote exp)
        (quote exp))))
```

```
(syntax-rules (literal ...) rule ...)
(syntax-rules ellipsis (literal ...) rule ...)
```

syntax

A *transformer spec* has one of the two forms listed above. It is an error if any of the *literal* ..., or the *ellipsis* symbol in the second form, is not an identifier. It is also an error if syntax rules *rule* are not of the form

• (pattern template).

The *pattern* in a *rule* is a list pattern whose first element is an identifier. In general, a *pattern* is either an identifier, a constant, or one of the following:

```
( pattern ... )
( pattern pattern ... . pattern )
( pattern ... pattern ellipsis pattern ... ) ( pattern ... pattern ellipsis pattern ... . pattern )
#( pattern ... )
#( pattern ... pattern ellipsis pattern ... )
```

A template is either an identifier, a constant, or one of the following:

```
( element ... )
( element element ... . template ) ( ellipsis template )
#( element ... )
```

where an *element* is a *template* optionally followed by an *ellipsis*. An *ellipsis* is the identifier specified in the second form of syntax-rules, or the default identifier . . . (three consecutive periods) otherwise.

Here is an example showcasing how when can be defined in terms of if:

```
(define-syntax when
  (syntax-rules ()
   ((_ c e ...)
     (if c (begin e ...)))))
```

(define-library (name ...) declaration ...)

syntax

A library definition takes the following form: (define-library (name...) declaration...). (name...) is a list whose members are identifiers and exact non-negative integers. It is used to identify the library uniquely when importing from other programs or libraries. It is inadvisable, but not an error, for identifiers in library names to contain any of the characters |, \, ?, *, <, ", :, >, +, [,], /.

A declaration is any of:

```
(export exportspec...)
(import importset...)
(begin statement...)
(include filename...)
(include-ci filename...)
(include-library-declarations filename...)
(cond-expand clause...)
```

An export declaration specifies a list of identifiers which can be made visible to other libraries or programs. An *exportspec* takes one of the following forms:

- ident
- (rename ident1 ident2)

In an *exportspec*, an identifier *ident* names a single binding defined within or imported into the library, where the external name for the export is the same as the name of the binding within the library. A rename spec exports the binding defined within or imported into the library and named by *ident1* in each (*ident1 ident2*) pairing, using *ident2* as the external name.

An import declaration provides a way to import the identifiers exported by another library. It has the same syntax and semantics as an import declaration used in a program or at the read-eval-print loop.

The begin, include, and include-ci declarations are used to specify the body of the library. They have the same syntax and semantics as the corresponding expression types.

The include-library-declarations declaration is similar to include except that the contents of the file are spliced directly into the current library definition. This can be used, for example, to share the same export declaration among multiple libraries as a simple form of library interface.

The cond-expand declaration has the same syntax and semantics as the cond-expand expression type, except that it expands to spliced-in library declarations rather than expressions enclosed in begin.

```
(set! var expr)
```

Procedure set! is used to assign values to variables. *expr* is evaluated, and the resulting value is stored in the location to which variable *var* is bound. It is an error if *var* is not bound either in some region enclosing the set! expression or else globally. The result of the set! expression is unspecified.

11.3 Importing definitions

(import importset ...)

syntax

An import declaration provides a way to import identifiers exported by a library. Each *importset* names a set of bindings from a library and possibly specifies local names for the imported bindings. It takes one of the following forms:

- libraryname
- (only importset identifier ...)
- (except importset identifier ...)
- (prefix importset identifier)
- (rename importset (ifrom ito) ...)

In the first form, all of the identifiers in the named library's export clauses are imported with the same names (or the exported names if exported with rename). The additional *importset* forms modify this set as follows:

- only produces a subset of the given *importset* including only the listed identifiers (after any renaming). It is an error if any of the listed identifiers are not found in the original set.
- except produces a subset of the given *importset*, excluding the listed identifiers (after any renaming). It is an error if any of the listed identifiers are not found in the original set.
- rename modifies the given *importset*, replacing each instance of *ifrom* with *ito*. It is an error if any of the listed identifiers are not found in the original set.
- prefix automatically renames all identifiers in the given *importset*, prefixing each with the specified identifier.

In a program or library declaration, it is an error to import the same identifier more than once with different bindings, or to redefine or mutate an imported binding with a definition or with <code>set!</code>, or to refer to an identifier before it is imported. However, a read-eval-print loop will permit these actions.

11.4 Procedures

(procedure? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a procedure; otherwise, it returns #f.

(thunk? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a procedure which accepts zero arguments; otherwise, it returns #f.

(procedure-of-arity? obj n)

procedure

syntax

Returns #t if obj is a procedure that accepts n arguments; otherwise, it returns #f. This is equivalent to:

```
(and (procedure? obj)
     (procedure-arity-includes? obj n))
```

```
(lambda (arg1 ...) expr ...)
(lambda (arg1 ... rest) expr ...)
(lambda rest expr ...)
(λ (arg1 ...) expr ...)
(λ (arg1 ... rest) expr ...)
(λ rest expr ...)
```

A lambda expression evaluates to a procedure. The environment in effect when the lambda expression was evaluated is remembered as part of the procedure. When the procedure is later called with some actual

arguments, the environment in which the lambda expression was evaluated will be extended by binding the variables in the formal argument list $arg1\ldots$ to fresh locations, and the corresponding actual argument values will be stored in those locations. Next, the expressions in the body of the lambda expression will be evaluated sequentially in the extended environment. The results of the last expression in the body will be returned as the results of the procedure call.

```
(case-lambda (formals expr ...) ...)

(case-λ (formals expr ...) ...)
```

A case-lambda expression evaluates to a procedure that accepts a variable number of arguments and is lexically scoped in the same manner as a procedure resulting from a lambda expression. When the procedure is called, the first clause for which the arguments agree with *formals* is selected, where agreement is specified as for *formals* of a lambda expression. The variables of *formals* are bound to fresh locations, the values of the arguments are stored in those locations, the expressions in the body are evaluated in the extended environment, and the results of the last expression in the body is returned as the results of the procedure call. It is an error for the arguments not to agree with *formals* of any clause.

Here is an example showing how to use case-lambda for defining a simple accumulator:

(thunk expr ...)

Returns a procedure accepting no arguments and evaluating expr..., returning the result of the last expression being evaluated as the result of a procedure call. (thunk expr...) is equivalent to (lambda () expr...).

```
(thunk* expr ...)
```

Returns a procedure accepting an arbitrary amount of arguments and evaluating expr..., returning the result of the last expression being evaluated as the result of a procedure call. (thunk* expr...) is equivalent to (lambda args expr...).

(procedure-name proc)

procedure

Returns the name of procedure *proc* as a string, or #f if *proc* does not have a name.

(procedure-arity *proc*)

procedure

Returns a value representing the arity of procedure *proc*, or returns #f if no arity information is available for *proc*.

If procedure-arity returns a fixnum k, then procedure proc accepts exactly k arguments and applying proc to some number of arguments other than k will result in an arity error.

If procedure-arity returns an "arity-at-least" object a, then procedure proc accepts (arity-at-least-value a) or more arguments and applying proc to some number of arguments less than (arity-at-least-value a) will result in an arity error.

If procedure-arity returns a list, then procedure *proc* accepts any of the arities described by the elements of the list. Applying *proc* to some number of arguments not described by an element of the list will result in an arity error.

(procedure-arity-range proc)

procedure

Returns the smallest arity range in form of a pair $(min \cdot max)$ such that if proc is provided n arguments with n < min or n > max, an arity error gets raised.

(procedure-arity-includes? proc k)

procedure

Returns #t if procedure proc can accept k arguments and #f otherwise. If this procedure returns #f, applying proc to k arguments will result in an arity error.

```
(arity-at-least? obj)
```

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an "arity-at-least" object and #f otherwise.

(arity-at-least-value obj)

procedure

Returns a fixnum denoting the minimum number of arguments required by the given "arity-at-least" object *obj*.

11.5 Procedures with optional arguments

```
(opt-lambda (arg1 ... arg1 bind1 ... bindm) expr ...)
(opt-lambda (arg1 ... argn bind1 ... bindm . rest) expr ...)
(opt-lambda rest expr ...)
```

An opt-lambda expression evaluates to a procedure and is lexically scoped in the same manner as a procedure resulting from a lambda expression. When the procedure is later called with actual arguments, the variables are bound to fresh locations, the values of the corresponding arguments are stored in those locations, the body *expr* ... is evaluated in the extended environment, and the result of the last body expression is returned as the result of the procedure call.

Formal arguments *argi* are required arguments. Arguments *bindi* are optional. They are of the form (var init), with *var* being a symbol and *init* an initialization expression which gets evaluated and assigned to *var* if the argument is not provided when the procedure is called. It is a syntax violation if the same variable appears more than once among the variables.

A procedure created with the first syntax of opt-formals takes at least n arguments and at most n+m arguments. A procedure created with the second syntax of opt-formals takes n or more arguments. If the procedure is called with fewer than n+m (but at least n arguments), the missing actual arguments are substituted by the values resulting from evaluating the corresponding _init_s. The corresponding _init_s are evaluated in an unspecified order in the lexical environment of the opt-lambda expression when the procedure is called.

```
(opt*-lambda (arg1 ... arg1 bind1 ... bindm) expr ...)
(opt*-lambda (arg1 ... argn bind1 ... bindm . rest) expr ...)
(opt*-lambda rest expr ...)
```

Similar to syntax opt-lambda except that the initializers of optional arguments *bindi* corresponding to missing actual arguments are evaluated sequentially from left to right. The region of the binding of a variable is that part of the opt*-lambda expression to the right of it or its binding.

```
(define-optionals (f arg ... bind ...) expr ...)

(define-optionals (f arg ... bind ... rest) expr ...)
```

define-optionals is operationally equivalent to (define f (opt-lambda (arg \dots bind \dots) expr \dots)) or (define f (opt-lambda (arg \dots bind \dots rest) expr \dots)) if the second syntactical form is used.

```
(define-optionals* (f arg ... bind ...) expr ...)

(define-optionals* (f arg ... bind ... rest) expr ...)
```

define-optionals* is operationally equivalent to (define f (opt*-lambda (arg ... bind ...) expr ...)) or (define f (opt*-lambda (arg ... bind ... rest) expr ...)) if the second syntactical form is used.

11.6 Tagged procedures

LispKit allows a data object to be associated with a procedure. Such data objects are called *tags*, procedures with an associated tag are called *tagged procedures*. The tag of a procedure is immutable. It is defined at procedure creation time and can later be retrieved without calling the procedure.

```
(procedure/tag? obj) procedure
```

Returns #t if *obj* is a tagged procedure and #f otherwise. Procedures are tagged procedures if they were created either via lambda/tag or case-lambda/tag.

```
(procedure-tag proc) procedure
```

Returns the tag of the tagged procedure proc. It is an error if proc is not a tagged procedure.

```
(lambda/tag tag (arg1 ...) expr ...)
(lambda/tag tag (arg1 ... rest) expr ...)
(lambda/tag tag rest expr ...)
```

A lambda/tag expression evaluates to a tagged procedure. First, tag is evaluated to obtain the tag value for the procedure. Then, the tagged procedure itself gets created for the given formal arguments. The procedure is lexically scoped in the same manner as a procedure resulting from a lambda expression. When the procedure is called, it behaves as if constructed by a lambda expression with the same formal arguments and body.

```
(case-lambda/tag tag (formals expr ...) ...)
```

A case-lambda/tag expression evaluates to a tagged procedure. First, *tag* is evaluated to obtain the tag value for the procedure. Then, the tagged procedure itself gets created, accepting a variable number of arguments. It is lexically scoped in the same manner as a procedure resulting from a lambda expression. When the procedure is called, it behaves as if it was constructed by a case-lambda expression with the same formal arguments and bodies.

11.7 Delayed execution

LispKit provides *promises* to delay the execution of code. Built on top of *promises* are *streams*. Streams are similar to lists, except that the tail of a stream is not computed until it is de-referenced. This allows streams to be used to represent infinitely long lists. Library (lispkit core) only defines procedures for *streams* equivalent to *promises*. Library (lispkit stream) provides all the list-like functionality.

```
(promise? obj) procedure
```

The promise? procedure returns #t if argument obj is a promise, and #f otherwise.

```
(make-promise obj)
(eager obj)
```

The make-promise procedure returns a promise which, when forced, will return *obj*. It is similar to delay, but does not delay its argument: it is a procedure rather than syntax. If *obj* is already a promise, it is returned. eager represents the same procedure like make-promise.

(delay expr) syntax

The delay construct is used together with the procedure force to implement lazy evaluation or "call by need". (delay expr) returns an object called a promise which, at some point in the future, can be asked (by the force procedure) to evaluate *expr*, and deliver the resulting value.

```
(delay-force expr)
(lazy expr)
```

The expression (delay-force expr) is conceptually similar to (delay (force expr)), with the difference that forcing the result of delay-force will in effect result in a tail call to (force expr), while forcing the result of (delay (force expr)) might not. Thus iterative lazy algorithms that might result in a long series of chains of delay and force can be rewritten using delay-force to prevent consuming unbounded space during evaluation. lazy is the same procedure like delay-force.

(force promise) procedure

The force procedure forces the value of a promise created by delay, delay-force, or make-promise. If no value has been computed for the promise, then a value is computed and returned. The value of the promise must be cached (or "memoized") so that if it is forced a second time, the previously computed value is returned. Consequently, a delayed expression is evaluated using the parameter values and exception handler of the call to force which first requested its value. If *promise* is not a promise, it may be returned unchanged.

The following example is a mechanical transformation of a lazy stream-filtering algorithm into Scheme. Each call to a constructor is wrapped in delay, and each argument passed to a deconstructor is wrapped in force. The use of (delay-force ...) instead of (delay (force ...)) around the body of the procedure ensures that an ever-growing sequence of pending promises does not exhaust available storage, because force will, in effect, force such sequences iteratively.

The following examples are not intended to illustrate good programming style, as delay, force, and delay-force are mainly intended for programs written in the functional style. However, they do illustrate the property that only one value is computed for a promise, no matter how many times it is forced.

(stream? obi)

procedure

The stream? procedure returns #t if argument obj is a stream, and #f otherwise. If obj is a stream, stream? does not force its promise. If (stream? obj) is #t, then one of (stream-null? obj) and (stream-pair? obj) will be #t and the other will be #f; if (stream? obj) is #f, both (stream-null? obj) and (stream-pair? obj) will be #f.

(make-stream *obj*) (stream-eager *obj*)

procedure

The make-stream procedure returns a stream which, when forced, will return obj. It is similar to stream-delay, but does not delay its argument: it is a procedure rather than syntax. If obj is already a stream, it is returned. stream-eager represents the same procedure like make-stream.

(stream-delay *expr*)

syntax

The stream-delay syntax is used together with procedure stream-force to implement lazy evaluation or "call by need". (stream-delay expr) returns an object called a stream which, at some point in the future, can be asked (by the stream-force procedure) to evaluate *expr*, and deliver the resulting value.

(stream-delay-force *expr*) (stream-lazy *expr*)

syntax

The expression (stream-delay-force expr) is conceptually similar to (stream-delay (stream-force expr)), with the difference that forcing the result of stream-delay-force will in effect result in a tail call to (stream-force expr), while forcing the result of (stream-delay (stream-force expr)) might not. Thus iterative lazy algorithms that might result in a long series of chains of delay and force can be rewritten using stream-delay-force to prevent consuming unbounded space during evaluation. stream-lazy represents the same procedure like stream-delay-force.

11.8 Multiple values

(values obj ...)

procedure

Delivers all of its arguments to its continuation. The values procedure might be defined as follows:

```
(define (values . things)
  (call-with-current-continuation
    (lambda (cont) (apply cont things))))
```

(call-with-values producer consumer)

procedure

Calls its *producer* argument with no arguments and a continuation that, when passed some values, calls the *consumer* procedure with those values as arguments. The continuation for the call to *consumer* is the continuation of the call to call-with-values.

(apply-with-values proc vals)

procedure

apply-with-values calls procedure *proc* with *vals* as its arguments and returns the corresponding result. *vals* might refer to multiple values created via procedure values. This is a LispKit-specific procedure that relies on multiple return values being represented by a container object.

11.9 Symbols

(symbol? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a symbol, otherwise returns #f.

(symbol-interned? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an interned symbol, otherwise returns #f.

(gensym)

procedure

(gensym str)

Returns a new (fresh) symbol whose name consists of prefix *str* followed by a number. If *str* is not provided, "g" is used as a prefix.

(symbol=? sym ...)

procedure

Returns #t if all the arguments are symbols and all have the same names in the sense of string=?.

(string->symbol str)

procedure

Returns the symbol whose name is string *str*. This procedure can create symbols with names containing special characters that would require escaping when written, but does not interpret escapes in its input.

(string->uninterned-symbol *str*)

procedure

Returns a new uninterned symbol whose name is *str*. This procedure can create symbols with names containing special characters that would require escaping when written, but does not interpret escapes in its input.

(symbol->string sym)

procedure

Returns the name of symbol sym as a string, but without adding escapes.

11.10 Booleans

The standard boolean objects for true and false are written as #t and #f. Alternatively, they can be written #true and #false, respectively. What really matters, though, are the objects that the Scheme conditional expressions (if, cond, and, or, when, unless, do) treat as true or false. The phrase a "true value" (or sometimes just "true") means any object treated as true by the conditional expressions, and the phrase "a false value" (or "false") means any object treated as false by the conditional expressions.

Of all the Scheme values, only #f counts as false in conditional expressions. All other Scheme values, including #t, count as true. Boolean literals evaluate to themselves, so they do not need to be quoted in programs.

(boolean? obj)

procedure

The boolean? predicate returns #t if obj is either #t or #f and returns #f otherwise.

```
(boolean? #f) ⇒ #t
(boolean? 0) ⇒ #f
(boolean? '()) ⇒ #f
```

(boolean=? obj1 obj2 ...)

procedure

Returns #t if all the arguments are booleans and all are #t or all are #f.

(and test ...)

syntax

The *test* ... expressions are evaluated from left to right, and if any expression evaluates to #f, then #f is returned. Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all the expressions evaluate to true values, the values of the last expression are returned. If there are no expressions, then #t is returned.

```
(and (= 2 2) (> 2 1)) \Rightarrow #t

(and (= 2 2) (< 2 1)) \Rightarrow #f

(and 12 'c '(f g)) \Rightarrow (f g)

(and) \Rightarrow #t
```

(or test ...)

syntax

The *test* ... expressions are evaluated from left to right, and the value of the first expression that evaluates to a true value is returned. Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all expressions evaluate to #f or if there are no expressions, then #f is returned.

(not obj)

procedure

The not procedure returns #t if obj is false, and returns #f otherwise.

(opt pred obj) (opt pred obj failval)

procedure

The opt procedure returns failval if obj is #f. If obj is not #f, opt applies predicate pred to obj and returns the result of this function application. If failval is not provided, #t is used as a default. This function is useful to verify a given predicate pred for an optional value obj.

11.11 Environments

Environments are first-class objects which associate identifiers (symbols) with values. Environments are used implicitly by the LispKit compiler and runtime system, but library (lispkit core) also provides an API allowing systems to manipulate and use environments programmatically.

For instance, when a top-level variable gets created with define, the name/value association for that variable is added to the "top-level" environment. The LispKit compiler implicitly creates environments other than the top-level environment, for example, when compiling and executing libraries.

There are several types of bindings that can occur within an environment. A *variable binding* associates a value with an identifier. This is the most common type of binding. In addition to variable bindings, environments can have *keyword bindings*. A keyword binding associates an identifier with a macro transformer (usually via syntax-rules). There are also *unassigned* bindings referring to bindings without a known value.

(environment? *obj*)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an environment. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(interaction-environment? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an interaction environment, i.e. a mutable environment in which expressions entered by the user into a read-eval-print loop are being evaluated. Otherwise, procedure interaction-environment? returns #f.

(custom-environment? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a custom environment, i.e. an environment that was programmatically constructed. Otherwise, predicate custom-environment? returns #f.

(the-environment)

syntax

Special form the-environment returns the current top-level environment. If there is none, the-environment returns #f.

Here is an example how one can print the names bound at compile-time:

(environment list1 ...)

procedure

This procedure returns an environment that results by starting with an empty environment and then importing each list, considered as an import set, into it. The bindings of the environment represented by the specifier are immutable, as is the environment itself.

(environment-bound-names env)

procedure

Returns a list of the symbols that are bound by environment *env*.

(environment-bindings env)

procedure

Returns a list of the bindings of environment *env*. Each element of this list takes one of two forms: the form (*name*) indicates that *name* is bound but unassigned, while (*name obj*) indicates that *name* is bound to value *obj*.

(environment-bound? env ident)

procedure

Returns #t if symbol ident is bound in environment env; otherwise returns #f.

(environment-lookup env ident)

procedure

Returns the value to which symbol *ident* is bound in environment *env*. This procedure throws an error if *ident* is not bound to a value in *env*.

(environment-assignable? env ident)

procedure

Symbol *ident* must be bound in environment *env*. Procedure environment-assignable? returns #t if the binding of *ident* may be modified.

(environment-assign! env ident obj)

procedure

Symbol *ident* must be bound in environment *env* and must be assignable. Procedure environment-assign! modifies the binding to have *obj* as its value.

(environment-definable? env ident)

procedure

Predicate environment-definable? returns #t if symbol *ident* is definable in environment *env*, and #f otherwise. Currently, interaction environments and custom environments allow for identifiers to be defined. For all other types of environments, this predicate returns #f independent of *ident*.

(environment-define env ident obj)

procedure

Defines *ident* to be bound to *obj* in environment *env*. This procedure signals an error if *ident* is not definable in *env*.

(environment-define-syntax env ident transf)

procedure

Defines *ident* to be a keyword bound to macro transformer *transf* (typically expressed in terms of syntax-rules) in environment *env*. This procedure signals an error if *ident* is not definable in environment *env*.

(environment-import env ident importset)

procedure

Imports the identifiers exported by a library and specified via an import set *importset* into the environment *env*. The procedure fails if the type of environment does not allow identifiers to be defined programmatically.

(environment-documentation env ident)

procedure

Returns the documentation associated with the identifier *ident* in environment *env* as a string. This procedure returns #f if *ident* is not associated with any documentation.

(environment-assign-documentation! env ident str)

procedure

Assigns the documentation string *str* to identifier *ident* in environment *env*.

(scheme-report-environment version)

procedure

If *version* is equal to 5, corresponding to R5RS, *scheme-report-environment* returns an environment that contains only the bindings defined in the R5RS library.

(null-environment version)

procedure

If *version* is equal to 5, corresponding to R5RS, the *null-environment* procedure returns an environment that contains only the bindings for all syntactic keywords defined in the R5RS library.

(interaction-environment)

procedure

This procedure returns a mutable environment which is the environment in which expressions entered by the user into a read-eval-print loop are evaluated. This is typically a superset of bindings from (*lispkit base*).

11.12 Syntax errors

(syntax-error message args ...)

syntax

syntax-error behaves similarly to error except that implementations with an expansion pass separate from evaluation should signal an error as soon as syntax-error is expanded. This can be used as a syntax-rules *template* for a *pattern* that is an invalid use of the macro, which can provide more descriptive error messages.

message is a string literal, and *args* ... are arbitrary expressions providing additional information. Applications cannot count on being able to catch syntax errors with exception handlers or guards.

```
(define-syntax simple-let
  (syntax-rules ()
     ((_ (head ... ((x . y) val) . tail) body1 body2 ...)
```

```
(syntax-error "expected an identifier but got" (x . y)))
((_ ((name val) ...) body1 body2 ...)
  ((lambda (name ...) body1 body2 ...) val ...))))
```

11.13 Loading source files

```
(load filename)
(load filename environment)
```

procedure

load reads a source file specified by *filename* and executes it in the given *environment*. If no environment is specified, the current *interaction environment* is used, which can be accessed via (interaction-environment). Execution of the file consists of reading expressions and definitions from the file, compiling them, and evaluating them sequentially in the environment. load returns the result of evaluating the last expression or definition from the file. During compilation, the special form source-directory can be used to access the directory in which the executed file is located.

It is an error if *filename* is not a string. If *filename* is not an absolute file path, LispKit will try to find the file in a predefined set of directories, such as the default libraries search path. If no file name suffix, also called *path extension*, is provided, the system will try to determine the right suffix. For instance, (load "Prelude") will find the prelude file, determine its suffix and load and execute the file.

11.14 Conditional and inclusion compilation

(cond-expand ce-clause1 ce-clause2 ...)

syntax

The cond-expand expression type provides a way to statically expand different expressions depending on the implementation. A *ce-clause* takes the following form:

```
(featurerequirement expression ...)
```

The last clause can be an "else clause," which has the form:

```
(else expression ...)
```

A featurerequirement takes one of the following forms: - featureidentifier - (library name) - (and featurerequirement ...) - (or featurerequirement)

LispKit maintains a list of feature identifiers which are present, as well as a list of libraries which can be imported. The value of a *featurerequirement* is determined by replacing each *featureidentifier* and (library name) with #t, and all other feature identifiers and library names with #f, then evaluating the resulting expression as a Scheme boolean expression under the normal interpretation of and, or, and not.

A cond-expand is then expanded by evaluating the *featurerequirements* of successive *ce-clause* in order until one of them returns #t. When a true clause is found, the corresponding *expression* ... are expanded to a begin, and the remaining clauses are ignored. If none of the listed *featurerequirement* evaluates to #t, then if there is an "else" clause, its *expression* ... are included. Otherwise, the behavior of the cond-expand is unspecified. Unlike cond, cond-expand does not depend on the value of any variables. The exact features provided are defined by the implementation, its environment and host platform.

LispKit supports the following featureidentifier:

- lispkit
- r7rs
- ratios

- complex
- syntax-rules
- little-endian
- big-endian
- dynamic-loading
- modules
- 32bit
- 64bit
- macos
- macosx
- ios
- linux
- i386
- x86-64
- arm64
- arm

(include str1 str2 ...) (include-ci str1 str2 ...)

syntax

Both include and include-ci take one or more filenames expressed as string literals, apply an implementation-specific algorithm to find corresponding files, read the contents of the files in the specified order as if by repeated applications of read, and effectively replace the include or include-ci expression with a begin expression containing what was read from the files. The difference between the two is that include-ci reads each file as if it began with the <code>#!fold-case</code> directive, while include does not.

12 LispKit CSV

Library (lispkit csv) provides a simple API for reading and writing structured data in CSV format from a text file. The API provides two different levels of abstraction: reading and writing at

- 1. line-level (lower-level API), and
- 2. record-level (higher-level API).

A text file in CSV format typically has the following structure:

```
"First name", "Last name", "Birth date"
Steve, Jobs, 1955-02-24
Bill, Gates, "1955-10-28"
"Jeff", "Bezos", "1964-01-12"
```

The first line is called the *header*. It defines the names and the order of the columns. Columns are separated by a *separator* character (which is , in the example above). The *column names* can optionally be wrapped by a *quotation* character, which is needed if the name contains, for instance, the separator character.

Each following line defines one data record which provides values for the columns defined in the header. The values are again separated by the *separator* character and they may be optionally wrapped by the *quotation* character. If a value is wrapped with a quotation character, the same character can be used within the value if it is escaped. The quotation character can be escaped by a sequence of two quotation characters (e.g. if " is used as a quotation character, "" encodes a single " character within the string value).

The client of the API decides how to handle inconsistencies between the lines, e.g. if lines have too few or too many values.

12.1 CSV ports

Both levels use a *CSV port* to configure the textual input/output port, the separator and quotation character.

```
(csv-port? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a CSV port; returns #f otherwise.

(csv-input-port? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a CSV port for reading data; returns #f otherwise.

(csv-output-port? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a CSV port for writing data; returns #f otherwise.

(make-csv-port)

(make-csv-port tport)

(make-csv-port tport sep)

(make-csv-port tport sep quote)
```

Returns a new CSV port for reading or writing data via an underlying textual port *tport*. If *tport* is an output port, the CSV port can be used for writing. If *tport* is an input port, the CSV port can be used for reading. The default for *tport* is the current input port current-input-port exported from library (lispkit port).

The separation character used by the CSV port is sep, the quotation character is quote. The default for sep is $\#\$, and for quote the default is $\#\$.

(csv-base-port csvp)

procedure

Returns the textual port on which the CSV port *csvp* is based on.

(csv-separator csvp)

procedure

Returns the separation character used by the CSV port csvp.

(csv-quotechar csvp)

procedure

Returns the quotation character used by the CSV port csvp.

12.2 Line-level API

The line-level API provides means to read a whole CSV file via csv-read and write data in CSV format via csv-write.

(csv-read csvp)

procedure

(csv-read csvp readheader?)

Reads from CSV port *csvp* first the header, if readheader? is set to #t, and then all the lines until the end of the input is reached. Procedure csv-read returns two values: the header line (a list of strings representing the column names), and a vector of all data lines, which itself are lists of strings representing the individual field values. The default for *readheader*? is #t. If *readheader*? is set to #f, the first result of csv-read is always #f.

(csv-write csvp header lines)

procedure

Writes to CSV port *csvp* first the *header* (a list of strings representing the column names) unless *header* is set to #f. Then procedure csv-write writes each line of lines. lines is a vector of lists representing the individual field values in string form.

12.3 Record-level API

The higher level API has a notion of records. The default representation for records are association lists. The functions for reading and writing records are csv-read-records and csv-write-records:

(csv-read-records csvp)

procedure

(csv-read-records csvp make-col)

(csv-read-records csvp make-col make-record)

Reads from CSV port *csvp* first the header and then all the data lines until the end of the input is reached. Header names (strings) are mapped via procedure *make-col* into *column identifiers* or *column factories* (i.e. procedures which take one argument, a column value, and they return either a representation of this column if the value is valid, or #f if the column value is invalid). With make-record a list of *column identifiers* and *column factories* as well as a list of column values (strings) of a data line are mapped into a record. Procedure csv-read-records returns a vector of records.

The default *make-col* procedure is make-symbol-column. The default make-record function is make-alist-record/excess.

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(csv-write-records csvp header records)
(csv-write-records csvp header records col->str)
(csv-write-records csvp header records col->str field->str)

procedure

First writes the header to CSV port *csvp* by mapping header, which is a list of column identifiers. to a list of header names using procedure *col->str*. Then, csv-write-records writes all the records from the vector *records* by mapping each record to a data line. This is done by applying *field->str* to all column identifiers for the record. *field->str* takes two arguments: a column identifier and the record.

The default implementation for procedure *col->str* is symbol->string. The default implementation for procedure *field->str* is alist-field->string.

(make-symbol-column str)

procedure

Returns a symbol representing the trimmed string *str*. If the trimmed string is empty, make-symbol-column returns #t. This procedure can be used for creating column identifiers out of column names in procedure csv-read-records.

(make-alist-record cols fields)

procedure

Returns a new record given a list of column identifiers or column factories (i.e. procedures which take one argument, a column value, and they return either a representation of this column if the value is valid, or #f if the column value is invalid) *cols*, and a list of column values *fields*.

This procedure represents records as association lists, iterating through all *cols* and *fields* values. If there are more *fields* values than *cols* expressions, than they are skipped. If there are more *cols* expressions than *fields* values, #f is used as a default for missing *fields* values. If a *cols* expression is a procedure, the association entry gets created by calling the procedure with the corresponding *fields* value. For all other *cols* expression types, a pair is created with the *cols* expression being the car and the *fields* value being the cdr.

(make-alist-record/excess?)

procedure

Returns a new record given a list of column identifiers or column factories (i.e. procedures which take one argument, a column value, and they return either a representation of this column if the value is valid, or #f if the column value is invalid) *cols*, and a list of column values *fields*.

This procedure represents records as association lists, iterating through all cols and fields values. If there are more fields values than cols expressions, than #f is used as a default cols expression. If there are more cols expressions than fields values, #f is used as a default for missing fields values. If a cols expression is a procedure, the association entry gets created by calling the procedure with the corresponding fields value. For all other cols expression types, a pair is created with the cols expression being the car and the fields value being the cdr.

(alist-field->string record col)

procedure

Returns the column value of column *col* from association list *record*. alist-field->string assumes that *record* is an association list whose values are strings. This is how the procedure is defined:

```
(define (alist-field->string record column)
  (cdr (assq column record)))
```

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13 LispKit Datatype

Library (lispkit datatype) implements algebraic datatypes for LispKit. It provides the following functionality:

- define-datatype creates a new algebraic datatype consisting of a type test predicate and a number of variants. Each variant implicitly defines a constructor and a pattern.
- define-pattern introduces a new pattern and constructor for an existing datatype variant.
- match matches a value of an algebraic datatype against patterns, binding pattern variables and executing the code of the first case whose pattern matches the value.

13.1 Usage

Here is an example of a datatype defining a tree for storing and finding elements:

```
(define-datatype tree tree?
  (empty)
  (node left element right) where (and (tree? left) (tree? right)))
```

The datatype tree defines a predicate tree? for checking whether a value is of type tree. In addition, it defines two variants with corresponding constructors empty and node for creating values of type tree. Variant node defines an invariant that prevents nodes from being constructed unless left and right are also trees.

The following line defines a new tree:

```
(define t1 (node (empty) 4 (node (empty) 7 (empty))))
```

Using match, values like t1 can be deconstructed using pattern matching. The following function elements shows how to collect all elements from a tree in a list:

match is a special form which takes a value of an algebraic datatype and matches it against a list of cases. Each case defines a pattern and a sequence of statements which get executed if the pattern matches the value.

Cases can also optionally define a guard which is a boolean expression that gets executed if the pattern of the case matches a value. Only if the guard evaluates to true, the statements of the case get executed. Otherwise, pattern matching continues. The following function insert demonstrates this functionality:

```
(define (insert tree x)
  (match tree
    ((empty)
        (node (empty) x (empty)))
    ((node l e r) where (< x e)
        (node (insert l x) e r))
    ((node l e r)
        (node l e (insert r x)))))</pre>
```

A new tree t2, with two new elements inserted, can be created like this:

```
(define t2 (insert (insert t1 2) 9))
```

If a pattern is used frequently containing a lot of boilerplate, it is possible to define a shortcut using the define-pattern syntax:

```
(define-pattern (single x)
  (node (empty) x (empty)))
```

With this declaration, it is possible to use single in patterns. The following example also shows that it is possible to use else for defining a fallback case, if no other pattern is matching.

```
(match t
  ((empty) #f)
  ((single x) x)
  (else (error "two many elements")))
```

single can also be used as a constructor for creating trees with a single element:

```
(single 6)
```

An advanced feature of match is the usage of pattern alternatives in a single case of a match construct. This can be achieved using the or form on the top level of a pattern:

```
(define (has-many-elements tree)
  (match tree
     ((or (empty) (single _)) #f)
     (else #t)))
```

The underscore in the (single _) subpattern is a wildcard that matches every value and that does not bind a new variable.

13.2 API

```
(define-datatype type (constr arg ...) ...)
(define-datatype type pred (constr arg ...) ...)
(define-datatype type pred (constr arg ...) where condition ...)
```

Defines a new datatype with a given number of datatype variants. The definition requires the symbol *type* denoting the new type, an optional symbol *pred* which gets bound to a type test function for testing whether a value is an instance of this type, and a list of constructors of the form *(constr arg1 arg2 ...)*

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where *constr* is the constructor and *arg1*, *arg2*, ... are parameter names of the constructor. A constructor can be annotated with an invariant for defining requirements the parameters need to meet. This is done via clause where *expr* succeeding the constructor declaration. *condition* is a boolean expression which gets checked when the constructor gets invoked.

(define-pattern (constr arg ...) (impl expr ...))

syntax

Defines a new pattern (constr arg ...) which specializes an existing pattern (impl expr ...). Such custom patterns can be used in pattern matching expressions as well as constructors for defining values of an algebraic datatype.

```
(match expr case ...)
(match expr case ... (else stat ...))
```

match provides a mechanism for decomposing values of algebraic datatypes via pattern matching. A match construct takes a value *expr* to pattern match on, as well as a sequence of cases. Each case consists of pattern alternatives, an optional guard, and a sequence of statements:

```
`(` patterns stat ... `)`
case
              `(` patterns `where` condition stat ... `)`
              pattern
patterns
           `(` `or` pattern ... `)`
                                                     ; wildcard
pattern
              var
                                                     ; variable
               `#t
                                                       literal boolean (true)
              `#f`
                                                     ; literal boolean (false)
              string
                                                     ; literal string
              number
                                                     ; literal number
              character
                                                     ; literal character
              vector
                                                     ; literal vector
              `'` expr
                                                     ; constant expression
              `,` expr
                                                     ; value (result of evaluating expr)
              pattern `as` var
                                                     ; pattern bound to variable
              '(` `list` pattern ... `)` ; list pattern with rest (` `list` pattern ... `.` var `)`; list pattern with unbound rest
                  constr pattern ... `)`
                                                     ; variant pattern
```

match iterates through the cases and executes the sequence of statements $stat\dots$ of the first case whose pattern is matching expr and whose guard condition evaluates to true. The value returned by this sequence of statements is returned by match.

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14 LispKit Date-Time

Library (lispkit date-time) provides functionality for handling time zones, dates, and times. Time zones are represented by string identifiers referring to the region and corresponding city, e.g. "America/Los_Angeles". Dates and times are represented via date-time data structures. These encapsulate the following components:

- *time zone*: the time zone of the date
- date: the date consisting of its year, month, and day
- *time*: the time on *date* consisting of the hour (>=0, < 24), the minute (>=0, < 60), the second (>=60, <60), and the nano second.

The library uses a floating-point representation of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970, as a means to refer to specific points in time independent of timezones. This means that, for instance, for comparing date-times with each other, a user would have to convert them to seconds and then compare the seconds instead. Here is an example:

For now, (lispkit date-time) assumes all dates are based on the Gregorian calendar, independent of the settings at the operating system-level.

14.1 Time zones

Time zones are represented by string identifiers referring to the region and corresponding city, e.g. "America/Los_Angeles". Procedure timezones returns a list of all supported time zone identifiers. Each time zone has a locale-specific name and an offset in seconds from Greenwhich Mean Time. Some time zones also have an abbreviation which can be used as an alternative way to identify a time zone.

```
(timezones)
(timezones filter)
```

Returns a list of string identifiers for all supported time zones. If *filter* is provided, it can either be set to #f, in which case a list of abbreviations is returned instead, or it is a string, and only time zone identifiers which contain *filter* are returned.

```
(timezones #f)

⇒ ("CEST" "GST" "NZDT" "BRST" "WEST" "AST" "MSD" "CDT" "WIT" "MSK" "COT" "IST" "EST" "BST"

□ "CLST" "NDT" "TRT" "EET" "IRST" "EDT" "BRT" "ICT" "CST" "AKST" "BDT" "PHT" "SGT" "WET"

□ "ART" "CLT" "CAT" "UTC" "EEST" "ADT" "JST" "HST" "PET" "MST" "NST" "NZST" "GMT" "MDT" "PKT"

□ "WAT" "HKT" "AKDT" "KST" "PST" "CET" "PDT" "EAT")
```

(timezone? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a valid time zone identifier or time zone abbreviation; returns #f otherwise.

(timezone) procedure

(timezone ident)

Returns the identifier for the time zone specified by *ident*. *ident* can either be an identifier, an abbreviation or a GMT offset as a floating-point number or integer. If *ident* does not refer to a supported time zone, procedure timezone will fail.

(timezone-name tx)

procedure

(timezone-name tz locale)

(timezone-name t≠ locale format)

Returns a locale-specific name for time zone tz. If *locale* is not specified, the current locale defined at the operating-system level is used. *format* specifies the name format. It can have one of the following symbolic values:

- standard
- standard-short
- dst
- dst-short
- generic
- generic-short

(timezone-abbreviation tz)

procedure

Returns a string representing a time zone abbreviation for tz; e.g. "PDT". If the time zone tz does not have an abbreviation, this function returns #f.

(timezone-gmt-offset tz)

procedure

Returns the difference in seconds between time zone tz and Greenwich Mean Time. The difference is returned as a floating-point number (since seconds are always represented as such by this library).

14.2 Time stamps

Time stamps, i.e. discreet points in time, are represented as floating-point numbers corresponding to the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970.

(current-seconds) procedure

Returns a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970.

(seconds->date-time secs) (seconds->date-time secs tx)

Converts the given number of seconds secs into date-time format for the given time zone tz. secs is a floating-point number. It is interpreted as the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970. secs is negative if the date-time is earlier than 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970. If tz is missing, the current, operating-system defined time zone is used.

(date-time->seconds dtime)

procedure

Returns a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January $\overline{1,1970}$ for the given date-time object *dtime*.

14.3 Date-times

(date-time? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a date-time object; returns #f otherwise.

(date-time)

procedure

(date-time year month day)

(date-time year month day hour)

(date-time year month day hour min)

(date-time year month day hour min sec)

(date-time year month day hour min sec nano)

(date-time tz)

(date-time tx year month day)

(date-time tx year month day hour)

(date-time t≠ year month day hour min)

(date-time tz year month day hour min sec)

(date-time tx year month day hour min sec nano)

Constructs a date-time representation out of the given date time components. tz is the only string argument; it is referring to a time zone. All other arguments are numeric arguments. This procedure returns a date-time object for the specified time at the given date. If no date components are provided as arguments, procedure date-time returns a date-time for the current date and time.

(week->date-time year week)

procedure

(week->date-time year week wday)

(week->date-time year week wday hour)

(week->date-time year week wday hour min)

(week->date-time year week wday hour min sec)

(week->date-time year week wday hour min sec nano)

(week->date-time tx year week) (week->date-time tx year week wday)

(week->date-time tx year week wday hour)

(week->date-time tz year week wday hour min)

(week->date-time tz year week wday hour min sec)

(week->date-time tx year week wday hour min sec nano)

Constructs a date-time representation out of the given date time components. tz is the only string argument; it is referring to a time zone. All other arguments are numeric arguments. Argument wday specifies the week day in the given week. Week days are given numbers from 1 (= Monday) to 7 (= Sunday). This procedure returns a date-time object for the specified time at the given date.

The difference to date-time is that this procedure does not refer to a month and day. It rather refers to the week number as well as the weekday within this specified week number.

(date-time-in-timezone dtime)

procedure

(date-time-in-timezone dtime txone)

Constructs a date-time representation of the same point in time like *dtime*, but in a potentially different time zone *tzone*. If *tzone* is not given, the default time zone specified by the user in the operating system will be used.

(string->date-time *str*)

procedure

(string->date-time str tz)

(string->date-time str (x)

(string->date-time str tz locale)

(string->date-time str tz locale format)

Extracts a date and time from the given string str in the time zone tz, or the current time zone if tz is

omitted. The format of the string representation is defined in terms of *locale* and *format*. *format* can have three different forms:

- 1. Combined format identifier for date and time: parsing is based on the settings of the operating system. *format* is one of the following symbols: none, short, medium, long, or full.
- 2. Separate format identifiers for date and time: date-time parsing is based on the settings of the operating system, but the format for dates and times is specified separately. *format* is a list of the form (*dateformat timeformat*) where both *dateformat* and *timeformat* are one of the 5 symbols listed under 1. This makes it possible, for instance, to just parse a date (without time) in string form to a date-time object, e.g. by using (short none) as *format*.
- 3. Custom format specifier: date-time parsing is based on a custom format string. *format* is a string using the following characters as placeholders. Repetitions of the placeholder characters are used to specify the width and format of the field.
 - y: Year
 - M: Month
 - d : Day
 - H: Hour (12 hours)
 - h: Hour (24 hours)
 - m: Minute
 - s: Second
 - S: Micro second
 - Z: Time zone
 - a: AM/PM
 - E: Weekday

Here are a few examples:

```
(date-time->string dtime)
(date-time->string dtime locale)
(date-time->string dtime locale format)
```

procedure

Returns a string representation of the date-time object *dtime*. The format of the string is defined in terms of *locale* and *format*. *format* can have three different forms (just like for string->date-time):

- 1. Combined format identifier for date and time: formatting is based on the settings of the operating system. *format* is one of the following symbols: none, short, medium, long, or full.
- 2. Separate format identifiers for date and time: date-time formatting is based on the settings of the operating system, but the format for dates and times is specified separately. *format* is a list of the form (*dateformat timeformat*) where both *dateformat* and *timeformat* are one of the 5 symbols listed under 1. This makes it possible, for instance, to just output a date (without time) in string form, e.g. by using (short none) as *format*.
- 3. Custom format specifier: date-time formatting is based on a custom format string. *format* is a string using the following characters as placeholders. Repetitions of the placeholder characters are used to specify the width and format of the field.

y: YearM: Month

- d : Day
- H: Hour (12 hours)
- h: Hour (24 hours)
- m: Minute
- s : Second
- S: Micro second
- Z: Time zone
- a: AM/PM
- E: Weekday

Here are a few examples:

(date-time->iso8601-string dtime)

procedure

Returns a string representation of the date-time object dtime in ISO 8601 format.

(date-time-timezone dtime)

procedure

Returns the time zone of dtime.

(date-time-year dtime)

Returns the year of dtime.

procedure

(date-time-month dtime)

Returns the month of dtime.

procedure

(date-time-day dtime)

Returns the day of dtime.

procedure

procedure

(date-time-hour dtime)

Returns the hour of dtime.

procedure

(date-time-minute dtime)

Returns the minute of dtime.

procedure

(date-time-second *dtime*)

Returns the second of dtime.

(date-time-nano dtime)

procedure

Returns the nano-second of dtime.

(date-time-weekday dtime)

procedure

Returns the week day of *dtime*. Week days are represented as fixnums where 1 is Monday, 2 is Tuesday, ..., and 7 is Sunday.

(date-time-week dtime)

procedure

Returns the week number of *dtime* according to the ISO-8601 standard. Based on this standard, weeks start on Monday. The first week of the year is the week that contains that year's first Thursday.

(date-time-dst-offset dtime)

procedure

Returns the daylight saving time offset of *dtime* in seconds related to GMT. If daylight savings time is not active, date-time-dst-offset returns 0.0. The result is always a floating-point number.

(date-time-hash dtime)

procedure

Returns a hash code for the given date-time object. This hash code can be used in combination with both date-time=? and date-time-same? .

14.4 Date-time predicates

(date-time-same? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time dtime1 and dtime2 have the same timezone and refer to the same point in time, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) and (date-time->seconds dtime2) are equals.

```
(define d1 (date-time 'CET))
(define d2 (date-time-in-timezone d1 'PST))
(date-time-same? d1 d1) ⇒ #t
(date-time-same? d1 d2) ⇒ #f
(date-time=? d1 d2) ⇒ #t
```

(date-time=? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time dtime1 and dtime2 specify the same point in time, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) and (date-time->seconds dtime2) are equals.

(date-time<? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time dtime1 specifies an earlier point in time compared to dtime2, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) is less than (date-time->seconds dtime2).

(date-time>? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time dtime1 specifies a later point in time compared to dtime2, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) is greater than (date-time->seconds dtime2).

(date-time<=? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time *dtime1* specifies an earlier or equal point in time compared to *dtime2*, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) is less than or equal to (date-time->seconds dtime2).

(date-time>=? dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Returns #t if date-time dtime1 specifies a later or equal point in time compared to dtime2, i.e. (date-time->seconds dtime1) is greater than or equal to (date-time->seconds dtime2).

(date-time-has-dst? dtime)

procedure

Returns #t if daylight saving time is active for *dtime*; returns #f otherwise.

14.5 Date-time operations

(date-time-add dtime days)

procedure

(date-time-add dtime days hrs)

(date-time-add dtime days hrs min)

(date-time-add dtime days hrs min sec)

(date-time-add dtime days hrs min sec nano)

Compute a new date-time from adding *days*, *hrs*, *min*, *sec*, and *nano* (all fixnums) to the given date-time *dtime*. The resulting date-time is using the same timezone like *dtime*.

(date-time-add-seconds dtime sec)

procedure

Compute a new date-time from adding the number of seconds sec (a flonum) to the given date-time dtime.

(date-time-diff-seconds dtime1 dtime2)

procedure

Computes the difference between dtime2 and dtime1 as a number of seconds (a flonum).

(next-dst-transition dtime)

procedure

Returns the date and time when the next daylight savings time transition takes place after *dtime*. next-dst-transition returns #f if there is no daylight savings time for the time zone of *dtime*.

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15 LispKit Debug

Library (lispkit debug) provides utilities for debugging code. Available are procedures for measuring execution latencies, for tracing procedure calls, for expanding macros, for disassembling code, as well as for inspecting the execution environment.

15.1 Timing execution

(time expr) syntax

time compiles *expr* and executes it. The form displays the time it took to execute *expr* as a side-effect. It returns the result of executing *expr*.

(time-values expr) syntax

time-values executes expr. If expr evaluates to n values $x1, \ldots, xn$, time-values returns n+1 values $t, x1, \ldots, xn$ where t is the time it takes to evaluate expr.

15.2 Tracing procedure calls

```
(trace-calls)
(trace-calls level)
```

This function is used to enable/disable call tracing. When call tracing is enabled, all function calls that are executed by the virtual machine are being printed to the console. Call tracing operates at three levels:

- 0 : Call tracing is switched off
- 1 : Call tracing is enabled only for procedures for which it is enabled (via function set-procedure-trace!)
- 2 : Call tracing is switched on for all procedures (independent of procedure-level tracing being enabled or disabled)

(trace-calls n) will set call tracing to level n . If the level is ommitted, trace-calls will return the current call tracing level.

For instance, if call tracing is enabled via (trace-calls 2), executing (fib 3) will print the following call trace.

```
← #t from < in fib
← 1 from fib in fib
→ (- 2 2) in fib
← 0 from -
→ (fib 0) in fib
→ (< 0 2) in fib
← #t from < in fib
← 0 from fib in fib
⅓ (+ 1 0) in fib
← 1 from fib</pre>
```

(procedure-trace? *proc*)

procedure

Returns #f if procedure-level call tracing is disabled for *proc*, #t otherwise.

(set-procedure-trace! proc trace?)

procedure

Enables procedure-level call tracing for procedure *proc* if *trace?* is set to #t . It disables call tracing for *proc* if *trace?* is #f .

15.3 Macro expansion

(quote-expanded expr)

syntax

quote-expanded is syntax for macro-expanding expression *expr* in the current syntactical environment. Macro-expansion is applied consecutively as long as the top-level can be expanded further.

(quote-expanded-1 expr)

syntax

quote-expanded-1 is syntax for macro-expanding expression *expr* in the current syntactical environment. Macro-expansion is applied at most once, even if the top-level can be expanded further.

```
(quote-expanded-1 (for x in '(1 2 3) (display x)))
⇒ (dolist (x (quote (1 2 3))) (display x))
```

(macroexpand expr) (macroexpand expr env)

procedure

Procedure macroexpand applies macro-expansion to the expression *expr* in the environment *env* as long as the expression on its top-level can be expanded further. If *env* is not provided, the current interaction environment is used.

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(macroexpand-1 *expr*) (macroexpand-1 *expr env*)

procedure

Procedure macroexpand-1 applies macro-expansion to the expression *expr* in the environment *env* at most once. The resulting expression might therefore only be partially expanded at the top-level. If *env* is not provided, the current interaction environment is used.

15.4 Disassembling code

(compile *expr*) (compile *expr env*)

procedure

Compiles expression expr in environment env and displays the disassembled code. If env is not given, the current interaction environment is used. This is what is being printed when executing (compile '(do $((i \ 0 \ (fx1+ \ i)))((fx> \ i \ 10))(display \ i)(newline)))$:

```
CONSTANTS:
   0: ##cedure display>
   1: ##rocedure newline>
INSTRUCTIONS:
   0: alloc 1
   1: push_fixnum 0
   2: make_local_variable 0
   3: push_local_value 0
   4: push_fixnum 10
   5: fx_gt
   6: branch_if 14
                                      ;; jump to 20
   7: make_frame
   8: push_constant 0
                                      ;; #rocedure display>
   9: push_local_value 0
  10: call 1
  11: pop
  12: make_frame
  13: push_constant 1
                                      ;; ##cedure newline>
  14: call 0
  15: pop
  16: push_local_value 0
  17: fx_inc
  18: set_local_value 0
  19: branch -16
                                      ;; jump to 3
  20: push_void
  21: reset 0, 1
  22: return
```

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procedure

procedure

(disassemble proc)

Disassembles procedure *proc* and prints out the code. This is what is being printed when executing (disassemble caddr):

```
CONSTANTS:
INSTRUCTIONS:

0: assert_arg_count 1

1: push_global 426

2: make_frame

3: push_global 431

4: push_local 0

5: call 1

6: tail_call 1
```

15.5 Execution environment

(gc) procedure

Force garbage collection to be performed.

(available-symbols) procedure

Returns a list of all symbols that have been used so far.

(loaded-libraries) procedure

Returns a list of all libraries that have been loaded so far.

```
> (loaded-libraries)
((lispkit draw) (lispkit base) (lispkit port) (lispkit control) (lispkit type) (lispkit list)

- (lispkit string) (lispkit math) (lispkit date-time) (lispkit dynamic) (lispkit char-set)

- (lispkit bytevector) (lispkit char) (lispkit vector) (lispkit regexp) (lispkit record)

- (lispkit hashtable) (lispkit system) (lispkit core) (lispkit gvector) (lispkit box))
```

(loaded-sources)

Returns a list of all sources that have been loaded.

(environment-info) procedure

Prints out debug information about the current execution environment (mostly relevant for developing LispKit).

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16 LispKit Disjoint-Set

Library (lispkit disjoint-set) implements disjoint sets, a mutable union-find data structure that tracks a set of elements partitioned into disjoint subsets. Disjoint sets are based on hashtables and require the definition of an equality and a hash function.

(disjoint-set? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a disjoint set object; otherwise #f is returned.

(make-eq-disjoint-set)

procedure

Returns a new empty disjoint set using eq as equality and eq-hash as hash function.

(make-eqv-disjoint-set)

procedure

Returns a new empty disjoint set using eqv as equality and eqv-hash as hash function.

(make-disjoint-set comparator)

procedure

(make-disjoint-set hash eql)

Returns a new empty disjoint set using *eql* as equality and *hash* as hash function. Instead of providing two functions, a new disjoint set can also be created based on a *comparator*.

(disjoint-set-make dset x)

procedure

Adds a new singleton set x to dset if element x does not exist already in disjoint set dset.

(disjoint-set-find dset x)

procedure

(disjoint-set-find dset x default)

Looks up element *x* in *dset* and returns the set in which *x* is currently contained. Returns *default* if element *x* is not found. If *default* is not provided, disjoint-set-find uses #f instead.

(disjoint-set-union dset x y)

procedure

Unifies the sets containing *x* and *y* in disjoint set *dset*.

(disjoint-set-size *dset*)

procedure

Returns the number of sets in *dset*.

17 LispKit Draw

Library (lispkit draw) provides an API for creating drawings. A drawing is defined in terms of a sequence of instructions for drawing shapes and images. Drawings can be composed and saved as a PDF. It is also possible to draw a drawing into a bitmap and save it in formats like PNG, JPG, or TIFF. A bitmap is a special *image* that is not based on vector graphics.

Both drawings and shapes are based on a coordinate system whose zero point is in the upper left corner of a plane. The x and y axis extend to the right and down. Coordinates and dimensions are always expressed in terms of floating-point numbers.

17.1 Drawings

Drawings are mutable objects created via make-drawing. The functions listed in this section change the state of a drawing object and they persist drawing instructions defining the drawing. For most functions, the drawing is an optional argument. If it is not provided, the function applies to the drawing provided by the current-drawing parammeter object.

current-drawing parameter object

Defines the current drawing, which is used as a default by all functions for which the drawing argument is optional. If there is no current drawing, this parameter is set to #f.

(drawing? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is a drawing. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(make-drawing)

Returns a new, empty drawing. A drawing consists of a sequence of drawing instructions and drawing state consisting of the following components:

- Stroke color (set via set-color)
- Fill color (set via fill-color)
- Shadow (set via set-shadow and remove-shadow)
- Transformation (add transformation via enable-transformation and remove via disabletransformation)

procedure

(copy-drawing drawing)

Returns a copy of the given drawing.

procedure

(set-color color)

(set-color color drawing)

Sets the stroke color for the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is not provided.

(set-fill-color color) procedure (set-fill-color color drawing)

Sets the *fill color* for the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is not provided.

(set-line-width width) procedure

(set-line-width width drawing)

Sets the default *stroke width* for the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is not provided.

(set-shadow color size blur-radius)

procedure

(set-shadow color size blur-radius drawing)

Defines a shadow for the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is not provided. *color* is the color of the shade, *blur-radius* defines the radius for bluring the shadow.

(remove-shadow)

procedure

(remove-shadow drawing)

Removes shadow for the subsequent drawing instructions of the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is missing.

(enable-transformation tf)

procedure

(enable-transformation tf drawing)

Enables the transformation *tf* for subsequent drawing instructions of the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is missing. Each drawing maintains an active affine transformation for shifting, rotating, and scaling the coordinate systems of subsequent drawing instructions.

(disable-transformation tf)

procedure

(disable-transformation tf drawing)

Disables the transformation *tf* for subsequent drawing instructions of the given drawing, or current-drawing if the drawing argument is missing.

(draw shape)

procedure

(draw shape width)

(draw shape width drawing)

Draws *shape* with a given stroke *width* into the drawing specified via *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. The default for *width*, in case it is not provided, is set via *set-line-width*. The stroke is drawn in the current stroke color of the drawing.

(draw-dashed shape lengths phase)

procedure

(draw-dashed shape lengths phase width)

(draw-dashed shape lengths phase width drawing)

Draws *shape* with a dashed stroke of width *width* into the drawing specified via *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. 1.0 is the default for *width* in case it is not provided. *lengths* specifies an alternating list of dash/space lengths. *phase* determines the start of the dash/space pattern. The dashed stroke is drawn in the current stroke color of the drawing.

(fill shape)

procedure

(fill shape drawing)

Fills *shape* with the current *fill color* in the drawing specified via *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided.

(fill-gradient shape colors)

procedure

(fill-gradient shape colors spec)

(fill-gradient shape colors spec drawing)

Fills *shape* with a gradient in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. The gradient is specified in terms of a list of *colors* and argument *spec. spec* can either be a number or a point. If *spec* is a number, this number determines an angle for a linear gradient. If *spec* is a point, it is the center of a radial gradient.

(draw-line start end)

procedure

(draw-line start end drawing)

Draws a line between point *start* and point *end* in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing, if *drawing* is not provided. The line is drawn in the default *stroke width* and the current *stroke color*.

(draw-rect rect)

procedure

(draw-rect rect drawing)

Draws a rectangular given by *rect* in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing, if *drawing* is not provided. The rectangular is drawn in the default *stroke width* and the current *stroke color*.

(fill-rect rect)

procedure

(fill-rect rect drawing)

Fills a rectangular given by *rect* with the current *fill color* in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing, if *drawing* is not provided.

(draw-ellipse rect)

procedure

(draw-ellipse rect drawing)

Draws an ellipse into the rectangular *rect* in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing, if *drawing* is not provided. The ellipse is drawn in the default *stroke width* and the current *stroke color*.

(fill-ellipse rect)

procedure

(fill-ellipse rect drawing)

Fills an ellipse given by rectangular *rect* with the current *fill color* in the drawing specified via argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing , if *drawing* is not provided.

(draw-text str location font)

procedure

(draw-text str location font color)

(draw-text str location font color drawing)

Draws string *str* at *location* in the given font and color in the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. *location* is either the left, top-most point at which the string is drawn, or it is a rect specifying a bounding box. *color* specifies the text color. If it is not provided, the text is drawn in black.

(text-size text)

procedure

(text-size text font)

(text-size text font dimensions)

Returns a size object describing the width and height needed to draw string *html* using *font* in a space constrained by *dimensions*. *dimensions* is either a size object specifying the maximum width and height, or it is a number constraining the width only, assuming infinite hight. If *dimensions* is omitted, the maximum width and height is infinity.

(draw-html html location)

procedure

(draw-html html location drawing)

Draws a string *html* containing HTML source code at *location* in the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. *location* is either the left, top-most point at which the HTML is drawn, or it is a rect specifying a bounding box.

(html-size html)

procedure

(html-size html dimensions)

Returns a size object describing the width and height needed to render the HTML in string *html* in a space constrained by *dimensions*. *dimensions* is either a size object specifying the maximum width and height, or

it is a number constraining the width only, assuming infinite hight. If *dimensions* is omitted, the maximum width and height is infinity.

(draw-image image location)

procedure

(draw-image image location opacity)

(draw-image image location opacity composition)

(draw-image image location opacity composition drawing)

Draws image *image* at *location* with the given *opacity* and *composition* method. The image is drawn in the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. *location* is either the left, top-most point at which the image is drawn, or it is a rect specifying a bounding box for the image. *composition* is a floating-point number between 0.0 (= transparent) and 1.0 (= completely not transparent) with 1.0 being the default. *composition* refers to a symbol specifying a composition method. The following methods are supported (the source is the image, the destination is the drawing):

- clear: Transparency everywhere.
- copy: The source image (default).
- multiply: The source color is multiplied by the destination color.
- overlay: Source colors overlay the destination.
- source-over: The source image wherever it is opaque, and the destination elsewhere.
- source-in: The source image wherever both images are opaque, and transparent elsewhere.
- source-out: The source image wherever it is opaque and the destination is transparent, and transparent elsewhere.
- source-atop: The source image wherever both source and destination are opaque, the destination wherever it is opaque but the source image is transparent, and transparent elsewhere.
- destination-over: The destination wherever it is opaque, and the source image elsewhere.
- destination-in: The destination wherever both images are opaque, and transparent elsewhere.
- destination-out: The destination wherever it is opaque and the source image is transparent, and transparent elsewhere.
- destination—atop: The destination wherever both image and destination are opaque, the source image wherever it is opaque and the destination is transparent, and transparent elsehwere.

(draw-drawing other)

(draw-drawing other drawing)

procedure

Draws drawing *other* into the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. This function can be used to compose drawings.

(clip-drawing other clippingshape) (clip-drawing other clippingshape drawing)

procedure

Draws drawing *other* into the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. This function clips the drawing using shape *clippingshape*; i.e. only parts within *clippingshape* are drawn.

(inline-drawing other)

(inline-drawing other drawing)

procedure

Draws drawing *other* into the drawing specified by argument *drawing* or parameter object current-drawing if *drawing* is not provided. This function can be used to compose drawings in a way such that the drawing instructions from *other* are inlined into *drawing*.

(save-drawing path drawing size)

(save-drawing path drawing size title)

(save-drawing path drawing size title author)

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procedure

Saves drawing into a PDF file at the given filepath path. size is a size specifying the width and height of the PDF page containing the drawing in points; i.e. the media box of the page is (rect zero-point size). title and author are optional strings defining the title and author metadata for the generated PDF file.

(save-drawings path pages)

procedure

(save-drawings path pages title)

(save-drawings path pages title author)

Saves a list of pages into a PDF file at the given filepath path. A page is defined in terms of a list of two elements (drawing size), where drawing is a drawing for that page and size is a media box for the page. title and author are optional strings defining the title and author metadata for the generated PDF file.

(drawing body ...)

Creates a new empty drawing, binds parameter object current-drawing to it and executes the body statements in the dynamic scope of this binding. This special form returns the new drawing.

(with-drawing drawing body ...)

syntax

Binds parameter object current-drawing to drawing and executes the body statements in the dynamic scope of this binding. This special form returns the result of the last statement in the body.

(transform tf body ...)

This form is used in the context of drawing into current-drawing. It enables the transformation tf, executes the statements in the body and disables the transformation again.

17.2 Shapes

Shapes are mutable objects created via a number of constructors, including make-shape, copy-shape , line , polygon , rectangular , circle , oval , arc ,and glyphs . Besides the constructors, functions like move-to, line-to and curve-to are used to extend a shape. For those functions, the affected shape is an optional argument. If it is not provided, the function applies to the shape defined by the current-shape parammeter object.

current-shape

parameter object

Defines the current shape, which is used as a default by all functions for which the shape argument is optional. If there is no current shape, this parameter is set to #f.

(shape? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a shape. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(make-shape)

procedure

(make-shape prototype)

Returns a new shape object. If argument prototype is provided, the new shape object will inherit from shape *prototype*; i.e. the new shape's definition will extend the definition of shape *prototype*.

(copy-shape shape)

procedure

Returns a copy of *shape*.

(line start end)

procedure

Retuns a new line shape. start and end are the start and end points of the line.

(polygon point ...)

procedure

Returns a new polygon shape. The polygon is defined in terms of a sequence of points.

(rectangle point size)

procedure

(rectangle point size radius)

(rectangle point size xradius yradius)

Returns a new rectangular shape. The rectangle is defined in terms of the left, topmost point and a *size* defining both width and height of the rectangle. The optional *radius*, *xradius* and *yradius* arguments are used to create a rounded rectangular whose rounded edges are defined in terms of an x and y-radius. If only one radius is provided, it defines both x and y-radius.

(circle point radius)

procedure

Returns a new circle shape. The circle is defined in terms of a center point and a radius.

(oval point size)

procedure

Returns a new oval shape. The oval is defined in terms of a rectangle whose left, topmost point is provided as argument *point*, and whose width and height are given via argument *size*.

(arc point radius start end)

procedure

(arc point radius start end clockwise)

Returns a new arc shape. The arc is defined via the arguments *point*, *radius*, *start*, *end* and optionally *clockwise*. *point* is the starting point of the arc, *radius* defines the radius of the arc, *start* is a starting angle in radians, and *end* is the end angle in radians. *clockwise* is a boolean argument defining whether the arc is drawn clockwise or counter-clockwise. The default is #t.

(glyphs str point size font)

procedure

Returns a new "glyphs" shape. This is a shape defined by a string *str* rendered in the given size and font at a given point. *font* is a font object, *size* is the font size in points, and *point* are the start coordinates where the glyphs are drawn.

(transform-shape *shape tf*)

procedure

Returns a new shape derived from shape by applying transformation tf.

(flip-shape shape)

procedure

(flip-shape shape box)

(flip-shape shape box orientation)

Returns a new shape by flipping/mirroring *shape* within *box*. *box* is a rect. If it is not provided, the bounding box of *shape* is used as a default. Argument *orientation* is a symbol defining along which axis the shape is flipped. Supported are horizontal, vertical, and mirror. Default is vertical.

(interpolate points)

procedure

(interpolate points closed)

(interpolate points closed alpha)

(interpolate points closed alpha method)

Returns a shape interpolating a list of points. closed is an optional boolean argument specifying whether the shape is closed. The default for closed is #f. alpha is an interpolation parameter in the range [0.0,1.0]; default is 0.33. method specifies the interpolation method via a symbol. The following two methods are supported: hermite and catmull-rom; default is hermite.

(move-to point)

procedure

(move-to point shape)

Sets the "current point" to *point* for the shape specified by argument *shape* or parameter object current-shape if *shape* is not provided.

(line-to point ...)

procedure

(line-to point ... shape)

Creates a line from the "current point" to *point* for the shape specified by argument *shape* or parameter object current-shape if *shape* is not provided. *point* becomes the new "current point".

(curve-to point cntrl1 cntrl2)

procedure

(curve-to point cntrl1 cntrl2 shape)

Creates a curve from the "current point" to *point* for the shape specified by argument *shape* or parameter object current-shape if *shape* is not provided. *cntrl1* and *cntrl2* are control points defining tangets shaping the curve at the start and end points.

(relative-move-to point)

procedure

(relative-move-to point shape)

This function is equivalent to move-to with the exception that *point* is relative to the "current point".

(relative-line-to point ...)

procedure

(relative-line-to point ... shape)

This function is equivalent to line-to with the exception that *point* is relative to the "current point".

(relative-curve-to point cntrl1 cntrl2)

procedure

(relative-curve-to point cntrl1 cntrl2 shape)

This function is equivalent to curve-to with the exception that *point*, *cntrl1* and *cntrl2* are relative to the "current point".

(add-shape other)

procedure

(add-shape other shape)

Adds shape *other* to the shape specified by argument *shape* or parameter object current-shape if *shape* is not provided. This function is typically used to compose shapes.

(shape-bounds shape)

procedure

Returns the bounding box for the given shape as a rect.

(shape body ...)

svntax

Creates a new empty shape, binds parameter object current-shape to it and executes the body statements in the dynamic scope of this binding. This special form returns the new drawing.

(with-shape shape body ...)

syntax

Binds parameter object current-shape to *shape* and executes the body statements in the dynamic scope of this binding. This special form returns the result of the last statement in the body.

17.3 Images

Images are objects representing immutable pictures of mutable size and metadata. Images are either loaded from image files or they are created from drawings. Images are either vector-based or bitmap-based. The current image API only allows loading vector-based images from PDF files. Bitmap-based images, on the other hand, can be loaded from PNG, JPG, GIF, etc. image files or they are created by drawing a drawing object into an empty bitmap. Bitmap-based images optionally have mutable EXIF data.

(image? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an image. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(load-image path)

procedure

Loads an image from the file at *path* and returns the corresponding image object.

(load-image-asset path type)

procedure

(load-image-asset path type dir)

Loads an image from the file at the given relative file *path* and returns the corresponding image object. *type* refers to the default suffix of the file to load (e.g. "png" for PNG images).

load-image-asset constructs a relative file path in the following way (assuming *path* does not have a suffix already):

dir/path.type

where *dir* is "Images" if it is not provided as a parameter. It then searches the asset paths in their given order for a file matching this relative file path. Once the first matching file is found, the file is loaded as an image file and the image gets returned by load-image-asset. It is an error if no matching image was found.

(image-size image)

procedure

Returns the size of the given image object in points.

(set-image-size! image size)

procedure

Sets the size of *image* to *size*, a size in points.

(bitmap? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a bitmap-based image. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(bitmap-size bmap)

procedure

Returns the size of the bitmap bmap in points. If bmap is not a bitmap object, bitmap-size returns #f

(bitmap-pixels bmap)

procedure

Returns the number of horizontal and vertical pixels of the bitmap *bmap* as a size. If *bmap* is not a bitmap object, bitmap-size returns #f.

(bitmap-exif-data bmap)

procedure

Returns the EXIF metadata associated with bitmap bmap. EXIF metadata is represented as an association list in which symbols are used as keys.

```
> (define photo (load-image (asset-file-path "Regensberg" "jpeg" "Images")))
> (bitmap-exif-data photo)
((ExposureBiasValue . 0)
 (CustomRendered . 6)
 (SensingMethod . 2)
 (SubsecTimeOriginal . "615")
 (SubsecTimeDigitized . "615")
 (Flash . 0)
 (ExposureTime . 0.00040306328093510683)
 (OffsetTime . "+01:00")
 (PixelXDimension . 8066)
 (ExifVersion 2 3 1)
 (OffsetTimeDigitized . "+01:00")
 (ISOSpeedRatings 25)
 (OffsetTimeOriginal . "+01:00")
 (DateTimeDigitized . "2019:10:27 14:21:39")
 (FlashPixVersion 1 0)
 (WhiteBalance . ⊙)
 (PixelYDimension . 3552)
 (LensSpecification 4.25 4.25 1.7999999523162842 1.7999999523162842)
 (ColorSpace . 65535)
 (LensModel . "iPhone XS back camera 4.25mm f/1.8")
 (SceneCaptureType . 0)
 (ApertureValue . 1.6959938128383605)
 (SceneType . 1)
 (ShutterSpeedValue . 11.276932534193945)
 (FocalLength . 4.25)
 (FNumber . 1.8)
 (LensMake . "Apple")
 (FocalLenIn35mmFilm . 26)
 (BrightnessValue . 10.652484683458134)
 (ComponentsConfiguration 1 2 3 0)
 (MeteringMode . 5)
 (DateTimeOriginal . "2019:10:27 14:21:39"))
```

(set-bitmap-exif-data! bmap exif)

procedure

Sets the EXIF metadata for the given bitmap *bmap* to *exif*. *exif* is an association list defining all the EXIF attributes with symbols being used as keys.

```
> (define photo (load-image (asset-file-path "Regensberg" "jpeg" "Images")))
> (set-bitmap-exif-data! photo
    '((ExposureBiasValue . 0)
      (Flash . 0)
      (ExposureTime . 0.0005)
      (PixelXDimension . 8066)
      (PixelYDimension . 3552)
      (ExifVersion 2 3 1)
      (ISOSpeedRatings 25)
      (FlashPixVersion 1 0)
      (WhiteBalance . ⊙)
      (LensSpecification 4.25 4.25 1.7999999523162842 1.7999999523162842)
      (ColorSpace . 65535)
      (SceneCaptureType . 0)
      (ApertureValue . 1.6959938128383605)
      (SceneType . 1)
      (ShutterSpeedValue . 11.276932534193945)
      (FocalLength . 4.25)
      (FNumber . 1.8)
      (BrightnessValue . 10.652484683458134)
      (ComponentsConfiguration 1 2 3 0)
      (OffsetTime . "+01:00")
      (OffsetTimeOriginal . "+01:00")
      (DateTimeOriginal . "2019:10:27 14:21:39")
      (OffsetTimeDigitized . "+01:00")
      (DateTimeDigitized . "2019:10:27 14:21:39"))
  )
```

(make-bitmap drawing size) (make-bitmap drawing size ppi)

procedure

Creates a new bitmap-based image by drawing the object *drawing* into an empty bitmap of size *size* in points. *ppi* determines the number of pixels per inch. By default, *ppi* is set to 72. In this case, the number of pixels of the bitmap corresponds to the number of points (since 1 pixel corresponds to 1/72 of an inch). For a *ppi* value of 144, the horizontal and vertial number of pixels is doubled, etc.

(bitmap-crop bitmap rect)

procedure

Crops a rectangle from the given bitmap and returns the result in a new bitmap. *rect* is a rectangle in pixels. Its intersection with the dimensions of *bitmap* (in pixels) are used for cropping.

(bitmap-blur bitmap radius)

procedure

Blurs the given bitmap with the given blur radius and returns the result in a new bitmap of the same size.

(save-bitmap path bitmap format)

procedure

Saves a given bitmap-based image *bitmap* in a file at filepath *path*. *format* is a symbol specifying the image file format. Supported are: png , jpg , gif , bmp , and tiff .

(bitmap->bytevector bitmap format)

procedure

Returns a bytevector with an encoding of *bitmap* in the given format. *format* is a symbol specifying the image format. Supported are: png, jpg, gif, bmp, and tiff.

17.4 Transformations

A transformation is an immutable object defining an affine transformation. Transformations can be used to:

- · shift,
- scale, and
- rotate coordinate systems.

Transformations are typically used in drawings to transform drawing instructions. They can also be used to transform shapes.

(transformation? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a transformation. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(transformation *tf* ...)

procedure

Creates a new transformation by composing the given transformations *tf*.

(invert *tf*)

procedure

Inverts transformation tf and returns a new transformation object for it.

(translate dx dy)

procedure

(translate dx dy tf)

Returns a transformation for shifting the coordinate system by dx and dy. If transformation tf is provided, the translation transformation extends tf.

(scale dx dy)

procedure

(scale dx dy tf)

Returns a transformation for scaling the coordinate system by dx and dy. If transformation tf is provided, the scaling transformation extends tf.

(rotate angle)

procedure

(rotate angle tf)

Returns a transformation for rotating the coordinate system by *angle* (in radians). If transformation *tf* is provided, the rotation transformation extends *tf*.

17.5 Colors

Colors are immutable objects defining colors in terms of four components: red, green, blue and alpha. Library (lispkit draw) currently only supports RGB color spaces.

(lispkit draw) supports the concept of *color lists* on *macOS*. A color list is provided as a .plist file and stored in the "ColorLists" asset directory of LispKit. It maps color names expressed as symbols to color values. Color lists need to be loaded explicitly via procedure load-color-list.

(color? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a color. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(color spec)

procedure

(color name clist)

 $(\operatorname{color} r g b)$

 $(color \ r \ g \ b \ alpha)$

This procedure returns new color objects. If *spec* is provided, it either is a string containing a color description in hex format, or it is a symbol referring to the name of a color in the default color list (White

Yellow Red Purple Orange Magenta Green Cyan Brown Blue Black). If a different color list should be used, its name can be specified via string *clist*. Procedure (available-color-lists) returns a list of all available color lists. If the color is specified via a hex string, the following formats can be used: "ccc", "#ccc", "rrggbb", and "#rrggbb".

The color can also be specified using color components r, g, b, and alpha. alpha determines the transparency of the color (0.0 = fully transparent, 1.0 = no transparency). The default value for alpha is 1.0.

(color-red color)

procedure

Returns the red color component of *color*.

(color-green color)

procedure

Returns the green color component of *color*.

(color-blue color)

procedure

Returns the blue color component of *color*.

(color-alpha color)

procedure

Returns the alpha color component of color.

```
(color->alpha (color 1.0 0.5 0.1)) \Rightarrow 1.0
(color->alpha (color 1.0 0.1 0.5 0.4)) \Rightarrow 0.4
```

(color->hex color)

procedure

Returns a representation of the given *color* in hex form as a string.

```
(color->hex (color 1.0 0.5 0.1)) ⇒ "#FF801A"
(color->hex (color "#6AF")) ⇒ "#66AAFF"
(color->hex red) ⇒ "#FF0000"
```

black

object

gray

white

red

green

blue

yellow

Predefined color objects.

(available-color-lists)

procedure

Returns a list of available color lists. The LispKit installation guarantees that there is at least color list "HTML" containing all named colors from the HTML 5 specification.

```
(available-color-lists)
⇒ ("HTML" "Web Safe Colors" "Crayons" "System" "Apple")
```

(load-color-list name path)

procedur

Loads a new color list stored as a .plist file in the assets directory of LispKit at the given file *path* (which can also refer to color lists outside of the assets directory via absolute file paths). *name* is a string which specifies the name of the color list. It is added to the list of available colors if loading of the color list was successful. load-color-list returns #t if the color list could be successfully loaded, #f otherwise.

(available-colors clist)

procedure

Returns a list of color identifiers supported by the given color list. *clist* is a string specifying the name of the color list.

(available-colors "HTML") ⇒ (YellowGreen Yellow WhiteSmoke White Wheat Violet Turquoise Tomato Thistle Teal Tan 🛶 SteelBlue Snow SlateGrey SlateGray SlateBlue SkyBlue Silver Sienna SeaShell SeaGreen 🛶 SandyBrown Salmon SaddleBrown RoyalBlue RosyBrown Red RebeccaPurple Purple PowderBlue Plum up Pink Peru PeachPuff PapayaWhip PaleVioletRed PaleTurquoise PaleGreen PaleGoldenRod Orchid OrangeRed Orange OliveDrab Olive OldLace Navy NavajoWhite Moccasin MistyRose MintCream → MidnightBlue MediumVioletRed MediumTurquoise MediumSpringGreen MediumSlateBlue → MediumSeaGreen MediumPurple MediumOrchid MediumBlue MediumAquaMarine Maroon Magenta Linen LimeGreen Lime LightYellow LightSteelBlue LightSlateGrey LightSlateGray LightSkyBlue LightSeaGreen LightSalmon LightPink LightGrey LightGreen LightGray LightGoldenRodYellow ៹ LightCyan LightCoral LightBlue LemonChiffon LawnGreen LavenderBlush Lavender Khaki Ivory Indigo IndianRed HotPink HoneyDew Grey GreenYellow Green Gray GoldenRod Gold GhostWhite Gainsboro Fuchsia ForestGreen FloralWhite FireBrick DodgerBlue DimGrey DimGray DeepSkyBlue ៹ DeepPink DarkViolet DarkTurquoise DarkSlateGrey DarkSlateGray DarkSlateBlue DarkSeaGreen DarkSalmon DarkRed DarkOrchid DarkOrange DarkOliveGreen DarkMagenta DarkKhaki DarkGrey DarkGreen DarkGray DarkGoldenRod DarkCyan DarkBlue Cyan Crimson Cornsilk CornflowerBlue 🕁 Coral Chocolate Chartreuse CadetBlue BurlyWood Brown BlueViolet Blue BlanchedAlmond Black → Bisque Beige Azure Aquamarine Aqua AntiqueWhite AliceBlue)

17.6 Fonts

Fonts are immutable objects defining fonts in terms of a font name and a font size (in points).

(font? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a font. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(font fontname size)

(font familyname size weight trait ...)

If only two arguments, *fontname* and *size*, are provided, font will return a new font object for a font with the given font name and font size (in points). If more than two arguments are provided, font will return a new font object for a font with the given font family name, font size (in points), font weight, as well as a number of font traits.

The weight of a font is specified as an integer on a scale from 0 to 15. Library (lispkit draw) exports the following weight constants:

- ultralight (1)
- thin (2)
- light (3)
- book (4)
- normal (5)
- medium (6)
- demi (7)
- semi (8)
- bold (9)
- extra (10)
- heavy (11)
- super (12)
- ultra (13)
- extrablack (14)

Font traits are specified as integer masks. The following trait constants are exported from library (lisp-kit draw):

• italic

- boldface
- unitalic
- unboldface
- narrow
- expanded
- condensed
- small-caps
- poster
- compressed
- monospace

(font-name font)

procedure

Returns the font name of font.

(font-family-name font)

procedure

Returns the font family name of font.

(font-size font)

procedure

Returns the font size of *font* in points.

(font-weight font)

procedure

Returns the font weight of font. See documentation of function font for details.

(font-traits font)

procedure

Returns the font traits of font as an integer bitmask. See documentation of function font for details.

(font-has-traits font trait ...)

procedure

Returns #t if font font has all the given traits.

(available-fonts)

procedure

(available-fonts trait ...)

Returns all the available fonts that have matching font traits.

(available-font-families)

procedure

Returns all the available font families, i.e. all font families for which there is at least one font installed.

17.7 Points

A point describes a location on a two-dimensional plane consisting of a x and y coordinate. Points are represented as pairs of floating-point numbers where the car representes the x-coordinate and the cdr represents the y-coordinate. Even though an expression like '(3.5 . -2.0) does represent a point, it is recommended to always construct points via function point; e.g. (point 3.5 -2.0).

(point? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a valid point. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(point xy)

procedure

Returns a point for coordinates *x* and *y*.

(move-point point dx fy)

procedure

Moves *point* by dx and dy and returns the result as a point.

(point-x point)

procedure

Returns the x-coordinate for point.

(point-y point)

procedure

Returns the y-coordinate for *point*.

zero-point object

The zero point, i.e (point 0.0 0.0).

17.8 Size

A *size* describes the dimensions of a rectangle consisting of *width* and *height* values. Sizes are represented as pairs of floating-point numbers where the car representes the width and the cdr represents the height. Even though an expression like '(5.0 . 3.0) does represent a size, it is recommended to always construct sizes via function size; e.g. (size 5.0 3.0).

(size? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a valid size. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(size w h)

Returns a size for the given width w and height h.

(size-width size) procedure

Returns the width for *size*.

(size-height size)
Returns the height for size.

(increase-size size dx dy)

Returns a new size object whose width is increased by dx and whose height is increased by dy.

(scale-size size factor) procedure

Returns a new size object whose width and height is multiplied by factor.

17.9 Rects

A *rect* describes a rectangle in terms of an upper left *point* and a *size*. Rects are represented as pairs whose car is a point and whose cdr is a size. Even though an expression like '((1.0 . 2.0) . (3.0 4.0)) does represent a rect, it is recommended to always construct rects via function rect; e.g. (rect (point 1.0 2.0) (size 3.0 4.0)).

(rect? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is a valid rect. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(rect point size) procedure

(rect x y width height)

Returns a rect either from the given *point* and *size*, or from x-coordinate x, y-coordinate y, width w, and height h.

(move-rect rect dx dy) procedure

Moves *rect* by *dx* and *dy* and returns the result.

(rect-point rect) procedure

Returns the upper left corner point of *rect*.

(rect-size *rect*)

Returns the size of the *rect*.

(rect-x rect) procedure

Returns the x-coordinate of the upper left corner point of *rect*.

(rect-y rect) procedure

Returns the y-coordinate of the upper left corner point of *rect*.

(rect-size rect) procedure

Returns the size of *rect* as a size, i.e. as a pair of floating-point numbers where the car representes the width and the cdr represents the height of *rect*.

(rect-width rect) procedure

Returns the width of *rect*.

(rect-height rect) procedure

Returns the height of *rect*.

18 LispKit Draw Turtle

Library (lispkit draw turtle) defines a simple "turtle graphics" API. The API provides functionality for creating turtles and for moving turtles on a plane generating *drawings* as a side-effect. A *drawing* is a data structure defined by library (lispkit draw).

A *turtle* is defined in terms of the following components: - A position (*x*, *y*) defining the coordinates where the turtle is currently located within a coordinate system defined by parameters used to create the turtle via make-turtle - A heading *angle* which defines the direction in degrees into which the turtle is moving - A boolean flag *pen down* which, if set to #t, will make the turtle draw lines on the graphics plane when moving. - A *line width* defining the width of lines drawn by the turtle - A *color* defining the color of lines drawn by the turtle - A *drawing* which records the moves of the turtle while the pen is down.

Turtles are mutable objects created via make-turtle. The functions listed below change the state of a turtle. In particular, they generate a drawing as a side-effect which can be accessed via turtle-drawing. For most functions, the turtle is an optional argument. If it is not provided, the function applies to the turtle provided by the current-turtle parammeter object.

current-turtle parameter object

Defines the *current turtle*, which is used as a default by all functions for which the turtle argument is optional. If there is no current turtle, this parameter is set to #f.

(turtle? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a turtle. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(make-turtle x y scale) procedure

Returns a new turtle object. *x* and *y* determine the "home point" of the turtle. This is equivalent to the zero point of the coordinate system in which the turtle navigates. *scale* is a scaling factor.

(turtle-drawing turtle) procedure

Returns the drawing associated with the given turtle.

(pen-up)
(pen-up turtle)

Lifts *turtle* from the plane. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used. Subsequent forward and backward operations don't lead to lines being drawn. Only the current coordinates are getting updated.

(pen-down)
(pen-down turtle)

Drops *turtle* onto the plane. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used. Subsequent forward and backward operations will lead to lines being drawn.

(pen-color color)
(pen-color color turtle)

Sets the drawing color of *turtle* to *color*. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used. *color* is a color object as defined by library (lispkit draw).

(pen-size size)
(pen-size size turtle)

Sets the pen size of *turtle* to *size*. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used. The pen size corresponds to the width of lines drawn by forward and backward.

(home) procedure

(home turtle)

Moves *turtle* to its home position. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

(move x y) [procedure (move x y turtle)

Moves turtle to the position described by the coordinates x and y. If turtle is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

(heading angle) procedure

(heading angle turtle)

Sets the heading of *turtle* to *angle*. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used. *angle* is expressed in terms of degrees.

(turn angle)
(turn angle turtle)

Adjusts the heading of *turtle* by *angle* degrees. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

(right angle) procedure

(right angle turtle)

Adjusts the heading of *turtle* by *angle* degrees. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

(left angle)
(left angle turtle)

Adjusts the heading of *turtle* by *-angle* degrees. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-

turtle is used.

(forward distance)
(forward distance turtle)

Moves *turtle* forward by *distance* units drawing a line if the pen is down. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

(backward distance) procedure (backward distance turtle)

Moves *turtle* backward by *distance* units drawing a line if the pen is down. If *turtle* is not provided, the turtle defined by current-turtle is used.

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19 LispKit Dynamic

19.1 Dynamic bindings

(make-parameter init) (make-parameter init converter)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated parameter object, which is a procedure that accepts zero arguments and returns the value associated with the parameter object. Initially, this value is the value of (*converter init*) , or of *init* if the conversion procedure *converter* is not specified. The associated value can be temporarily changed using parameterize. The default associated value can be changed by invoking the parameter object as a function with the new value as the only argument.

Parameter objects can be used to specify configurable settings for a computation without the need to pass the value to every procedure in the call chain explicitly.

(parameterize ((param value) ...) body)

syntax

A parameterize expression is used to change the values returned by specified parameter objects *param* during the evaluation of *body*. The *param* and *value* expressions are evaluated in an unspecified order. The *body* is evaluated in a dynamic environment in which calls to the parameters return the results of passing the corresponding values to the conversion procedure specified when the parameters were created. Then the previous values of the parameters are restored without passing them to the conversion procedure. The results of the last expression in the *body* are returned as the results of the entire parameterize expression.

(make-dynamic-environment)

syntax

Returns a newly allocated copy of the current dynamic environment. Dynamic environments are represented as mutable hashtables.

(dynamic-environment)

syntax

Returns the current dynamic environment represented as mutable hashtables.

(set-dynamic-environment! hashtable)

syntax

Sets the current dynamic environment to the given dynamic environment object. Dynamic environments are modeled as hashtables.

19.2 Continuations

(continuation? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a continuation procedure, #f otherwise.

(call-with-current-continuation *proc*) (call/cc *proc*)

procedure

The procedure call-with-current-continuation (or its equivalent abbreviation call/cc) packages the current continuation as an "escape procedure" and passes it as an argument to *proc*. It is an error if *proc* does not accept one argument.

The escape procedure is a Scheme procedure that, if it is later called, will abandon whatever continuation is in effect at that later time and will instead use the continuation that was in effect when the escape procedure was created. Calling the escape procedure will cause the invocation of before and after thunks installed using <code>dynamic-wind</code>.

The escape procedure accepts the same number of arguments as the continuation to the original call to call-with-current-continuation. Most continuations take only one value. Continuations created by the call-with-values procedure (including the initialization expressions of define-values, let-values, and let*-values expressions), take the number of values that the consumer expects. The continuations of all non-final expressions within a sequence of expressions, such as in lambda, case-lambda, begin, let, let*, letrec, letrec*, let-values, let*-values, let-syntax, letrec-syntax, parameterize, guard, case, cond, when, and unless expressions, take an arbitrary number of values because they discard the values passed to them in any event. The effect of passing no val- ues or more than one value to continuations that were not created in one of these ways is unspecified.

The escape procedure that is passed to proc has unlimited extent just like any other procedure in Scheme. It can be stored in variables or data structures and can be called as many times as desired. However, like the raise and error procedures, it never returns to its caller.

The following examples show only the simplest ways in which call-with-current-continuation is used. If all real uses were as simple as these examples, there would be no need for a procedure with the power of call-with-current-continuation.

```
(call-with-current-continuation
  (lambda (exit)
    (for-each (lambda (x) (if (negative? x) (exit x)))
              (54\ 0\ 37\ -3\ 245\ 19))\ \#t)) \Rightarrow -3
(define list-length
  (lambda (obj)
    (call-with-current-continuation
      (lambda (return)
        (letrec
          ((r (lambda (obj)
                 (cond ((null? obj) 0)
                       ((pair? obj) (+ (r (cdr obj)) 1))
                                     (return #f))))))
          (r obj))))))
(list-length '(1 2 3 4))
(list-length '(a b . c))
```

(dynamic-wind before thunk after)

procedure

Calls thunk without arguments, returning the result(s) of this call. before and after are called, also without arguments, as required by the following rules. Note that, in the absence of calls to continuations captured using call-with-current-continuation, the three arguments are called once each, in order. before is called whenever execution enters the dynamic extent of the call to thunk and after is called whenever it

exits that dynamic extent. The dynamic extent of a procedure call is the period between when the call is initiated and when it returns. The *before* and *after* thunks are called in the same dynamic environment as the call to dynamic-wind. In Scheme, because of call-with-current-continuation, the dynamic extent of a call is not always a single, connected time period. It is defined as follows:

- The dynamic extent is entered when execution of the body of the called procedure begins.
- The dynamic extent is also entered when execution is not within the dynamic extent and a continuation is invoked that was captured (using call-with-current-continuation) during the dynamic extent.
- It is exited when the called procedure returns.
- It is also exited when execution is within the dynamic extent and a continuation is invoked that was captured while not within the dynamic extent.

If a second call to dynamic-wind occurs within the dynamic extent of the call to *thunk* and then a continuation is invoked in such a way that the *afters* from these two invocations of dynamic-wind are both to be called, then the *after* associated with the second (inner) call to dynamic-wind is called first.

If a second call to dynamic-wind occurs within the dynamic extent of the call to *thunk* and then a continuation is invoked in such a way that the *befores* from these two invocations of dynamic-wind are both to be called, then the before associated with the first (outer) call to dynamic-wind is called first.

If invoking a continuation requires calling the *before* from one call to dynamic-wind and the after from another, then the *after* is called first.

The effect of using a captured continuation to enter or exit the dynamic extent of a call to *before* or *after* is unspecified.

(unwind-protect body cleanup ...)

syntax

Executes expression *body* guaranteeing that statements *cleanup* ... are executed when *body*'s execution is finished or when an exception is thrown during the execution of *body*. unwind-protect returns the result of executing *body*.

(return obj) procedure

Returns to the top-level of the read-eval-print loop with *obj* as the result (or terminates the program with *obj* as its return value).

19.3 Exceptions

(with-exception-handler handler thunk)

procedure

The with-exception-handler procedure returns the results of invoking *thunk*. *handler* is installed as the current exception handler in the dynamic environment used for the invocation of *thunk*. It is an error if *handler* does not accept one argument. It is also an error if *thunk* does not accept zero arguments.

```
(call-with-current-continuation
  (lambda (k)
   (with-exception-handler
      (lambda (x)
       (display "condition: ")(write x)(newline)(k 'exception))
       (+ 1 (raise 'an-error)))))) ⇒ exception; prints "condition: an-error"
(with-exception-handler
  (lambda (x) (display "something went wrong\n"))
  (lambda () (+ 1 (raise 'an-error)))) ⇒ prints "something went wrong"
```

After printing, the second example then raises another exception: "exception handler returned".

(try thunk) procedure (try thunk handler)

try executes argument-less procedure thunk and returns the result as the result of try if thunk's execution completes normally. If an exception is thrown, procedure handler is called with the exception object as its argument. The result of executing *handler* is returned by *try*.

(guard (var cond-clause ...) body)

The body is evaluated with an exception handler that binds the raised object to var and, within the scope of that binding, evaluates the clauses as if they were the clauses of a cond expression. That implicit cond expression is evaluated with the continuation and dynamic environment of the guard expression. If every cond-clause's test evaluates to #f and there is no "else" clause, then raise-continuable is invoked on the raised object within the dynamic environment of the original call to raise or raise-continuable , except that the current exception handler is that of the guard expression.

Please note that each cond-clause is as in the specification of cond.

```
(guard (condition
         ((assq 'a condition) => cdr)
         ((assq 'b condition)))
                                         ⇒ 42
  (raise (list (cons 'a 42))))
(guard (condition
         ((assq 'a condition) => cdr)
         ((assq 'b condition)))
  (raise (list (cons 'b 23))))
                                         \Rightarrow (b . 23)
```

(make-error message irrlist)

Returns a newly allocated custom error object consisting of message as its error message and the list of irritants irrlist.

(make-assertion-error procname expr)

Returns a newly allocated assertion error object referring to a procedure of name procname and an expression expr which triggered the assertion. Assertion errors that were raised should never be caught as they indicate a violation of an invariant.

(raise obj) procedure

Raises an exception by invoking the current exception handler on obj. The handler is called with the same dynamic environment as that of the call to raise, except that the current exception handler is the one that was in place when the handler being called was installed. If the handler returns, a secondary exception is raised in the same dynamic environment as the handler. The relationship between obj and the object raised by the secondary exception is unspecified.

(raise-continuable *obj*)

procedure

Raises an exception by invoking the current exception handler on obj. The handler is called with the same dynamic environment as the call to raise-continuable, except that: (1) the current exception handler

is the one that was in place when the handler being called was installed, and (2) if the handler being called returns, then it will again become the current exception handler. If the handler returns, the values it returns become the values returned by the call to raise-continuable.

(error message obj ...)

procedure

Raises an exception as if by calling raise on a newly allocated error object which encapsulates the information provided by *message*, as well as any *obj*, known as the irritants. The procedure error-object? must return #t on such objects. *message* is required to be a string.

```
(define (null-list? l)
  (cond ((pair? l) #f)
            ((null? l) #t)
            (else (error "null-list?: argument out of domain" l))))
```

(assertion expr)

procedure

Raises an exception as if by calling raise on a newly allocated assertion error object encapsulating *expr* as the expression which triggered the assertion failure and the current procedure's name. Assertion errors that are raised via assertion should never be caught as they indicate a violation of a critical invariant.

(assert expr0 expr1 ...)

syntax

Executes *expr0*, *expr1*, ... in the given order and raises an assertion error as soon as the first expression is evaluating to #f. The raised assertion error encapsulates the expression that evaluated to #f and the name of the procedure in which the assert statement was placed.

```
(define (drop-elements xs n)
  (assert (list? xs) (fixnum? n) (not (negative? n)))
  (if (or (null? xs) (zero? n)) xs (drop-elements (cdr xs) (fx1- n))))
```

(error-object? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is an error object, #f otherwise. Error objects are either implicitly created via error or they are created explicitly with procedure make-error.

(error-object-message *err*)

procedure

Returns the message (which is a string) encapsulated by the error object err.

(error-object-irritants *err*)

procedure

Returns a list of the irritants encapsulated by the error object err.

(error-object-stacktrace err)

procedure

Returns a list of procedures representing the stack trace encapsulated by the error object err. The stack

trace reflects the currently active procedures at the time the error object was created (either implicitly via error or explicitly via make-error).

(read-error? obj) procedure

This error type predicate returns #t if *obj* is an error object raised by the read procedure; otherwise, it returns #f.

(file-error? obj)

This error type predicate returns #t if *obj* is an error object raised by the inability to open an input or output port on a file; otherwise, it returns #f.

19.4 Exiting

(exit) procedure (exit obj)

Runs all outstanding dynamic-wind after procedures, terminates the running program, and communicates an exit value to the operating system. If no argument is supplied, or if *obj* is #t, the exit procedure should communicate to the operating system that the program exited normally. If *obj* is #f, the exit procedure will communicate to the operating system that the program exited abnormally. Otherwise, exit should translate *obj* into an appropriate exit value for the operating system, if possible. The exit procedure must not signal an exception or return to its continuation.

(emergency-exit)
(emergency-exit obj)

Terminates the program without running any outstanding dynamic-wind "after procedures" and communicates an exit value to the operating system in the same manner as exit.

20 LispKit Enum

Library (lispkit enum) provides an implementation of enumerated values and sets of enumerated values based on the API defined by R6RS.

Enumerated values are represented by ordinary symbols, while finite sets of enumerated values form a separate type, known as *enumeration set*. The enumeration sets are further partitioned into sets that share the same universe and enumeration type. These universes and enumeration types are created by the make-enumeration procedure. Each call to that procedure creates a new enumeration type.

In the descriptions of the following procedures, *enum-set* ranges over the enumeration sets, which are defined as the subsets of the universes that can be defined using <code>make-enumeration</code>.

(make-enumeration symbol-list)

procedure

Argument *symbol-list* must be a list of symbols. The make-enumeration procedure creates a new enumeration type whose universe consists of those symbols (in canonical order of their first appearance in the list) and returns that universe as an enumeration set whose universe is itself and whose enumeration type is the newly created enumeration type.

(enum-set-universe enum-set)

procedure

Returns the set of all symbols that comprise the universe of its argument *enum-set*, as an enumeration set.

(enum-set-indexer enum-set)

procedu

Returns a unary procedure that, given a symbol that is in the universe of *enum-set*, returns its 0-origin index within the canonical ordering of the symbols in the universe; given a value not in the universe, the unary procedure returns #f.

```
(let* ((e (make-enumeration '(red green blue)))
     (i (enum-set-indexer e)))
  (list (i 'red) (i 'green) (i 'blue) (i 'yellow)))
     ⇒ (0 1 2 #f)
```

The enum-set-indexer procedure could be defined as follows using the memq procedure:

(enum-set-constructor enum-set)

procedure

Returns a unary procedure that, given a list of symbols that belong to the universe of *enum-set*, returns a subset of that universe that contains exactly the symbols in the list. The values in the list must all belong to the universe.

(enum-set->list enum-set)

procedure

Returns a list of the symbols that belong to its argument, in the canonical order of the universe of *enum-set*.

(enum-set-member? symbol enum-set)

procedure

(enum-set-subset? enum-set1 enum-set2)

(enum-set=? enum-set1 enum-set2)

The enum-set-member? procedure returns #t if its first argument is an element of its second argument, #f otherwise.

The enum-set-subset? procedure returns #t if the universe of *enum-set1* is a subset of the universe of *enum-set2* (considered as sets of symbols) and every element of *enum-set1* is a member of *enum-set2*. It returns #f otherwise.

The enum-set? procedure returns #t if enum-set1 is a subset of enum-set2 and vice versa, as determined by the enum-set-subset? procedure. This implies that the universes of the two sets are equal as sets of symbols, but does not imply that they are equal as enumeration types. Otherwise, #f is returned.

```
(let* ((e (make-enumeration '(red green blue)))
        (c (enum-set-constructor e)))
        (list (enum-set-member? 'blue (c '(red blue)))
            (enum-set-member? 'green (c '(red blue)))
            (enum-set-subset? (c '(red blue)) e)
            (enum-set-subset? (c '(red blue)) (c '(blue red)))
            (enum-set-subset? (c '(red blue)) (c '(red)))
            (enum-set=? (c '(red blue)) (c '(blue red)))))

⇒ (#t #f #t #t #f #t)
```

(enum-set-union enum-set1 enum-set2)

procedure

(enum-set-intersection enum-set1 enum-set2)

(enum-set-difference enum-set1 enum-set2)

Arguments enum-set1 and enum-set2 must be enumeration sets that have the same enumeration type.

The enum-set-union procedure returns the union of *enum-set1* and *enum-set2*. The enum-set-intersection procedure returns the intersection of *enum-set1* and *enum-set2*. The enum-set-difference procedure returns the difference of *enum-set1* and *enum-set2*.

(enum-set-complement enum-set)

procedure

Returns enum-set's complement with respect to its universe.

```
(let* ((e (make-enumeration '(red green blue)))
          (c (enum-set-constructor e)))
          (enum-set->list (enum-set-complement (c '(red)))))
⇒ (green blue)
```

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(enum-set-projection enum-set1 enum-set2)

procedure

Projects *enum-set1* into the universe of *enum-set2*, dropping any elements of *enum-set1* that do not belong to the universe of *enum-set2*. If *enum-set1* is a subset of the universe of its second, no elements are dropped, and the injection is returned.

```
(let ((e1 (make-enumeration '(red green blue black)))
       (e2 (make-enumeration '(red black white))))
       (enum-set->list (enum-set-projection e1 e2))))
⇒ (red black)
```

(define-enumeration type-name (symbol ...) constructor)

syntax

The define-enumeration form defines an enumeration type and provides two macros for constructing its members and sets of its members. A define-enumeration form is a definition and can appear anywhere any other definition can appear.

type-name is an identifier that is bound as a syntactic keyword; *symbol* ... are the symbols that comprise the universe of the enumeration (in order).

(*type-name symbol*) checks whether the name of *symbol* is in the universe associated with *type-name*. If it is, (*type-name symbol*) is equivalent to *symbol*. It is a syntax violation if it is not.

constructor is an identifier that is bound to a syntactic form that, given any finite sequence of the symbols in the universe, possibly with duplicates, expands into an expression that evaluates to the enumeration set of those symbols.

(constructor symbol...) checks whether every ... is in the universe associated with type-name. It is a syntax violation if one or more is not. Otherwise (constructor symbol>...) is equivalent to ((enum-set-constructor (constructor-syntax)) '(symbol...)).

Here is a complete example:

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21 LispKit Gvector

This library defines an API for *growable vectors*. Just like regular vectors, *growable vectors* are heterogeneous sequences of elements which are indexed by a range of integers. Unlike for regular vectors, the length of a *growable vector* is not fixed. Growable vectors may expand or shrink in length. Nevertheless, growable vectors are fully compatible to regular vectors and all operations from library (lispkit vector) may also be used in combination with growable vectors. The main significance of library (lispkit gvector) is in providing functions to construct growable vectors. Growable vectors are always *mutable* by design.

Just like for vectors with a fixed length, the valid indexes of a growable vector are the exact, non-negative integers less than the length of the vector. The first element in a vector is indexed by zero, and the last element is indexed by one less than the length of the growable vector.

Two growable vectors are equal? if they have the same length, and if the values in corresponding slots of the vectors are equal? . A growable vector is never equal? a regular vector of fixed length.

Growable vectors are written using the notation #g(obj ...). For example, a growable vector of initial length 3 containing the number one as element 0, the list (8 16 32) as element 1, and the string "Scheme" as element 2 can be written as follows: #g(1 (8 16 32) "Scheme").

Growable vector constants are self-evaluating, so they do not need to be quoted in programs.

21.1 Predicates

(gvector? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a growable vector; otherwise returns #f.

(gvector-empty? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a growable vector of length zero; otherwise returns #f.

21.2 Constructors

(make-gvector)

procedure

(make-gvector c)

Returns a newly allocated growable vector of capacity c. The capacity is used to pre-allocate space for up to c elements.

(gvector obj ...)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated growable vector whose elements contain the given arguments.

 $(gvector 'a 'b 'c) \Rightarrow #g(a b c)$

(list->gvector list)

procedure

The list->gvector procedure returns a newly created growable vector initialized to the elements of the list *list* in the order of the list.

```
(list->gvector '(a b c)) \Rightarrow #g(a b c)
```

(vector->gvector vector)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated growable vector initialized to the elements of the vector vector in the order of vector.

(gvector-copy vector)

procedure

(gvector-copy vector start)

(gvector-copy vector start end)

Returns a newly allocated copy of the elements of the given growable vector between *start* and *end*, but excluding the element at index *end*. The elements of the new vector are the same (in the sense of eqv?) as the elements of the old.

(gvector-append vector ...)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated growable vector whose elements are the concatenation of the elements of the given vectors.

```
(gvector-append #(a b c) #g(d e f)) \Rightarrow #g(a b c d e f)
```

(gvector-concatenate vector xs)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated growable vector whose elements are the concatenation of the elements of the vectors in *xs*. *xs* is a proper list of vectors.

```
(gvector-concatenate '(\#g(a b c) \#(d) \#g(e f))) \Rightarrow \#g(a b c d e f)
```

(gvector-map f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Constructs a new growable vector of the shortest size of the vector arguments vector1, vector2, etc. Each element at index i of the new vector is mapped from the old vectors by (f (vector-ref vector1 i) (vector-ref vector2 i) ...) . The dynamic order of the application of f is unspecified.

```
(gvector-map + #(1 2 3 4 5) #g(10 20 30 40)) \Rightarrow #g(11 22 33 44)
```

(gvector-map/index f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Constructs a new growable vector of the shortest size of the vector arguments vector1, vector2, etc. Each element at index i of the new vector is mapped from the old vectors by (f i (vector-ref vector1 i) (vector-ref vector2 i) ...). The dynamic order of the application of f is unspecified.

```
(gvector-map/index (lambda (i x y) (cons i (+ x y))) \#g(1\ 2\ 3)\ \#(10\ 20\ 30)) \Rightarrow \#g((0\ .\ 11)\ (1\ .\ \hookrightarrow\ 22)\ (2\ .\ 33))
```

21.3 Iterating over vector elements

(gvector-for-each f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

gvector-for-each implements a simple vector iterator: it applies f to the corresponding list of parallel elements from vectors $vector1\ vector2\ ...$ in the range [0], length, where length is the length of the smallest vector argument passed. In contrast with gvector-map, f is reliably applied to each subsequent element, starting at index 0, in the vectors.

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(gvector-for-each/index f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

gvector-for-each/index implements a simple vector iterator: it applies f to the index i and the corresponding list of parallel elements from $vector1\ vector2\ ...$ in the range [0, length), where length is the length of the smallest vector argument passed. The only difference to gvector-for-each is that gvector-for-each/index always passes the current index as the first argument of f in addition to the elements from the vectors $vector1\ vector2\ ...$

```
(gvector-for-each/index
  (lambda (i x) (display i)(display ": ")(display x)(newline))
  #g("foo" "bar" "baz" "quux" "zot"))

⇒
0: foo
1: bar
2: baz
3: quux
4: zot
```

21.4 Managing vector state

(gvector-length vector)

procedure

Returns the number of elements in growable vector vector as an exact integer.

(gvector-ref vector k)

procedure

The gvector-ref procedure returns the contents of element k of vector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of vector or if vector is not a growable vector.

```
(gvector-ref '#g(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) 5) \Rightarrow 8 (gvector-ref '#g(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) (exact (round (* 2 (acos -1))))) \Rightarrow 13
```

(gvector-set! *vector k obj*)

procedure

The vector-set! procedure stores obj in element k of growable vector vector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of vector or if vector is not a growable vector.

```
(let ((vec (gvector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (gvector-set! vec 1 '("Sue" "Sue"))
  vec)
  ⇒ #g(0 ("Sue" "Sue") "Anna")
```

(gvector-add! vector obj ...)

procedure

Appends the values *obj*, ... to growable vector *vector*. This increases the length of the growable vector by the number of *obj* arguments.

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```
(let ((vec (gvector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (gvector-add! vec "Micha")
  vec)
  ⇒ #g(0 (2 2 2 2) "Anna" "Micha")
```

(gvector-insert! vector k obj)

procedure

Inserts the value *obj* into growable vector *vector* at index *k*. This increases the length of the growable vector by one.

```
(let ((vec (gvector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (gvector-insert! vec 1 "Micha")
  vec)
  ⇒ #g(0 "Micha" (2 2 2 2) "Anna")
```

(gvector-remove! *vector k*)

procedure

Removes the element at index k from growable vector *vector*. This decreases the length of the growable vector by one.

```
(let ((vec (gvector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (gvector-remove! vec 1)
  vec)
  ⇒ #g(0 "Anna")
```

(gvector-remove-last! vector)

procedure

Removes the last element of the growable vector *vector*. This decreases the length of the growable vector by one.

```
(let ((vec (gvector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))

(gvector-remove-last! vec)

vec)

⇒ #g(0 (2 2 2 2))
```

21.5 Destructive growable vector operations

Procedures which operate only on a part of a growable vector specify the applicable range in terms of an index interval [start; end[; i.e. the end index is always exclusive.

```
(gvector-copy! to at from)
(gvector-copy! to at from start)
(gvector-copy! to at from start end)
```

Copies the elements of vector *from* between *start* and *end* to growable vector *to*, starting at *at*. The order in which elements are copied is unspecified, except that if the source and destination overlap, copying takes place as if the source is first copied into a temporary vector and then into the destination. *start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of *vector*.

It is an error if at is less than zero or greater than the length of to. It is also an error if (- (gvector-length to) at) is less than (- end start).

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4 5))
(define b (gvector 10 20 30 40 50))
(gvector-copy! b 1 a 0 2)
b ⇒ #g(10 1 2 40 50)
```

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(gvector-append! vector v1 ...)

procedure

Appends the elements of the vectors v1 ... to the growable vector vector in the given order.

```
(gvector-reverse! vector) (gvector-reverse! vector start)
```

(gvector-reverse! vector start end)

procedure

Procedure gvector-reverse! destructively reverses the contents of growable *vector* between *start* and *end. start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of *vector*.

```
(define a (gvector 1 2 3 4 5))
(vector-reverse! a)
a ⇒ #g(5 4 3 2 1)
```

(gvector-sort! pred vector)

orocedure

Procedure gvector-sort! destructively sorts the elements of growable vector vector using the "less than" predicate *pred*.

```
(define a (gvector 7 4 9 1 2 8 5))
(gvector-sort! < a)
a ⇒ #g(1 2 4 5 7 8 9)</pre>
```

(gvector-map! f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Similar to gvector-map which maps the various elements into a new vector via function f, procedure gvector-map! destructively inserts the mapped elements into growable vector vector1. The dynamic order in which f gets applied to the elements is unspecified.

```
(define a (gvector 1 2 3 4))
(gvector-map! + a #(10 20 30))
a ⇒ #g(11 22 33 4)
```

(gvector-map/index! f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Similar to gvector-map/index which maps the various elements together with their index into a new vector via function f, procedure gvector-map/index! destructively inserts the mapped elements into growable vector vector 1. The dynamic order in which f gets applied to the elements is unspecified.

```
(define a \#g(1\ 2\ 3\ 4))
(gvector-map/index! (lambda (i x y) (cons i (+ x y))) a \#(10\ 20\ 30))
a \Rightarrow \#g((0\ .\ 11)\ (1\ .\ 22)\ (2\ .\ 33)\ 4)
```

21.6 Converting growable vectors

```
(gvector->list vector)
(gvector->list vector start)
(gvector->list vector start end)
```

procedure

The gvector->list procedure returns a newly allocated list of the objects contained in the elements of growable *vector* between *start* and *end* in the same order as in *vector*.

```
(gvector \rightarrow list '#g(dah dah didah)) \Rightarrow (dah dah didah)

(gvector \rightarrow list '#g(dah dah didah) 1 2) \Rightarrow (dah)
```

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```
(gvector->vector vector)
(gvector->vector vector start)
(gvector->vector vector start end)
```

procedure

The gvector->list procedure returns a newly allocated list of the objects contained in the elements of growable vector vector between *start* and *end* in the same order as in *vector*.

```
(gvector->list '#(dah dah didah)) \Rightarrow error since the argument is not a gvector (gvector->list '#g(dah dah didah) 1 2) \Rightarrow (dah)
```

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22 LispKit Hashtable

Library (lispkit hashtable) provides a native implementation of hashtables based on the API defined by R6RS.

A hashtable is a data structure that associates keys with values. Any object can be used as a key, provided a hash function and a suitable equivalence function is available. A hash function is a procedure that maps keys to exact integer objects. It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that the hash function is compatible with the equivalence function, which is a procedure that accepts two keys and returns true if they are equivalent and #f otherwise. Standard hashtables for arbitrary objects based on the eq?, eqv?, and equal? predicates are provided. Also, hash functions for arbitrary objects, strings, and symbols are included.

The specification below uses the *hashtable* parameter name for arguments that must be hashtables, and the *key* parameter name for arguments that must be hashtable keys.

22.1 Constructors

(make-eq-hashtable) (make-eq-hashtable *k*)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable that accepts arbitrary objects as keys and compares those keys with eq? . If an argument is given, the initial capacity of the hashtable is set to approximately k elements.

(make-eqv-hashtable) (make-eqv-hashtable *k*)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable that accepts arbitrary objects as keys and compares those keys with eqv? . If an argument is given, the initial capacity of the hashtable is set to approximately k elements.

(make-equal-hashtable) (make-equal-hashtable *k*)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable that accepts arbitrary objects as keys and compares those keys with equal? If an argument is given, the initial capacity of the hashtable is set to approximately k elements.

(make-hashtable hash equiv) (make-hashtable hash equiv k)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable using hash as the hash function and equiv as the equivalence function for comparing keys. If a third argument k is given, the initial capacity of the hashtable is set to approximately k elements.

hash and equiv must be procedures. hash should accept a key as an argument and should return a non-negative exact integer object. equiv should accept two keys as arguments and return a single boolean value. Neither procedure should mutate the hashtable returned by make-hashtable. Both hash and equiv should behave like pure functions on the domain of keys. For example, the string-hash and

string=? procedures are permissible only if all keys are strings and the contents of those strings are never changed so long as any of them continues to serve as a key in the hashtable. Furthermore, any pair of keys for which *equiv* returns true should be hashed to the same exact integer objects by *hash*.

(alist->eq-hashtable alist) (alist->eq-hashtable alist k)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable consisting of the mappings contained in the association list *alist*. Keys are compared with eq? . If argument k is given, the capacity of the returned hashtable is set to at least k elements.

(alist->eqv-hashtable alist)

procedure

(alist->eqv-hashtable alist k)

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable consisting of the mappings contained in the association list *alist*. Keys are compared with eqv? . If argument k is given, the capacity of the returned hashtable is set to at least k elements.

(alist->equal-hashtable alist)

procedure

(alist->equal-hashtable alist k)

Returns a newly allocated mutable hashtable consisting of the mappings contained in the association list *alist*. Keys are compared with equal? If argument k is given, the capacity of the returned hashtable is set to at least k elements.

(hashtable-copy hashtable)

procedure

(hashtable-copy hashtable mutable)

Returns a copy of *hashtable*. If the *mutable* argument is provided and is true, the returned hashtable is mutable; otherwise it is immutable.

(hashtable-empty-copy hashtable)

procedur

Returns a new mutable hashtable that uses the same hash and equivalence functions like *hashtable*.

22.2 Type tests

(hashtable? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a hashtable. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(eq-hashtable? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a hashtable which uses eq? for comparing keys. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(eqv-hashtable? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a hashtable which uses eqv? for comparing keys. Otherwise, it returns #f.

(equal-hashtable? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a hashtable which uses equal? for comparing keys. Otherwise, it returns #f.

22.3 Inspection

(hashtable-equivalence-function hashtable)

procedure

Returns the equivalence function used by hashtable to compare keys. For hashtables created with make-eq-hashtable, make-eqv-hashtable, and make-equal-hashtable, returns eq?, eqv?, and equal? respectively.

(hashtable-hash-function hashtable)

(hashtable-hash-function hashtable force?)

procedure

Returns the hash function used by *hashtable*. For hashtables created by make-eq-hashtable and make-eqv-hashtable, #f is returned. This behavior can be disabled if boolean parameter *force*? is being provided and set to #t. In this case, hashtable-hash-function will also return hash functions for eq and eqv-based hashtables.

(hashtable-mutable? hashtable)

procedure

Returns #t if hashtable is mutable, otherwise #f.

22.4 Hash functions

The equal-hash, string-hash, and string-ci-hash procedures are acceptable as the hash functions of a hashtable only, if the keys on which they are called are not mutated while they remain in use as keys in the hashtable.

(equal-hash obj) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for *obj*, based on its structure and current contents. This hash function is suitable for use with equal? as an equivalence function. Like equal? , the equal-hash procedure must always terminate, even if its arguments contain cycles.

(eqv-hash obj) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for *obj*, based on *obj*'s identity. This hash function is suitable for use with eqv? as an equivalence function.

(eq-hash obj)

Returns an integer hash value for *obj*, based on *obj*'s identity. This hash function is suitable for use with eq? as an equivalence function.

(boolean-hash b) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for boolean b.

(char-hash ch) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for character *ch*. This hash function is suitable for use with char=? as an equivalence function.

(char-ci-hash ch) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for character *ch*, ignoring case. This hash function is suitable for use with char-ci=? as an equivalence function.

(string-hash str) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for string *str*, based on its current characters. This hash function is suitable for use with string=? as an equivalence function.

(string-ci-hash str)

Returns an integer hash value for string *str* based on its current characters, ignoring case. This hash function is suitable for use with string-ci=? as an equivalence function.

(symbol-hash sym) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for symbol sym.

(number-hash x) procedure

Returns an integer hash value for numeric value *x*.

(combine-hash $h \dots$)

Combines the integer hash values h ... into a single hash value.

22.5 Procedures

(hashtable-size hashtable)

procedure

Returns the number of keys contained in hashtable as an exact integer object.

(hashtable-load hashtable)

procedure

Returns the load factor of the hashtable. The load factor is defined as the ratio between the number of keys and the number of hash buckets of *hashtable*.

(hashtable-ref hashtable key default)

procedure

Returns the value in *hashtable* associated with *key*. If *hashtable* does not contain an association for *key*, *default* is returned.

(hashtable-get hashtable key)

procedure

Returns a pair consisting of a key matching *key* and associated value from *hashtable*. If *hashtable* does not contain an association for *key*, hashtable-get returns #f.

For example, for a hashtable ht containing the mapping 3 to "three", (hashtable-get ht 3) will return (3 . "three").

(hashtable-set! hashtable key obj)

procedure

Changes *hashtable* to associate *key* with *obj*, adding a new association or replacing any existing association for *key*.

(hashtable-delete! hashtable key)

procedure

Removes any association for key within hashtable.

(hashtable-add! hashtable key obj)

procedure

Changes hashtable to associate key with obj, adding a new association for key. The difference to hashtable-set! is that existing associations of key will remain in hashtable, whereas hashtable-set! replaces an existing association for key.

(hashtable-remove! hashtable key)

procedure

Removes the association for *key* within *hashtable* which was added last, and returns it as a pair consisting of the key matching *key* and its associated value. If there is no association of *key* in *hashtable*, hashtable-remove! will return #f.

(alist->hashtable! hashtable alist)

procedure

Adds all the associations from alist to hashtable using hashtable-add! .

(hashtable-contains? hashtable key)

procedure

Returns #t if hashtable contains an association for key, #f otherwise.

(hashtable-update! hashtable key proc default)

procedur

hashtable-update! applies *proc* to the value in *hashtable* associated with *key*, or to *default* if *hashtable* does not contain an association for *key*. The hashtable is then changed to associate *key* with the value returned by *proc*. *proc* is a procedure which should accept one argument, it should return a single value, and should not mutate *hashtable*. The behavior of hashtable-update! is equivalent to the following code:

(hashtable-clear! hashtable)

procedure

(hashtable-clear! hashtable k)

Removes all associations from *hashtable*. If a second argument k is given, the current capacity of the hashtable is reset to approximately k elements.

(hashtable-keys hashtable)

Returns an immutable vector of all keys in hashtable.

procedure

procedure

(hashtable-values hashtable)

Returns an immutable vector of all values in hashtable.

(hashtable-entries hashtable)

procedure

Returns two values, an immutable vector of the keys in *hashtable*, and an immutable vector of the corresponding values.

(hashtable-key-list hashtable)

procedure

Returns a list of all keys in hashtable.

(hashtable-value-list hashtable)

procedure

Returns a list of all values in hashtable.

(hashtable->alist hashtable)

procedure

Returns a list of all associations in *hashtable* as an association list. Each association is represented as a pair consisting of the key and the corresponding value.

(hashtable-for-each proc hashtable)

procedure

Applies *proc* to every association in *hashtable*. *proc* should be a procedure accepting two values, a key and a corresponding value.

(hashtable-map! proc hashtable)

procedure

Applies *proc* to every association in *hashtable*. *proc* should be a procedure accepting two values, a key and a corresponding value, and returning one value. This value and the key will replace the existing binding.

22.6 Composition

(hashtable-union! hashtable1 hashtable2)

procedure

Includes all associations from *hashtable2* in *hashtable1* if the key of the association is not already contained in *hashtable1*.

(hashtable-intersection! hashtable1 hashtable2)

procedure

Removes all associations from *hashtable1* for which the key of the association is not contained in *hashtable2*.

(hashtable-difference! hashtable1 hashtable2)

procedure

Removes all associations from *hashtable1* for which the key of the association is contained in *hashtable2*.

23 LispKit Heap

Library (lispkit heap) provides an implementation of a *priority queue* in form of a *binary max heap*. A *max heap* is a tree-based data structure in which for any given node C, if P is a parent node of C, then the value of P is greater than or equal to the value of C. Heaps as implemented by (lispkit heap) are mutable objects.

(make-heap pred<?)

procedure

Returns a new empty binary max heap with pred<? being the associated ordering function.

(heap-empty? hp)

procedure

Returns #t if the heap hp is empty, otherwise #f is returned.

(heap-max hp)

procedure

Returns the largest item in heap hp, i.e. the item which is larger than all others according to the comparison function of hp. Note, heap-max does not remove the largest item as opposed to heap-delete-max! . If there are no items on the heap, an error is signaled.

(heap-add! hp e1 ...)

procedure

Inserts an item into the heap. The same item can be inserted multiple times.

(heap-delete-max! hp)

procedure

Returns the largest item in heap hp, i.e. the item which is larger than all others according to the comparison function of hp, and removes the item from the heap. If there are no items on the heap, an error is signaled.

(heap-clear! hp)

procedure

Removes all items from hp. After this procedure has been executed, the heap is empty.

(heap-copy hp)

procedure

Returns a copy of heap hp.

(heap->vector hp)

procedure

Returns a new vector containing all items of the heap hp in descending order. This procedure does not mutate hp.

(heap->list hp)

procedure

Returns a list containing all items of the heap *hp* in descending order.

(heap->reversed-list hp)

procedure

Returns a list containing all items of the heap *hp* in ascending order.

(list->heap! hp items)

procedure

Inserts all the items from list *items* into heap *hp*.

(list->heap items pred<?)

procedure

Creates a new heap for the given ordering predicate *pred*<? and inserts all the items from list *items* into it. list-\>heap returns the new heap.

(vector->heap vec pred<?)

procedure

Creates and returns a new heap for the given ordering predicate *pred*<? and inserts all the items from vector *vec* into it.

24 LispKit Iterate

Library (lispkit iterate) defines syntactical forms supporting frequently used iteration patterns. Some of the special forms were inspired by Common Lisp.

```
(dotimes (var count) body ...)

(dotimes (var count result) body ...)
```

dotimes iterates variable var over the integer range [0, count[, executing body for every iteration.

dotimes first evaluates *count*, which has to evaluate to a fixnum. If *count* evaluates to zero or a negative number, *body* ... is not executed. dotimes then executes *body* ... once for each integer from 0 up to, but not including, the value of *count*, with *var* bound to each integer. Then, *result* is evaluated and its value is returned as the value of the dotimes form. If *result* is not provided, no value is being returned.

```
(dolist (var lst) body ...)

[syntax]
(dolist (var lst result) body ...)
```

dolist iterates variable var over the elements of list lst, executing body ... for every iteration.

dolist first evaluates *lst*, which has to evaluate to a list. It then executes *body* ... once for each element in the list, with *var* bound to the current element of the list. Then, *result* is evaluated and its value is returned as the value of the dolist form. If *result* is not provided, no value is being returned.

```
(let ((res ""))
  (dolist (x '("a" "b" "c") res)
      (set! res (string-append res x))))
⇒ "abc"
```

(loop break body ...)

synta

loop iterates infinitely, executing *body* ... in each iteration. *break* is a variable bound to an exit function which can be used to leave the loop form. *break* receives one argument which is the result of the loop form.

```
(while condition body ...)
(while condition unless break body ...)
```

syntax

while iterates as long as *condition* evaluates to a value other than #f, executing *body* ... in each iteration. unless can be used to bind an exit funtion to variable *break* so that it is possible to leave the loop by calling thunk *break*. while forms never return a result.

```
(let ((i 0)(sum 0))
  (while (< sum 100) unless exit
    (if (> i 10) (exit))
    (set! sum (+ sum i))
    (set! i (fx1+ i)))
  (cons i sum))
⇒ (11 . 55)
```

```
(for var from lo to hi body ...)
(for var from lo to hi step s body ...)
```

syntax

syntax

This form of for iterates through all the fixnums from *lo* to *hi* (both inclusive), executing *body* ... in each iteration. If step *s* is provided, *s* is used as the increment of variable *var* which iterates through the elements of the given range.

When this for form is being executed, first *lo* and *hi* are evaluated. Both have to evaluate to a fixnum. Then, *body* ... is executed once for each integer in the given range, with *var* bound to the current integer. The form returns no result.

```
(let ((res '()))
  (for x from 1 to 16 step 2
        (set! res (cons x res)))
  res)
⇒ (15 13 11 9 7 5 3 1)
```

```
(for var in lst body ...)

(for var in lst where condition body ...)

(for var from (x 	ext{ ... }) body ...)
```

This form of for iterates through all the elements of a list, executing body ... in each iteration. The list is either explicitly given via lst or its elements are enumerated in the form (x ...). If a where predicate is provided, the it acts as a filter on the elements through which variable var is iterated.

When this for form is being executed, first lst or (x ...) is evaluated. Then, body ... is executed once for each element in the list, with var bound to the current element of the list. The form returns no result.

```
(let ((res '()))
  (for x in (iota 16) where (odd? x)
      (set! res (cons x res)))
  res)
  ⇒ (15 13 11 9 7 5 3 1)
```

```
(exit-with break body ...)
(exit-with break from body ...)
```

syntax

exit-with is not an iteration construct by itself. It is often used in combination with iteration constructs to declare an exit function for leaving statements *body* *break* is a variable which gets bound to the exit function in the scope of statements *body* exit-with either returns the result of the last statement of *body* ... or it returns the value passed to *break* in case the exit function gets called.

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25 LispKit List

Lists are heterogeneous data structures constructed out of pairs and an empty list object.

A *pair* consists of two fields called *car* and *cdr* (for historical reasons). Pairs are created by the procedure cons. The *car* and *cdr* fields are accessed by the procedures car and cdr. As opposed to most other Scheme implementations, lists are immutable in LispKit. Thus, it is not possible to set the car and cdr fields of an already existing pair.

Pairs are used primarily to represent lists. A list is defined recursively as either the empty list or a pair whose cdr is a list. More precisely, the set of lists is defined as the smallest set *X* such that

- The empty list is in X
- If *list* is in *X*, then any pair whose cdr field contains *list* is also in *X*.

The objects in the car fields of successive pairs of a list are the *elements* of the list. For example, a twoelement list is a pair whose car is the first element and whose cdr is a pair whose car is the second element and whose cdr is the empty list. The *length* of a list is the number of elements, which is the same as the number of pairs.

The empty list is a special object of its own type. It is not a pair, it has no elements, and its length is zero

The most general notation (external representation) for Scheme pairs is the "dotted" notation (c1 . c2) where c1 is the value of the car field and c2 is the value of the cdr field. For example (4 . 5) is a pair whose car is 4 and whose cdr is 5. Note that (4 . 5) is the external representation of a pair, not an expression that evaluates to a pair.

A more streamlined notation can be used for lists: the elements of the list are simply enclosed in parentheses and separated by spaces. The empty list is written () . For example,

```
(a b c d e)
```

and

```
(a . (b . (c . (d . (e . ())))))
```

are equivalent notations for a list of symbols.

A chain of pairs not ending in the empty list is called an *improper list*. Note that an improper list is not a list. The list and dotted notations can be combined to represent improper lists:

```
(a b c . d)
```

is equivalent to

```
(a . (b . (c . d)))
```

25.1 Basic constructors and procedures

```
(\cos x y)
                                                                                               procedure
Returns a pair whose car is x and whose cdr is y.
                                                                                               procedure
Returns the contents of the car field of pair xs. Note that it is an error to take the car of the empty list.
Returns the contents of the cdr field of pair xs. Note that it is an error to take the cdr of the empty list.
(caar xs)
                                                                                               procedure
(cadr xs)
(cdar xs)
(cddr xs)
These procedures are compositions of car and cdr as follows:
(define (caar x) (car (car x)))
(define (cadr x) (car (cdr x)))
(define (cdar x) (cdr (car x)))
(define (cddr x) (cdr (cdr x)))
(caaar xs)
                                                                                               procedure
(caadr xs)
(cadar xs)
(caddr xs)
(cdaar xs)
(cdadr xs)
(cddar xs)
(cdddr xs)
These eight procedures are further compositions of car and cdr on the same principles. For example,
caddr could be defined by (define caddr (lambda (x) (car (cdr (cdr x))))). Arbitrary
compositions up to four deep are provided.
(caaaar xs)
                                                                                               procedure
(caaadr xs)
(caadar xs)
(caaddr xs)
(cadaar xs)
(cadadr xs)
(caddar xs)
(cadddr xs)
(cdaaar xs)
(cdaadr xs)
(cdadar xs)
(cdaddr xs)
(cddaar xs)
(cddadr xs)
(cdddar xs)
(cddddr xs)
```

These sixteen procedures are further compositions of car and cdr on the same principles. For example, cadddr could be defined by $(define\ cadddr\ (lambda\ (x)\ (car\ (cdr\ (cdr\ (cdr\ x))))))$. Arbitrary compositions up to four deep are provided.

procedure

(make-list *k*)
(make-list *k fill*)

Returns a list of *k* elements. If argument *fill* is given, then each element is set to *fill*. Otherwise the content of each element is the empty list.

(list $x \dots$)

Returns a list of its arguments, i.e. (x ...).

```
(list 'a (+ 3 4) 'c) ⇒ (a 7 c)
(list) ⇒ ()
```

(cons* e1 e2 ...)

Like list, but the last argument provides the tail of the constructed list, returning (cons e1 (cons e2 (cons ... en))). This function is called list* in Common Lisp.

```
(cons* 1 2 3 4) \Rightarrow (1 2 3 . 4)

(cons* 1) \Rightarrow 1
```

(length xs)

Returns the length of list xs.

```
(length '(a b c)) ⇒ 3
(length '(a (b) (c d e))) ⇒ 3
(length '()) ⇒ 0
```

25.2 Predicates

(pair? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is a pair, #f otherwise.

(null? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is an empty list, #f otherwise.

(list? obj)

Returns #t if *obj* is a proper list, #f otherwise. A chain of pairs ending in the empty list is called a *proper list*.

(every? pred xs ...)

Applies the predicate pred across the lists xs ..., returning #t if the predicate returns #t on every application. If there are n list arguments xs1 ... xsn, then pred must be a procedure taking n arguments and returning a single value, interpreted as a boolean. If an application of pred returns #f, then every? returns #f immediately without applying pred further anymore.

(any? pred xs ...)

Applies the predicate pred across the lists xs ..., returning #t if the predicate returns #t for at least one application. If there are n list arguments xs1 ... xsn, then pred must be a procedure taking n arguments and returning a single value, interpreted as a boolean. If an application of pred returns #t, then any? returns #t immediately without applying pred further anymore.

25.3 Composing and transforming lists

(append xs ...)

Returns a list consisting of the elements of the first list xs followed by the elements of the other lists. If

there are no arguments, the empty list is returned. If there is exactly one argument, it is returned. The last argument, if there is one, can be of any type. An improper list results if the last argument is not a proper list.

```
(append '(x) '(y)) ⇒ (x y)

(append '(a) '(b c d)) ⇒ (a b c d)

(append '(a (b)) '((c))) ⇒ (a (b) (c))

(append '(a b) '(c . d)) ⇒ (a b c . d)

(append '() 'a) ⇒ a
```

(concatenate xss)

procedure

This procedure appends the elements of the list of lists xss. That is, concatenate returns (apply append xss).

(reverse xs)

procedure

Procedure reverse returns a list consisting of the elements of list xs in reverse order.

```
(reverse '(a b c)) \Rightarrow (c b a)
(reverse '(a (b c) d (e (f)))) \Rightarrow ((e (f)) d (b c) a)
```

(filter pred xs)

procedure

Returns all the elements of list xs that satisfy predicate pred. Elements in the result list occur in the same order as they occur in the argument list xs.

```
(filter even? '(0 7 8 8 43 -4)) ⇒ (0 8 8 -4)
```

(remove pred xs)

procedure

Returns a list without the elements of list xs that satisfy predicate pred: (lambda (pred list) (filter (lambda (x) (not (pred x))) list)). Elements in the result list occur in the same order as they occur in the argument list xs.

```
(remove even? '(0\ 7\ 8\ 8\ 43\ -4)) \Rightarrow (7\ 43)
```

(partition *pred xs*)

procedur

Partitions the elements of list *xs* with predicate *pred* returning two values: the list of in-elements (i.e. elements from *xs* satisfying *pred*) and the list of out-elements. Elements occur in the result lists in the same order as they occur in the argument list *xs*.

(map f xs ...)

procedure

The map procedure applies procedure *proc* element-wise to the elements of the lists *xs* ... and returns a list of the results, in order. If more than one list is given and not all lists have the same length, map terminates when the shortest list runs out. The dynamic order in which *proc* is applied to the elements of the lists is unspecified.

It is an error if *proc* does not accept as many arguments as there are lists xs ... and return a single value.

```
(map \ cadr \ '((a \ b) \ (d \ e) \ (g \ h))) \Rightarrow (b \ e \ h)
(map \ (lambda \ (n) \ (expt \ n \ n)) \ '(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5)) \Rightarrow (1 \ 4 \ 27 \ 256 \ 3125)
```

(append-map f xs ...)

procedure

Maps f over the elements of the lists xs ..., just as in function map. However, the results of the applications are appended together to determine the final result. append-map uses append to append the results together. The dynamic order in which the various applications of f are made is not specified. At least one of the list arguments xs ... must be finite.

This is equivalent to (apply append (map f xs ...)).

```
(append-map!
  (lambda (x)
      (list x (- x))) '(1 3 8))
⇒ (1 -1 3 -3 8 -8)
```

(filter-map f xs ...)

procedure

This function works like map, but only values differently from #f are being included in the resulting list. The dynamic order in which the various applications of f are made is not specified. At least one of the list arguments xs ... must be finite.

```
(filter-map
  (lambda (x)
       (and (number? x) (* x x))) '(a 1 b 3 c 7))
⇒ (1 9 49)
```

(for-each f xs ...)

procedure

The arguments to for-each xs... are like the arguments to map, but for-each calls proc for its side effects rather than for its values. Unlike map, for-each is guaranteed to call proc on the elements of the lists in order from the first element to the last. If more than one list is given and not all lists have the same length, for-each terminates when the shortest list runs out.

(fold-left $f \times xs \dots$)

procedure

Fundamental list recursion operator applying f to the elements $x1 \dots xn$ of list xs in the following way: (f ... (f (f z x1) x2) ... xn). In other words, this function applies f recursively based on the following rules, assuming one list parameter xs:

```
(fold-left f z xs) \Rightarrow (fold-left f (f z (car xs)) (cdr xs)) (fold-left f z '()) \Rightarrow z
```

If n list arguments are provided, then function f must take n+1 parameters: one element from each list, and the "seed" or fold state, which is initially z as its very first argument. The fold-left operation terminates when the shortest list runs out of values.

```
(fold-left (lambda (x y) (cons y x)) '() '(1 2 3 4)) ⇒ (4 3 2 1)
(define (xcons+ rest a b) (cons (+ a b) rest))
(fold-left xcons+ '() '(1 2 3 4) '(10 20 30 40 50)) ⇒ (44 33 22 11)
```

Please note, compared to function fold from library (srfi 1), this function applies the "seed"/fold state always as its first argument to f.

(fold-right $f \times xs \dots$)

procedure

Fundamental list recursion operator applying f to the elements $x1 \dots xn$ of list xs in the following way: $(f \times 1 \ (f \times 2 \dots (f \times n z)))$. In other words, this function applies f recursively based on the following rules, assuming one list parameter xs:

```
 (\text{fold-right f z xs}) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad (\text{f (car xs) (fold-right f z (cdr xs))}) \\ (\text{fold-right f z '()}) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad z \\ (\text{define (xcons xs x) (cons x xs)}) \\ (\text{fold-left xcons '() '(1 2 3 4)}) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad (4 3 2 1)
```

If n list arguments xs ... are provided, then function f must take n+1 parameters: one element from each list, and the "seed" or fold state, which is initially z. The fold-right operation terminates when the shortest list runs out of values.

As opposed to fold-left, procedure fold-right is not tail-recursive.

(sort less xs)

procedure

Returns a sorted list containing all elements of xs such that for every element xi at position i, (less xj xi) returns #t for all elements xj at position j where j < i.

(merge less xs ys)

procedure

Merges two lists *xs* and *ys* which are both sorted with respect to the total ordering predicate *less* and returns the result as a list.

(tabulate count proc)

procedure

Returns a list with *count* elements. Element i of the list, where $0 \le i < count$, is produced by (proc i).

```
(tabulate 4 fx1+) \Rightarrow (1 2 3 4)
```

(iota count)

(iota count start)

procedure

(iota count start step)

Returns a list containing the elements (start start+step ... start+(count-1)*step). The *start* and *step* parameters default to 0 and 1.

```
(iota 5) \Rightarrow (0 1 2 3 4)
(iota 5 0 -0.1) \Rightarrow (0 -0.1 -0.2 -0.3 -0.4)
```

25.4 Finding and extracting elements

(list-tail xs k)

procedure

Returns the sublist of list xs obtained by omitting the first k elements. Procedure list-tail could be defined by

```
(define (list-tail xs k)
  (if (zero? k) xs (list-tail (cdr xs) (- k 1))))
```

(list-ref xs k)

procedure

Returns the k-th element of list xs. This is the same as the car of (list-tail xs k).

```
(memq obj xs)
(memv obj xs)
(member obj xs)
(member obj xs compare)
```

These procedures return the first sublist of xs whose car is obj, where the sublists of xs are the non-empty lists returned by (list-tail xs k) for k less than the length of xs. If obj does not occur in xs, then #f is returned. The memq procedure uses eq? to compare obj with the elements of xs, while memv uses eqv? and member uses compare, if given, and equal? otherwise.

```
(delq obj xs)
(delv obj xs)
(delete obj xs)
(delete obj xs compare)
```

Returns a copy of list xs with all entries equal to element obj removed. delq uses eq? to compare obj with the elements in list xs, delv uses eqv?, and delete uses compare if given, and equal? otherwise.

```
(assq obj alist)
(assv obj alist)
(assoc obj alist)
(assoc obj alist compare)
```

alist must be an association list, i.e. a list of key/value pairs. This family of procedures finds the first pair in *alist* whose car field is *obj*, and returns that pair. If no pair in *alist* has *obj* as its car, then #f is returned. The assq procedure uses eq? to compare *obj* with the car fields of the pairs in *alist*, while assv uses eqv? and assoc uses *compare* if given, and equal? otherwise.

```
(define e '((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)))
(assq 'a e)
                                              (a 1)
                                           \Rightarrow
                                              (b 2)
(assq 'b e)
(assq 'd e)
                                           ⇒
                                              #f
(assq (list 'a) '(((a)) ((b)) ((c))))
                                              #f
                                           ⇒
(assoc (list 'a) '(((a)) ((b)) ((c))))
                                              ((a))
(assq 5 '((2 3) (5 7) (11 13)))
                                           ⇒ unspecified
(assv 5 '((2 3) (5 7) (11 13)))
                                          ⇒ (5 7)
```

```
(alist-delq obj alist)
(alist-delv obj alist)
(alist-delete obj alist)
(alist-delete obj alist compare)
```

Returns a copy of association list *alist* with all entries removed whose car is equal to element *obj*. alistdelq uses eq? to compare obj with the first elements of all members of list xs, alistdelv uses eqv?, and alistdelete uses *compare* if given, and equal? otherwise.

```
(key xs)
(key xs default)

procedure
```

Returns (car xs) if xs is a pair, otherwise *default* is being returned. If *default* is not provided as an argument, #f is used instead.

```
(value xs) [procedure (value xs default)
```

Returns (cdr xs) if xs is a pair, otherwise *default* is being returned. If *default* is not provided as an argument, #f is used instead.

26 LispKit Log

Library (lispkit log) defines a simple logging API for LispKit. Log entries are sent to a *logger*. A logger processes each log entry, e.g. by adding or filtering information, and eventually persists it if the severity of the log entry is at or above the level of the severity of the logger. Supported are logging to a port and into a file. The macOS IDE *LispPad* implements a special version of (lispkit log) which makes log messages available in a session logging user interface supporting filtering, sorting, and exporting of log entries.

A log entry consists of the following four components: a timestamp, a severity, a sequence of tags, and a log message. Timestamps are generated via current-second. There are five severities, represented as symbols, supported by this library: debug, info, warn, err, and fatal. Also tags are represented as symbols. The sequence of tags is represented as a list of symbols. A log message is a string.

Logging functions take the logger as an optional argument. If it is not provided, the *current logger* is chosen. The current logger is represented via the parameter object <code>current-logger</code>. The current logger is initially set to <code>default-logger</code>.

26.1 Log severities

Log severities are represented using symbols. The following symbols are supported:

- debug (0),
- info (1),
- warn (2),
- err (3), and
- fatal (4).

Each severity has an associated *severity level* (previously listed in parenthesis for each severity). The higher the level, the more severe a logged issue.

default-severity object

The default logging severity that is used if no severity is specified (initially 'debug') when a new empty logger is created via procedure logger.

(severity? obj)

Returns #t if obj is an object representing a log severity, #f otherwise. The following symbols are representing severities: debug, info, warn, err, and fatal.

(severity->level sev) procedure

Returns the severity level of severity sev as a fixnum.

(severity->string sev) procedure

Returns a human readable string (in English) for the default textual representation of the given severity sev.

26.2 Log formatters

Log formatters are used by port and file loggers to map a structured logging request consisting of a timestamp, severity, log message, and logging tags into a string.

default-log-formatter

object

The default log formatting procedure. It is used by default when a new port or file logger gets created and no formatter procedure is provided.

(long-log-formatter timestamp sev message tags)

procedure

Formatter procedure using a long format.

(short-log-formatter timestamp sev message tags)

Formatter procedure using a short format.

procedure

26.3 Logger objects

default-logger

object

The default logger that is initially created by the logging library. The native implementation for LispKit logs to standard out, the native implementation for LispPad logs into the session logging system of LispPad.

current-logger

parameter object

Parameter object referring to the current logger that is used as a default if no logger object is provided for a logging request. Initially current-logger is set to default-logger.

(logger? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a logger object, #f otherwise.

(logger)

procedure

(logger sev)

Returns a new empty logger with the lowest persisted severity *sev*. The logger does not perform any logging action. If *sev* is not provided, default-severity is used as a default.

(make-logger logproc lg)

procedure

(make-logger logproc deinit lg)

Returns a new logger with logging procedure *logproc*, the de-initialization thunk *deinit*, and a logger object *lg* which can be used as a delegate and whose state will be inherited (e.g. the lowest persisted severity).

logproc gets called by logging requests via procedures such as log, log-debug, etc. logproc is a procedure with the following signature: (logproc timestamp sev message tags). timestamp is a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970 (e.g. returned by current-second), sev is a severity, message is the log message string, and tags is a list of logging tags. A tag is represented as a symbol.

Procedure *deinit* is called without parameters when the logger gets closed via *close-logger* before the deinitialization procedure of *lg* is called.

(make-port-logger port)

procedure

(make-port-logger port formatter)

(make-port-logger port formatter sev)

Returns a new port logger object which forwards log messages formatted by *formatter* to *port* if the severity is above the lowest persisted severity *sev*.

formatter is a procedure with the following signature: (formatter timestamp sev message tags) . timestamp is a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January

1, 1970, sev is a severity, message is the log message string, and tags is a list of logging tags. A tag is represented as a symbol.

(make-file-logger path)

procedure

(make-file-logger path formatter)

(make-file-logger path formatter sev)

Returns a new file logger object which writes log messages formatted by *formatter* into a new file at the given file path *path* if the severity is above the lowest persisted severity *sev*.

formatter is a procedure with the following signature: (formatter timestamp sev message tags) . timestamp is a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970, sev is a severity, message is the log message string, and tags is a list of logging tags. A tag is represented as a symbol.

(make-tag-logger tag lg)

rocedure

Returns a new logger which includes *tag* into the tags to log and forwards the logging request to logger *lg*.

(make-filter-logger filter lg)

procedure

Returns a new logger which filters logging requests via procedure *filter* and forwards the requests which pass the filter to logger *lg*.

filter is a predicate with the following signature: (filter timestamp sev message tags). timestamp is a floating-point number representing the number of seconds since 00:00 UTC on January 1, 1970, sev is a severity, message is the log message string, and tags is a list of logging tags. A tag is represented as a symbol.

(close-logger lg)

procedure

Closes the logger *lg* by calling the deinitialization procedures of the full logger chain of *lg*.

(logger-addproc lg)

procedure

Returns the logging request procedure used by logger *lg*.

(logger-severity lg)

procedure

Returns the default logging severity used by logger *lg*.

(logger-severity-set! lg sev)

procedure

Sets the default logging severity used by logger *lg* to *sev*.

26.4 Logging procedures

(log sev message)

procedure

(log sev message tag)

(log sev message lg)

(log sev message tag lg)

Logs message string *message* with severity *sev* into logger *lg* with *tag* if provided. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

(log-debug message)

procedure

(log-debug message tag)

(log-debug message lg)

(log-debug message tag lg)

Logs message string *message* with severity debug into logger *lg* with *tag* if provided. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

procedure

(log-info message)

(log-info message tag)

(log-info message lg)

(log-info message tag lg)

Logs message string *message* with severity info into logger *lg* with *tag* if provided. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

(log-warn message)

procedure

(log-warn message tag)

(log-warn message lg)

(log-warn message tag lg)

Logs message string *message* with severity warn into logger *lg* with *tag* if provided. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

(log-error message)

procedure

(log-error message tag)

(log-error message lg)

(log-error message tag lg)

Logs message string *message* with severity error into logger *lg* with *tag* if provided. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

(log-fatal message)

procedure

(log-fatal message tag)

(log-fatal message lg)

(log-fatal message tag lg)

Logs message string message with severity fatal into logger lg with tag if provided. If lg is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

26.5 Logging syntax

(log-time expr)

syntax

(log-time expr descr)

(log-time expr descr tag)

(log-time expr descr tag lg)

Log the time for executing expression *expr* into logger *lg. descr* is a description string and *tag* is a logging tag. If *lg* is not provided, the current logger (as defined by parameter object current-logger) is used.

(log-using lg body ...)

syntax

Assigns lg as the current logger and executed expressions body ... in the context of this assignment.

(log-into-file filepath body ...)

syntax

Creates a new file logger at file path *filepath*, assigns the new file logger to parameter object current-logger and executes the statements *body* ... in the context of this assignment.

(log-with-tag tag body ...)

syntax

Creates a new logger which appends *tag* to the tags logged to current-logger and assigns the new logger to current-logger. *body* ... gets executed in the context of this assignment.

(log-from-severity sev body ...)

syntax

Modifies the current logger setting its lowest persisted severity to *sev* and executing *body* ... in the context of this change. Once *body* ... has been executed, the lowest persisted severity is set back to its original value.

(log-dropping-below-severity sev body ...)

syntax

Creates a new logger on top of current-logger which filters out all logging requests with a severity level below the severity level of *sev* and assigns the new logger to current-logger. *body* ... gets executed in the context of this assignment.

27 LispKit Markdown

Library (lispkit markdown) provides an API for programmatically constructing Markdown documents, for parsing strings in Markdown format, as well as for mapping Markdown documents into corresponding HTML. The Markdown syntax supported by this library is based on the CommonMark Markdown specification.

27.1 Data Model

Markdown documents are represented using an abstract syntax that is implemented by three algebraic datatypes block, list-item, and inline, via define-datatype of library (lispkit datatype)

27.1.1 Blocks

At the top-level, a Markdown document consist of a list of *blocks*. The following recursively defined datatype shows all the supported block types as variants of type block.

```
(define-datatype block markdown-block?
  (document blocks)
     where (markdown-blocks? blocks)
  (blockquote blocks)
     where (markdown-blocks? blocks)
  (list-items start tight items)
     where (and (opt fixnum? start) (markdown-list? items))
  (paragraph text)
     where (markdown-text? text)
  (heading level text)
     where (and (fixnum? level) (markdown-text? text))
  (indented-code lines)
     where (every? string? lines)
  (fenced-code lang lines)
     where (and (opt string? lang) (every? string? lines))
  (html-block lines)
     where (every? string? lines)
  (reference-def label dest title)
     where (and (string? label) (string? dest) (every? string? title))
  (table header alignments rows)
     where (and (every? markdown-text? header)
                 (every? symbol? alignments)
                 (every? (lambda (x) (every? markdown-text? x)) rows))
  (definition-list defs)
     where (every? (lambda (x)
                      (and (markdown-text? (car x))
                           (markdown-list? (cdr x)))) defs)
  (thematic-break))
```

(document blocks) represents a full Markdown document consisting of a list of blocks. (blockquote blocks) represents a blockquote block which itself has a list of sub-blocks. (list-items start tight

items) defines either a bullet list or an ordered list. *start* is #f for bullet lists and defines the first item number for ordered lists. *tight* is a boolean which is #f if this is a loose list (with vertical spacing between the list items). *items* is a list of list items of type list-item as defined as follows:

```
(define-datatype list-item markdown-list-item?
  (bullet ch tight? blocks)
    where (and (char? ch) (markdown-blocks? blocks))
  (ordered num ch tight? blocks)
    where (and (fixnum? num) (char? ch) (markdown-blocks? blocks)))
```

The most frequent Markdown block type is a paragraph. (paragraph text) represents a single paragraph of text where text refers to a list of inline text fragments of type inline (see below). (heading level text) defines a heading block for a heading of a given level, where level is a number starting with 1 (up to 6). (indented-code lines) represents a code block consisting of a list of text lines each represented by a string. (fenced-code lang lines) is similar: it defines a code block with code expressed in the given language lang. (html lines) defines a HTML block consisting of the given lines of text. (reference-def label dest title) introduces a reference definition consisting of a given label, a destination URI dest, as well as a title string. (table header alignments rows) defines a table consisting of headers, a list of markdown text describing the header of each column, alignments, a list of symbols l (= left), c (= center), and r (= right), and rows, a list of lists of markdown text. (definition-list defs) represents a definition list where defs refers to a list of definitions. A definition has the form (name def ...) where name is markdown text defining a name, and def is a bullet item using: as bullet character. Finally, (thematic-break) introduces a thematic break block separating the previous and following blocks visually, often via a line.

27.1.2 Inline Text

Markdown text is represented as lists of inline text segments, each represented as an object of type inline . inline is defined as follows:

```
(define-datatype inline markdown-inline?
  (text str)
     where (string? str)
  (code str)
     where (string? str)
  (emph text)
      where (markdown-text? text)
  (strong text)
      where (markdown-text? text)
  (link text uri title)
      where (and (markdown-text? text) (string? uri) (string? title))
  (auto-link uri)
     where (string? uri)
  (email-auto-link email)
     where (string? uri)
  (image text uri title)
     where (and (markdown-text? text) (string? uri) (string? title))
  (html tag)
      where (string? tag)
  (line-break hard?))
```

(text str) refers to a text segment consisting of string str. (code str) refers to a code string str (often displayed as verbatim text). (emph text) represents emphasized text (often displayed as italics). (strong text) represents text in boldface. (link text uri title) represents a hyperlink with text linking to uri and title representing a title for the link. (auto-link uri) is a link where uri is both the

text and the destination URI. (email-auto-link email) is a "mailto:" link to the given email address email. (image text uri title) inserts an image at uri with image description text and image link title title. (html tag) represents a single HTML tag of the form < tag > . Finally, (line-break #f) introduces a "soft line break", whereas (line-break #t) inserts a "hard line break".

27.2 Creating Markdown documents

Markdown documents can either be constructed programmatically via the datatypes introduced above, or a string representing a Markdown documents gets parsed into the internal abstract syntax representation via function markdown.

For instance, (markdown "# My title\n\nThis is a paragraph.") returns a markdown document consisting of two blocks: a *header block* for header "My title" and a *paragraph block* for the text "This is a paragraph":

The same document can be created programmatically in the following way:

27.3 Processing Markdown documents

Since the abstract syntax of Markdown documents is represented via algebraic datatypes, pattern matching can be used to deconstruct the data. For instance, the following function returns all the top-level headers of a given Markdown document:

An example for how top-headings can be applied to this Markdown document:

```
# *header* 1
Paragraph.
# __header__ 2
## header 3
The end.
```

is shown here:

```
(top-headings
  (markdown "# *header* 1\nParagraph.\n# __header__ 2\n## header 3\nThe end."))
⇒ ("header 1" "header 2")
```

27.4 API

(markdown-blocks? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a proper list of objects o for which (markdown-block? o) returns #t; otherwise the procedure returns #f.

(markdown-block? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a mMrkdown block object, i.e. a variant of algebraic datatype block.

(markdown-block=? lhs rhs)

procedure

Returns #t if Markdown blocks lhs and rhs are equals; otherwise it returns #f.

(markdown-list? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a proper list of list items i for which (markdown-list-item? i) returns #t; otherwise the procedure returns #f.

(markdown-list-item? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a Markdown list item, i.e. a variant of algebraic datatype list-item.

(markdown-list-item=? lhs rhs)

procedure

Returns #t if Markdown list items lhs and rhs are equals; otherwise it returns #f.

(markdown-text? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a proper list of objects *o* for which (markdown-inline? o) returns #t; otherwise the procedure returns #f.

(markdown-inline? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an inline text object, i.e. a variant of algebraic datatype inline.

(markdown-inline=? lhs rhs)

procedure

Returns #t if the two Markdown inline text objects *lhs* and *rhs* are equals; otherwise the procedure returns #f.

(markdown? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a valid Markdown document, i.e. an instance of the document variant of datatype block; otherwise the procedure returns #f.

(markdown=? lhs rhs)

procedure

Returns #t if Markdown documents lhs and rhs are equals; otherwise it returns #f.

(markdown str)

procedure

Parses the text in Markdown format in *str* and returns a representation of the abstract syntax using the algebraic datatypes block, list-item, and inline.

(markdown->html *md*)

procedure

Converts a Markdown document *md* into HTML, represented in form of a string. *md* needs to satisfy the *markdown*? predicate.

(blocks->html bs)

procedure

(blocks->html bs tight)

Converts a Markdown block or list of blocks *bs* into HTML, represented in form of a string. *tight?* is a boolean and should be set to true if the conversion should consider tight typesetting (see CommonMark specification for details).

(text->html txt) procedure

Converts Markdown inline text or a list of inline text objects *txt* into HTML and returns the generated HTML in form of a string.

(markdown->html-doc md)

procedure

(markdown->html-doc md style)

(markdown->html-doc md style codestyle)

(markdown->html-doc md style codestyle cblockstyle)

(markdown->html-doc md style codestyle cblockstyle colors)

Converts a Markdown document md into a styled HTML document, represented in form of a string. md needs to satisfy the markdown? predicate. style is a list with up to three elements: $(size\ font\ color)$. It specifies the default text style of the document. size is the point size of the font, font is a font name, and color is a HTML color specification (e.g. "#FF6789"). codestyle specifies the style of inline code in the same format. colors is a list of HTML color specifications for the following document elements in this order: the border color of code blocks, the color of blockquote "bars", the color of H1, H2, H3 and H4 headers.

(text->string text) procedure

Converts given inline text *text* into a string representation which encodes markup in *text* using Markdown syntax. *text* needs to satisfy the *markdown-text*? predicate.

(text->raw-string text)

procedure

Converts given inline text *text* into a string representation ignoring markup in *text*. *text* needs to satisfy the *markdown-text*? predicate.

28 LispKit Match

(lispkit match) ports Alex Shinn's portable hygienic pattern matcher library to LispKit and adapts it to match LispKit's features. For instance, (lispkit match) assumes all pairs are immutable. At this point, the library does not support matching against algebraic datatypes. Procedure match of library (lispkit datatype) needs to be used for this purpose.

28.1 Simple patterns

Patterns are written to look like the printed representation of the objects they match. The basic usage for matching an expression expr against a pattern pat via procedure match looks like this:

```
(match expr (pat body ...) ...)
```

Here, the result of expr is matched against each pattern in turn, and the corresponding body is evaluated for the first to succeed. Thus, a list of three elements matches a list of three elements.

```
(let ((ls (list 1 2 3)))
(match ls ((1 2 3) #t))) ⇒ #t
```

If no patterns match, an error is signaled. Identifiers will match anything, and make the corresponding binding available in the body.

```
(match (list 1 2 3) ((a b c) b)) \Rightarrow 2
```

If the same identifier occurs multiple times, the first instance will match anything, but subsequent instances must match a value which is equal? to the first.

```
(match (list 1 2 1) ((a a b) 1) ((a b a) 2)) ⇒ 2
```

The special identifier _ matches anything, no matter how many times it is used, and does not bind the result in the body.

```
(match (list 1 2 1) ((_ _ b) 1) ((a b a) 2)) \Rightarrow 1
```

To match a literal identifier (or list or any other literal), use quote.

```
(match 'a ('b 1) ('a 2)) ⇒ 2
```

Analogous to its normal usage in scheme, quasiquote can be used to quote a mostly literally matching object with selected parts unquoted.

```
(match (list 1 2 3) (`(1 ,b ,c) (list b c))) ⇒ (2 3)
```

Often you want to match any number of a repeated pattern. Inside a list pattern you can append ... after an element to match zero or more of that pattern, similar to a regular expression *Kleene star*.

```
(match (list 1 2) ((1 2 3 ...) #t)) \Rightarrow #t \\ (match (list 1 2 3) ((1 2 3 ...) #t)) \Rightarrow #t \\ (match (list 1 2 3 3 3) ((1 2 3 ...) #t)) \Rightarrow #t
```

Pattern variables matched inside the repeated pattern are bound to a list of each matching instance in the body.

```
(match (list 1 2) ((a b c ...) c)) \Rightarrow ()

(match (list 1 2 3) ((a b c ...) c)) \Rightarrow (3)

(match (list 1 2 3 4 5) ((a b c ...) c)) \Rightarrow (3 4 5)
```

More than one ... may not be used in the same list, since this would require exponential backtracking in the general case. However, ... need not be the final element in the list, and may be succeeded by a fixed number of patterns.

___ is provided as an alias for ... when it is inconvenient to use the ellipsis (as in a syntax-rules template).

The ...1 syntax is exactly like the ... except that it matches one or more repetitions like a + in regular expressions.

```
(match (list 1 2) ((a b c ..1) c)) \Rightarrow [error] no matching pattern (match (list 1 2 3) ((a b c ..1) c)) <math>\Rightarrow (3)
```

28.2 Composite patterns

The boolean operators and , or and not can be used to group and negate patterns analogously to their Scheme counterparts.

The and operator ensures that all subpatterns match. This operator is often used with the idiom (and x pat) to bind x to the entire value that matches pat, similar to "as-patterns" in ML and Haskell. Another common use is in conjunction with not patterns to match a general case with certain exceptions.

```
 (\mathsf{match} \ 1 \ ((\mathsf{and}) \ \#\mathsf{t})) \quad \Rightarrow \ \#\mathsf{t} 
 (\mathsf{match} \ 1 \ ((\mathsf{and} \ \mathsf{x}) \ \mathsf{x})) \quad \Rightarrow \ 1 
 (\mathsf{match} \ 1 \ ((\mathsf{and} \ \mathsf{x} \ 1) \ \mathsf{x})) \quad \Rightarrow \ 1
```

The or operator ensures that at least one subpattern matches. If the same identifier occurs in different subpatterns, it is matched independently. All identifiers from all subpatterns are bound if the or operator matches, but the binding is only defined for identifiers from the subpattern which matched.

```
\begin{array}{lll} (\text{match 1 } ((\text{or }) \ \#\text{t}) & (\text{else } \#\text{f})) & \Rightarrow & \#\text{f} \\ (\text{match 1 } ((\text{or } x) \ x)) & \Rightarrow & 1 \\ (\text{match 1 } ((\text{or } x \ 2) \ x)) & \Rightarrow & 1 \\ (\text{match 1 } ((\text{or } 1 \ x) \ x)) & \Rightarrow & [\text{error}] \ \text{variable not yet initialized: } x \end{array}
```

The not operator succeeds if the given pattern does not match. None of the identifiers used are available in the body.

```
(match 1 ((not 2) #t)) ⇒ #t
```

The more general operator ? can be used to provide a predicate. The usage is (? predicate pat ...) where predicate is a Scheme expression evaluating to a predicate called on the value to match, and any optional patterns after the predicate are then matched as in an and pattern.

```
(match 1 ((? odd? x) x)) \Rightarrow 1
```

28.3 Advanced patterns

The field operator = is used to extract an arbitrary field and match against it. It is useful for more complex or conditional destructuring that can't be more directly expressed in the pattern syntax. The usage is (= field pat), where field can be any expression, and should evaluate to a procedure of one argument which gets applied to the value to match to generate a new value to match against pat.

Thus the pattern (and (= car x) (= cdr y)) is equivalent to $(x \cdot y)$, except it will result in an immediate error if the value isn't a pair.

```
(match '(1 . 2) ((= car x) x)) \Rightarrow 1

(match '(1 . 2)

((and (= car x) (= cdr y)) (+ x y))) \Rightarrow 3

(match 4 ((= square x) x)) \Rightarrow 16
```

The record operator \$ is used as a concise way to match records. The usage is (\$ rtd field ...) , where rtd should be the *record type descriptor* specified as the first argument to define-record-type , and each field is a subpattern matched against the fields of the record in order. Not all fields must be present. For more information on *record type descriptors* see library (lispkit record).

```
(define-record-type employee
  (make-employee name title)
  employee?
  (name get-name)
  (title get-title))

(match (make-employee "Bob" "Doctor")
      (($ employee n t) (list t n)))
      ⇒ ("Doctor" "Bob")
```

For records with more fields it can be helpful to match them by name rather than position. For this you can use the @ operator, originally a Gauche extension:

```
(define-record-type employee
  (make-employee name title)
  employee?
```

```
(name get-name)
  (title get-title))

(match (make-employee "Bob" "Doctor")
  ((@ employee (title t) (name n)) (list t n)))

⇒ ("Doctor" "Bob")
```

The set! and get! operators are used to bind an identifier to the setter and getter of a field, respectively. The setter is a procedure of one argument, which mutates the field to that argument. The getter is a procedure of no arguments which returns the current value of the field.

```
(let ((x (mcons 1 2)))
 (match x ((1 . (set! s)) (s 3) x))) ⇒ #<pair 1 3>
 (match '(1 . 2) ((1 . (get! g)) (g))) ⇒ 2
```

The new operator *** can be used to search a tree for subpatterns. A pattern of the form (x *** y) represents the subpattern y located somewhere in a tree where the path from the current object to y can be seen as a list of the form (x ...). y can immediately match the current object in which case the path is the empty list. In a sense, it is a two-dimensional version of the ... pattern. As a common case the pattern $(_ *** y)$ can be used to search for y anywhere in a tree, regardless of the path used.

```
(match '(a (a (b))) ((x *** 'b) x)) \Rightarrow (a a a)

(match '(a (b) (c (d e) (f g)))

((x *** 'g) x)) \Rightarrow (a c f)
```

28.4 Pattern grammar

```
pat = patvar
                                      ;; anything, and binds pattern var
                                      ;; anything
                                      ;; the empty list
    ()
                                      ;; #t
    I #t
    | #f
                                      ;; #f
    string
                                      ;; a string
                                      ;; a number
    l number
                                      ;; a character
    character
      'sexp
                                     ;; an s-expression
    | 'symbol
                                    ;; a symbol (special case of s-expr)
    | (pat1 ... patN) | ;; list of n elements | (pat1 ... patN . patN+1) | ;; list of n or more | (pat1 ... patN patN+1 ooo) | ;; list of n or more, each element
                                      ;; of remainder must match patN+1
                                      ;; vector of n elements
    | #(pat1 ... patN)
    | #(pat1 ... patN patN+1 ooo) ;; vector of n or more, each element
                                      ;; of remainder must match patN+1
    | ($ record-type pat1 ... patN) ;; a record (patK matches in slot order)
      (struct struct-type pat1 ... patN) ;; ditto
    | (@ record-type (slot1 pat1) ...)
                                              ;; a record (using slot names)
    | (object struct-type (slot1 pat1) ...) ;; ditto
                                      ;; apply proc, match the result to pat
    | (= proc pat)
    | (and pat ...)
                                      ;; if all of pats match
                                     ;; if any of pats match
    | (or pat ...)
                                    ;; if no pats match
      (not pat ...)
      (? predicate pat ...)
(set! patvar)
                                  ;; if predicate true and all pats match
     (set! patvar)
                                      ;; anything, and binds setter
                                      ;; anything, and binds getter
    | (get! patvar)
    | (pat1 *** pat2)
                                   ;; tree subpattern (*)
```

```
| `qp
                                  ;; a quasi-pattern
patvar = a symbol except _, quote, $, struct, @, object, =, and, or,
       not, ?, set!, get!, quasiquote, ..., ___, ..1, ..=, ..*.
000 = ...
                                 ;; zero or more
                                  ;; zero or more
                                 ;; one or more
   | ..1
                                 ;; exactly k where k is an integer. (*)
   | ..= k
                                     Example: ..= 1, ..= 2 ...
   | ..* k j
                                 ;; between k and j, where k and j are (*)
                                 ;; integers. Example: ..* 3 4, match 3
                                      or 4 of a pattern ..* 1 5 match from
                                         ;; 1 to 5 of a pattern
                                 ;; the empty list
qp = ()
   #t
                                 ;; #t
   # f
                                 ;; #f
                                 ;; a string
   | string
                                 ;; a number
    | number
   | character
                                 ;; a character
                                 ;; a symbol
   | identifier
   ;; list of n elements
   | (qp_1 ... qp_n)
                                 ;; of remainder must match qp_n+1
                                 ;; vector of n elements
   | #(qp_1 ... qp_n)
                                 ;; vector of n or more, each element
   | #(qp_1 ... qp_n qp_n+1 ooo)
                                 ;; of remainder must match qp_n+1
   | ,pat
                                 ;; a pattern
   | ,@pat
                                  ;; a pattern
```

28.5 Matching API

```
(match expr (pat . body) ...)

(match expr (pat (=> failure) . body) ...)
```

The result of *expr* is matched against each pattern *pat* in turn until the first pattern matches. When a match is found, the corresponding *body* statements are evaluated in order, and the result of the last expression is returned as the result of the entire match evaluation. If a failure occurs, then it is bound to a procedure of no arguments which continues processing at the next pattern. If no pattern matches, an error is signaled.

```
(match-lambda (pat body ...) ...)
```

procedure

This is a shortcut for lambda in combination with match. match-lambda returns a procedure of one argument, and matches that argument against each clause.

```
(lambda (expr) (match expr (pat body ...) ...))
```

(match-lambda* (pat body ...) ...)

procedure

match-lambda* is similar to match-lambda. It returns a procedure of any number of arguments, and matches the argument list against each clause.

```
(lambda expr (match expr (pat body ...) ...))

(match-let ((var value) ...) body ...)

(match-let loop ((var value) ...) body ...)
```

match-let matches each variable *var* to the corresponding expression, and evaluates the body with all match variables in scope. It raises an error if any of the expressions fail to match. This syntax is analogous to named let and can also be used for recursive functions which match on their arguments as in match-lambda*.

(match-let* ((var value) ...) body ...)

procedure

Similar to match-let, but analogously to let*, match-let* matches and binds the variables in sequence, with preceding match variables in scope.

(match-letrec ((var value) ...) body ...)

procedure

Similar to match-let, but analogously to letrec, match-letrec matches and binds the variables with all match variables in scope.

This documentation was derived from code and documentation written by Andrew K. Wright, Robert Cartwright, Alex Shinn, Panicz Maciej Godek, Felix Thibault, Shiro Kawai and Ludovic Cortès.

29 LispKit Math

Library (lispkit math) defines functions on numbers. Numbers are arranged into a tower of subtypes in which each level is a subset of the level above it:

- number
- complex number
- real number
- · rational number
- integer

For example, 3 is an integer. Therefore 3 is also a rational, a real, and a complex number. These types are defined by the predicates number? , complex? , real? , rational? , and integer? .

There is no simple relationship between a number's type and its representation inside a computer. Scheme's numerical operations treat numbers as abstract data, as independent of their representation as possible.

29.1 Numerical constants

```
pi
The constant pi.

e

constant

Euler's number, i.e. the base of the natural logarithm.
```

29.2 Predicates

```
(number? obj)
(complex? obj)
(real? obj)
(rational? obj)
(integer? obj)
```

These numerical type predicates can be applied to any kind of argument, including non-numbers. They return #t if the object is of the named type, and otherwise they return #f. In general, if a type predicate is true of a number then all higher type predicates are also true of that number. Consequently, if a type predicate is false of a number, then all lower type predicates are also false of that number.

If z is a complex number, then (real? z) is true if and only if (zero? (imag-part z)) is true. If x is an inexact real number, then (integer? x) is true if and only if (= x (round x)).

The numbers +inf.0, -inf.0, and +nan.0 are real but not rational.

```
(complex? 3+4i)
                 ⇒ #t
(complex? 3)
(real? 3)
                 ⇒ #t
(real? -2.5+0i) ⇒ #t
(real? -2.5+0.0i) ⇒ #f
(real? #e1e10)
(real? +inf.0)
(real? +nan.0)
(rational? -inf.0) ⇒ #f
(rational? 3.5) \Rightarrow #t
(rational? 6/10) ⇒ #t
(rational? 6/3) ⇒ #t
(integer? 3+0i)
(integer? 3.0)
                 ⇒ #t
(integer? 8/4)
```

(fixnum? obj) procedure

Returns #t if object *obj* is a fixnum; otherwise returns #f. A fixnum is an exact integer that is small enough to fit in a machine word. LispKit fixnums are 64-bit words. Fixnums are signed and encoded using 2's complement.

(ratnum? obj) procedure

Returns #t if object obj is a fractional number, i.e. a rational number which isn't an integer.

(bignum? obj) procedure

Returns #t if object obj is a large integer number, i.e. an integer which isn't a fixnum.

(flonum? obj) procedure

Returns #t if object obj is a floating-point number.

(cflonum? obj) procedure

Returns #t if object obj is a complex floating-point number.

```
(exact? obj)
(inexact? obj)
```

These numerical predicates provide tests for the exactness of a quantity. For any Scheme number, precisely one of exact? and inexact? is true.

```
(exact? 3.0) ⇒ #f
(exact? #e3.0) ⇒ #t
(inexact? 3.) ⇒ #t
```

(exact-integer? obj)

Returns #t if obj is both exact and an integer; otherwise returns #f.

```
(exact-integer? 32)  ⇒ #t
(exact-integer? 32.0)  ⇒ #f
(exact-integer? 32/5)  ⇒ #f
```

(finite? obj)

The finite? procedure returns #t on all real numbers except +inf.0, -inf.0, and +nan.0, and on complex numbers if their real and imaginary parts are both finite. Otherwise it returns #f.

procedure

procedure

procedure

procedure

procedure

(infinite? obj)

The infinite? procedure returns #t on the real numbers +inf.0 and -inf.0, and on complex numbers if their real or imaginary parts or both are infinite. Otherwise it returns #f.

(nan? obj)

The nan? procedure returns #t on +nan.0, and on complex numbers if their real or imaginary parts or both are +nan.0. Otherwise it returns #f.

(positive? x)

Returns #t if number x is positive, i.e. x > 0.

(negative? x)

Returns #t if number x is negative, i.e. x < 0.

(zero? z)

Returns #t if number z is zero, i.e. z = 0.

(even? n

Returns #t if the integer number n is even.

(odd? n)

Returns #t if the integer number n is odd.

29.3 Exactness and rounding

Scheme distinguishes between numbers that are represented exactly and those that might not be. This distinction is orthogonal to the dimension of type. A number is exact if it was written as an exact constant or was derived from exact numbers using only exact operations. A number is inexact if it was written as an inexact constant, if it was derived using inexact ingredients, or if it was derived using inexact operations.

Rational operations such as + should always produce exact results when given exact arguments. If the operation is unable to produce an exact result, then it either reports the violation of an implementation restriction or it silently coerces its result to an inexact value.

```
(exact ₺)

[procedure]
```

The procedure inexact returns an inexact representation of z. The value returned is the inexact number that is numerically closest to the argument. For inexact arguments, the result is the same as the argument. For exact complex numbers, the result is a complex number whose real and imaginary parts are the result of applying inexact to the real and imaginary parts of the argument, respectively. If an exact argument has no reasonably close inexact equiv- alent (in the sense of =), then a violation of an implementation restriction may be reported.

The procedure exact returns an exact representation of z. The value returned is the exact number that is numerically closest to the argument. For exact arguments, the result is the same as the argument.

For inexact non-integral real arguments, the function may return a rational approximation. For inexact complex arguments, the result is a complex number whose real and imaginary parts are the result of applying exact to the real and imaginary parts of the argument, respectively. If an inexact argument has no reasonably close exact equivalent, (in the sense of =), then a violation of an implementation restriction may be reported.

These procedures implement the natural one-to-one correspondence between exact and inexact integers throughout an implementation-dependent range.

(approximate *x delta*)

procedure

Procedure approximate approximates floating-point number *x* returning a rational number which differs at most *delta* from *x*.

(rationalize x y)

procedure

The rationalize procedure returns the simplest rational number differing from x by no more than y. A rational number r1 is simpler than another rational number r2 if r1 = p1/q1 and r2 = p2/q2 (in lowest terms) and $|p1| \le |p2|$ and $|q1| \le |q2|$. Thus 3/5 is simpler than 4/7. Although not all rationals are comparable in this ordering (consider 2/7 and 3/5), any interval contains a rational number that is simpler than every other rational number in that interval (the simpler 2/5 lies between 2/7 and 3/5). Note that 0 = 0/1 is the simplest rational of all.

```
(rationalize (exact .3) 1/10) \Rightarrow 1/3

(floor x)
(ceiling x)
(truncate x)
(round x)
```

These procedures return integers. floor returns the largest integer not larger than x. ceiling returns the smallest integer not smaller than x. truncate returns the integer closest to x whose absolute value is not larger than the absolute value of x. round returns the closest integer to x, rounding to even when x is halfway between two integers.

If the argument to one of these procedures is inexact, then the result will also be inexact. If an exact value is needed, the result can be passed to the exact procedure. If the argument is *infinite* or a *NaN*, then it is returned.

```
(floor -4.3)
                 ⇒ -5.0
(ceiling -4.3) ⇒ -4.0
(truncate -4.3) \Rightarrow -4.0
(round -4.3)
                 ⇒ -4.0
(floor 3.5)
                 ⇒ 3.0
(ceiling 3.5)
                 ⇒ 4.0
(truncate 3.5)
                 ⇒ 3.0
(round 3.5)
                 ⇒ 4.0 ; inexact
(round 7/2)
                 ⇒ 4
                        ; exact
(round 7)
                 ⇒ 7
```

29.4 Operations

```
(+ z ...) procedure
```

These procedures return the sum or product of their arguments.

```
(+34) \Rightarrow 7

(+3) \Rightarrow 3

(+) \Rightarrow 0

(*4) \Rightarrow 4

(*) \Rightarrow 1
```

```
(- z) procedure

(- z1 z2 ...)

**(/_z)**
(/ z1 z2 ...)
```

With two or more arguments, these procedures return the difference or quotient of their arguments, associating to the left. With one argument, however, they return the additive or multiplicative inverse of their argument.

It is an error if any argument of / other than the first is an exact zero. If the first argument is an exact zero, the implementation may return an exact zero unless one of the other arguments is a NaN.

```
(-34) \Rightarrow -1

(-345) \Rightarrow -6

(-3) \Rightarrow -3

(/345) \Rightarrow 3/20

(/3) \Rightarrow 1/3
```

```
(= x ...)
(< x ...)
(> x ...)
(<= x ...)
(>= x ...)
```

These procedures return #t if their arguments are (respectively): equal, monotonically increasing, monotonically decreasing, monotonically non-decreasing, or monotonically non-increasing, and #f otherwise. If any of the arguments are +nan.0, all the predicates return #f. They do not distinguish between inexact zero and inexact negative zero.

```
(\max x1 \ x2 \dots) (\min x1 \ x2 \dots)
```

These procedures return the maximum or minimum of their arguments.

If any argument is inexact, then the result will also be inexact (unless the procedure can prove that the inaccuracy is not large enough to affect the result, which is possible only in unusual implementations). If min or max is used to compare numbers of mixed exactness, and the numerical value of the result cannot be represented as an inexact number without loss of accuracy, then the procedure reports an implementation restriction.

```
(abs x) procedure
```

The abs procedure returns the absolute value of its argument *x*.

```
(square x) procedure
```

Returns the square of z. This is equivalent to (*zz).

```
(square 42) \Rightarrow 1764
(square 2.0) \Rightarrow 4.0
```

```
(sqrt x)
```

Returns the principal square root of z. The result will have either a positive real part, or a zero real part and a non-negative imaginary part.

```
(sqrt 9) ⇒ 3
(sqrt -1) ⇒ +i
```

(exact-integer-sqrt k)

procedure

Returns two non-negative exact integers s and r where $k = s^2 + r$ and $k < (s+1)^2$.

```
(expt x1 x2)
```

Returns z1 raised to the power z2. For non-zero z1, this is $z1 ^2 = e^2 (z2 \log z1)$. The value of $0^2 = e^2$ if (zero? z), 0 if (real-part z) is positive, and an error otherwise. Similarly for 0.0z, with inexact results.

```
(exp x)
(log x)
(log x1 x2)
(sin x)
(cos x)
(tan x)
(asin x)
(acos x)
(atan x)
(atan y x)
```

These procedures compute the usual transcendental functions. The log procedure computes the natural logarithm of z (not the base-ten logarithm) if a single argument is given, or the base-z2 logarithm of z1 if two arguments are given. The asin, acos, and atan procedures compute arc-sine, arc-cosine, and arc-tangent, respectively. The two-argument variant of atan computes (angle (make-rectangular x y)).

29.5 Division and remainder

(truncate-remainder n1 n2)

```
(gcd n ...) procedure (lcm n ...)
```

These procedures return the greatest common divisor (gcd) or least common multiple (lcm) of their arguments. The result is always non-negative.

```
(gcd 32 -36) ⇒ 4

(gcd) ⇒ 0

(lcm 32 -36) ⇒ 288

(lcm 32.0 -36) ⇒ 288.0 ; inexact

(lcm) ⇒ 1
```

```
(truncate/ n1 n2.) procedure (truncate-quotient n1 n2)
```

These procedures implement number-theoretic integer division. It is an error if n2 is zero. truncate/returns two integers; the other two procedures return an integer. All the procedures compute a quotient nq and remainder nr such that n1 = n2 * nq + nr. The three procedures are defined as follows:

```
(truncate/ n1 n2) =⇒ nq nr
(truncate-quotient n1 n2) =⇒ nq
(truncate-remainder n1 n2) =⇒ nr
```

The remainder nr is determined by the choice of integer nq: nr = n1 - n2 * nq where nq = truncate(n1/n2).

For any of the operators, and for integers n1 and n2 with n2 not equal to 0:

provided all numbers involved in that computation are exact.

```
(truncate/ 5 2) \Rightarrow 2 1

(truncate/ -5 2) \Rightarrow -2 -1

(truncate/ 5 -2) \Rightarrow -2 1

(truncate/ -5 -2) \Rightarrow 2 -1

(truncate/ -5 .0 -2) \Rightarrow 2.0 -1.0
```

```
(floor/ n1 n2)
(floor-quotient n1 n2)
(floor-remainder n1 n2)
```

These procedures implement number-theoretic integer division. It is an error if n2 is zero. floor/returns two integers; the other two procedures return an integer. All the procedures compute a quotient nq and remainder nr such that n1 = n2 * nq + nr. The three procedures are defined as follows:

```
(floor/ n1 n2) =⇒ nq nr
(floor-quotient n1 n2) =⇒ nq
(floor-remainder n1 n2) =⇒ nr
```

The remainder nr is determined by the choice of integer nq: nr = n1 - n2 * nq where nq = floor(n1/n2).

For any of the operators, and for integers n1 and n2 with n2 not equal to 0:

provided all numbers involved in that computation are exact.

```
(floor/ 5 2) ⇒ 2 1

(floor/ -5 2) ⇒ -3 1

(floor/ 5 -2) ⇒ -3 -1

(floor/ -5 -2) ⇒ 2 -1
```

```
(quotient n1 n2)
(remainder n1 n2)
(modulo n1 n2)
```

The quotient and remainder procedures are equivalent to truncate-quotient and truncate-remainder, respectively, and modulo is equivalent to floor-remainder. These procedures are provided for backward compatibility with earlier versions of the Scheme language specification.

29.6 Fractional numbers

(numerator q) (denominator q)

procedure

These procedures return the numerator or denominator of their rational number $\,q\,$. The result is computed as if the argument was represented as a fraction in lowest terms. The denominator is always positive. The denominator of 0 is defined to be 1.

```
(numerator (/ 6 4)) \Rightarrow 3

(denominator (/ 6 4)) \Rightarrow 2

(denominator (inexact (/ 6 4))) \Rightarrow 2.0
```

29.7 Complex numbers

(make-rectangular x1 x2)

procedure

Returns the complex number x1 + x2 * i. Since in LispKit, all complex numbers are inexact, makerectangular returns an inexact complex number for all x1 and x2.

(make-polar $x1 \ x2$)

procedure

Returns a complex number z such that $z = x1 * e^(x2 * i)$, i.e. x1 is the magnitude of the complex number. The make-polar procedure may return an inexact complex number even if its arguments are exact.

(real-part z)

procedure

Returns the real part of the given complex number z.

(imag-part z)

procedure

Returns the imaginary part of the given complex number z.

(magnitude z)

procedure

Returns the magnitude of the given complex number z. Assuming $z = x1 * e^{(x2 * i)}$, magnitude returns x1. The magnitude procedure is the same as abs for a real argument.

(angle z)

procedure

Returns the angle of the given complex number z. The angle is a floating-point number between -pi and pi.

29.8 String representation

```
(number->string z)
(number->string z radix)
(number->string z radix len)
(number->string z radix len prec)
(number->string z radix len prec noexp)
```

procedure

It is an error if radix is not one of 2, 8, 10, or 16. The procedure number->string takes a number z and a radix and returns as a string an external representation of the given number in the given radix such that

is true. It is an error if no possible result makes this expression true. If omitted, radix defaults to 10.

If z is inexact, the radix is 10, and the above expression can be satisfied by a result that contains a decimal point, then the result contains a decimal point and is expressed using the minimum number of digits (exclusive of exponent and trailing zeroes) needed to make the above expression true. Otherwise, the format of the result is unspecified. The result returned by number->string never contains an explicit radix prefix.

The error case can occur only when z is not a complex number or is a complex number with a non-rational real or imaginary part. If z is an inexact number and the radix is 10, then the above expression is normally satisfied by a result containing a decimal point. The unspecified case allows for infinities, NaNs, and unusual representations.

```
(string->number str)
(string->number str radix)
```

procedure

Returns a number of the maximally precise representation expressed by the given string *str*. It is an error if *radix* is not 2, 8, 10, or 16. If supplied, *radix* is a default radix that will be overridden if an explicit radix prefix is present in string (e.g. "#o177"). If *radix* is not supplied, then the default radix is 10. If string *str* is not a syntactically valid notation for a number, or would result in a number that cannot be represented, then string->number returns #f. An error is never signaled due to the content of string.

```
(string->number "100") ⇒ 100
(string->number "100" 16) ⇒ 256
(string->number "1e2") ⇒ 100.0
```

29.9 Bitwise operations

The following bitwise functions operate on integers including fixnums and bignums.

(bitwise-not n)

procedure

Returns the bitwise complement of n; i.e. all 1 bits are changed to 0 bits and all 0 bits to 1 bits.

(bitwise-and $n \dots$)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise* and of the given integer arguments $n ext{}$

(bitwise-ior $n \dots$)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise inclusive or* of the given integer arguments $n \dots$

(bitwise-xor $n \dots$)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise exclusive or (xor)* of the given integer arguments $n \dots$

(bitwise-if mask n m)

procedure

Merge the integers n and m, via integer mask determining from which integer to take each bit. That is, if the k-th bit of mask is 0, then the k-th bit of the result is the k-th bit of n, otherwise the k-th bit of m. bitwise-if is defined in the following way:

```
(define (bitwise-if mask n m)
  (bitwise-ior (bitwise-and mask n) (bitwise-and (bitwise-not mask) m)))
```

(bit-count *n*)

procedure

Returns the population count of 1's if n >= 0, or 0's, if n < 0. The result is always non-negative. The R6RS analogue bitwise-bit-count procedure is incompatible as it applies bitwise-not to the population count before returning it if n is negative.

```
(bit-count 0) ⇒ 0
(bit-count -1) ⇒ 0
(bit-count 7) ⇒ 3
(bit-count 13) ⇒ 3
(bit-count -13) ⇒ 2
(bit-count 30) ⇒ 4
(bit-count -30) ⇒ 4
(bit-count (expt 2 100)) ⇒ 1
(bit-count (- (expt 2 100))) ⇒ 100
(bit-count (- (+ 1 (expt 2 100)))) ⇒ 1
```

(integer-length *n*)

procedure

Returns the number of bits needed to represent n, i.e.

The result is always non-negative. For non-negative n, this is the number of bits needed to represent n in an unsigned binary representation. For all n, (+ 1 (integer-length i)) is the number of bits needed to represent n in a signed two's-complement representation.

(first-bit-set *n*)

procedure

Returns the index of the least significant 1 bit in the two's complement representation of n. If n is $\overline{0}$, then -1 is returned.

```
(first-bit-set 0) \Rightarrow -1

(first-bit-set 1) \Rightarrow 0

(first-bit-set -4) \Rightarrow 2
```

(bit-set? n k)

procedure

k must be non-negative. The bit-set? procedure returns #t if the k-th bit is 1 in the two's complement representation of n, and #f otherwise. This is the result of the following computation:

```
(not (zero? (bitwise-and (bitwise-arithmetic-shift-left 1 k) n)))
```

(copy-bit $n \ k \ b$)

procedure

k must be non-negative, and b must be either 0 or 1. The copy-bit procedure returns the result of replacing the k-th bit of n by the k-th bit of b, which is the result of the following computation:

(arithmetic-shift *n* count)

procedure

If count > 0, shifts integer n left by count bits; otherwise, shifts fixnum n right by count bits. In general, this procedure returns the result of the following computation: (floor (* n (expt 2 count))).

```
\begin{array}{lll} (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -6 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -3 \\ (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -5 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -3 \\ (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -4 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -2 \\ (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -3 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -2 \\ (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -2 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -1 \\ (\text{arithmetic-shift} & -1 & -1) & \Rightarrow & -1 \end{array}
```

(arithmetic-shift-left n count)

procedure

Returns the result of arithmetically shifting n to the left by *count* bits. *count* must be non-negative. The arithmetic-shift-left procedure behaves the same as arithmetic-shift.

(arithmetic-shift-right *n* count)

procedure

Returns the result of arithmetically shifting n to the right by *count* bits. *count* must be non-negative. (arithmetic-shift-right n m) behaves the same as (arithmetic-shift n (fx- m)).

29.10 Fixnum operations

LispKit supports arbitrarily large exact integers. Internally, it has two different representations, one for smaller integers and one for the rest. These are colloquially known as *fixnums* and *bignums* respectively. In LispKit, a *fixnum* is represented as a 64 bit signed integer which is encoded using two-complement.

Fixnum operations perform integer arithmetic on their fixnum arguments. If any argument is not a fixnum, or if the mathematical result is not representable as a fixnum, it is an error. In particular, this means that fixnum operations may return a mathematically incorrect fixnum in these situations without raising an error.

(integer->fixnum n)

procedure

integer->fixnum coerces a given integer n into a fixnum. If n is a fixnum already, n is returned by integer->fixnum. If n is a bignum, then the first word of the bignum is returned as the result of integer->fixnum.

(fx + n m)

procedure

(fx-nm)

(fx*nm)

(fx/nm)

These procedures return the sum, the difference, the product and the quotient of their two fixnum arguments n and m. These procedures may overlow without reporting an error.

(fx = n m)

procedure

(fx < n m)

(fx > n m)

(fx <= n m)

(fx>=n m)

These procedures implement the comparison predicates. They return #t if n = m, n < m, n > m, n < m, n

(fx1+n)

procedure

Increments the fixnum n by one and returns the value. This procedure may overflow without raising an error.

(fx1- n)

procedure

Decrements the fixnum n by one and returns the value. This procedure may overflow without raising an error.

(fxzero? n)

procedure

Returns #t if fixnum n equals to 0.

(fxpositive? n)

procedure

Returns #t if fixnum n is positive, i.e. n > 0.

(fxnegative? n)

procedure

Returns #t if fixnum n is negative, i.e. n < 0.

(fxabs n)

procedure

Returns the absolute value of its fixnum argument n.

(fxremainder n m)

procedure

This procedure returns a value r such that the following equation holds: n = m * q + r where q is the largest number of multiples of m that will fit inside n. The sign of m gets ignored. This means that (fxremainder n m) and (fxremainder n (- m)) always return the same answer.

```
(fxremainder 13 5) \Rightarrow 3

(fxremainder 13 -5) \Rightarrow 3

(fxremainder -13 5) \Rightarrow -3

(fxremainder -13 -5) \Rightarrow -3
```

(fxmodulo n m)

procedure

This procedure computes a remainder similar to (fxremainder n m), but when (fxremainder n m) has a different sign than m, (fxmodulo n m) returns (+ (fxremainder n m) m) instead.

```
(fxmodulo 13 5) \Rightarrow 3

(fxmodulo 13 -5) \Rightarrow -2

(fxmodulo -13 5) \Rightarrow 2

(fxmodulo -13 -5) \Rightarrow -3
```

(fxsqrt n)

procedure

Approximates the square root s of fixnum n such that s is the biggest fixnum for which $s \times s \leq n$.

(fxnot n)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise-logical inverse* for fixnum n.

```
(fxnot 0) \Rightarrow -1

(fxnot -1) \Rightarrow 0

(fxnot 1) \Rightarrow -2

(fxnot -34) \Rightarrow 33
```

(fxand n m)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise-logical* and for *n* and *m*.

```
(fxand #x43 #x0f) \Rightarrow 3

(fxand #x43 #xf0) \Rightarrow 64
```

(fxior n m)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise-logical inclusive* or for n and m.

(fxxor n m)

procedure

Returns the *bitwise-logical exclusive or (xor)* for n and m.

(fxif mask n m)

procedure

Merges the bit sequences n and m, with bit sequence mask determining from which sequence to take each bit. That is, if the k-th bit of mask is 1, then the k-th bit of the result is the k-th bit of m.

```
(fxif 3 1 8) \Rightarrow 9

(fxif 3 8 1) \Rightarrow 0

(fxif 1 1 2) \Rightarrow 3

(fxif \#b00111100 \#b11110000 \#b00001111) \Rightarrow \#b00110011 = 51
```

fxif can be implemented via (fxior (fxand mask n) (fxand (fxnot mask) m))).

(fxarithmetic-shift n count)

procedure

If count > 0, shifts fixnum n left by count bits; otherwise, shifts fixnum n right by count bits. The absolute value of count must be less than (fixnum-width).

```
\begin{array}{ll} (\text{fxarithmetic-shift 8 2}) & \Rightarrow & 32 \\ (\text{fxarithmetic-shift 4 0}) & \Rightarrow & 4 \\ (\text{fxarithmetic-shift 8 -1}) & \Rightarrow & 4 \\ (\text{fxarithmetic-shift -1 62}) & \Rightarrow & -4611686018427387904 \\ \end{array}
```

fxarithmetic-shift can be implemented via (floor (fx* n (expt 2 m))) if this computes to a fixnum.

(fxarithmetic-shift-left n count) (fxlshift n count)

procedure

Returns the result of arithmetically shifting n to the left by count bits. count must be non-negative, and less than (fixnum-width). The fxarithmetic-shift-left procedure behaves the same as

(fxarithmetic-shift-right n count)

procedure

(fxrshift n count)

fxarithmetic-shift.

Returns the result of arithmetically shifting n to the right by count bits. count must be non-negative, and less than (fixnum-width). (fxarithmetic-shift-right n m) behaves the same as (fxarithmetic-shift n (fx- m)).

(fxlogical-shift-right n count)

procedure

(fxlrshift n count)

Returns the result of logically shifting n to the right by *count* bits. *count* must be non-negative, and less than (fixnum-width).

```
(fxlogical-shift 8 2) \Rightarrow 2

(fxlogical-shift 4 0) \Rightarrow 4

(fxlogical-shift -1 62) \Rightarrow 3
```

(fxbit-count n)

procedure

If n is non-negative, this procedure returns the number of 1 bits in the two's complement representation of n. Otherwise, it returns the result of the following computation: (fxnot (fxbit-count (fxnot n))).

(fxlength *n*)

procedure

Returns the number of bits needed to represent n if it is positive, and the number of bits needed to represent (fxnot n) if it is negative, which is the fixnum result of the following computation:

(fxfirst-bit-set obj)

procedure

Returns the index of the least significant 1 bit in the two's complement representation of n. If n is 0, then -1 is returned.

```
(fxfirst-bit-set 0) ⇒ -1
(fxfirst-bit-set 1) ⇒ 0
(fxfirst-bit-set -4) ⇒ 2
```

(fxbit-set? n k) procedur

k must be non-negative and less than (fixnum-width). The fxbit-set? procedure returns $\overline{*t}$ if the k-th bit is 1 in the two's complement representation of n, and #f otherwise. This is the fixnum result of the following computation:

```
(not (fxzero? (fxand n (fxarithmetic-shift-left 1 k))))
```

(fxcopy-bit n k b)

procedure

k must be non-negative and less than (fixnum-width). b must be 0 or 1. The fxcopy-bit procedure returns the result of replacing the k-th bit of n by b, which is the result of the following computation:

```
(fxif (fxarithmetic-shift-left 1 k)
     (fxarithmetic-shift-left b k)
     n)
```

(fxmin n m)

procedure

Returns the minimum of fixnums n and m.

(fxmax n m)

procedure

Returns the maximum of fixnums n and m.

(fxrandom max)

procedure

(fxrandom min max)

Returns a random number between *min* (inclusive) and *max* (exclusive). If *min* is not provided, then 0 is assumed to be the minimum bound. *min* is required to be non-negative, *max* is required to be bigger than *min*.

(fixnum-width) procedure

Returns the number of bits for representing fixnums. The current implementation of LispKit always returns 64.

(least-fixnum) procedure

Returns the smallest possible fixnum. The current implementation of LispKit always returns - 9223372036854775808.

(greatest-fixnum) procedure

Returns the greatest possible fixnum. The current implementation of LispKit always returns 9223372036854775807.

29.11 Floating-point operations

(real->flonum x)

procedure

Returns the best floating-point (flonum) representation of x.

```
\begin{array}{c}
\text{fl} + x y \\
\text{fl}^* x y
\end{array}
```

These procedures return the flonum sum or product of their flonum arguments *x* and *y*. In general, they return the flonum that best approximates the mathematical sum or product.

(fl>=xy)

```
(fl- x y) (fl/ x y)
```

These procedures return the flonum difference or quotient of their flonum arguments *x* and *y*. In general, they return the flonum that best approximates the mathematical difference or quotient.

```
(flzero? x)

Returns #t if x = 0.0, #f otherwise.

(flpositive? x)

Returns #t if x > 0.0, #f otherwise.

(flnegative? x)

Returns #t if x < 0.0, #f otherwise.

(fl= x y)

(fl < x y)

(fl < x y)

(fl < x y)
```

These procedures return #t if their flonum arguments x and y are respectively: equal, monotonically increasing, monotonically nondecreasing, or monotonically nonincreasing, #t otherwise.

```
(fl= +inf.0 +inf.0) ⇒ #t
(fl= -inf.0 +inf.0) ⇒ #f
(fl= -inf.0 -inf.0) ⇒ #t
(fl= 0.0 -0.0) ⇒ #t
(fl< 0.0 -0.0) ⇒ #f
(fl= +nan.0 123.0) ⇒ #f
(fl< +nan.0 123.0) ⇒ #f</pre>
```

(flabs x) procedure

Returns the absolute value of x as a flonum.

```
(flmin xy) procedure
```

Returns the minimum value of *x* and *y*.

```
(flmax x y)
```

Returns the maximum value of x and y.

30 LispKit Math Stats

Library (lispkit math stats) implements statistical utility functions. The functions compute summary values for collections of samples, and functions for managing sequences of samples. Most of the functions accept a list of real numbers corresponding to sample values.

(mode xs) procedure

Computes the mode of a set of numbers xs. The mode is the value that appears most often in xs. xs is a proper list of numeric values. = is used as the equality operator.

(mean xs) procedure

Computes the arithmetic mean of a set of numbers xs. xs is a proper list of numeric values.

(range xs)

Computes the range of a set of numbers xs, i.e. the difference between the largest and the smallest value. xs is a proper list of numeric values which are ordered using the < relation.

(variance xs) procedure

(variance xs bias)

Computes the variance for a set of numbers xs, optionally applying bias correction. xs is a proper list of numeric values. Bias correction gets enabled by setting bias to #t. Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in xs.

(stddev xs) procedure (stddev xs bias)

Computes the standard deviation for a set of numbers *xs*, optionally applying bias correction. *xs* is a proper list of numeric values. Bias correction gets enabled by setting *bias* to #t . Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in *xs*.

(skewness xs) (skewness xs bias) procedure

Computes the skewness for a set of numbers xs, optionally applying bias correction. xs is a proper list of numeric values. Bias correction gets enabled by setting bias to #t. Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in xs.

(kurtosis xs)
(kurtosis xs bias)

Computes the kurtosis for a set of numbers xs, optionally applying bias correction. xs is a proper list of numeric values. Bias correction gets enabled by setting bias to #t . Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in xs.

(absdev xs)

Computes the average absolute difference between the numbers in list xs and (median xs).

(quantile xs p) procedure

Computes the p-quantile for a set of numbers *xs* (also known as the *inverse cumulative distribution*). *p* is a real number between 0 and 1.0. For instance, the 0.5-quantile corresponds to the median.

(percentile xs pct) procedure

Computes the percentile for a set of numbers *xs* and a given percentage *pct*. *pct* is a number between 0 and 100. For instance, the 90th percentile corresponds to the 0.9-quantile.

(median xs) procedure

Computes the median for a set of numbers xs.

(interquartile-range xs)

procedure

Returns the interquartile range for a given set of numbers xs. xs is a proper list of numeric values. The interquartile range is the difference between the 0.75-quantile and the 0.25-quantile.

(five-number-summary xs)

procedure

Returns a list of 5 statistics describing the set of numbers xs: the minimum value, the lower quartile, the median, the upper quartile, and the maximum value.

(covariance xs ys) procedure (covariance xs ys bias)

Computes the covariance of two sets of numbers xs and ys. Both xs and ys are proper lists of numbers. Bias correction can be enabled by setting bias to #t. Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in xs.

(correlation xs ys) [procedure (correlation xs ys bias)

Computes the correlation of two sets of numbers xs and ys in form of the *Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient*. Both xs and ys are proper lists of numbers. Bias correction can be enabled by setting *bias* to #t . Alternatively, it is possible to provide a positive integer, which is used instead of the number of elements in xs.

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31 LispKit Math Util

Library (lispkit math util) implements mathematical utility functions.

 $(\operatorname{sgn} x)$

Implements the sign/signum function. Returns -1 if x is negative, 0 (or a signed zero, when inexact) if xis zero, and 1 if x is a positive number. sgn fails if x is not a real number.

(numbers lo hi)

procedure

procedure

(numbers lo hi f)

(numbers lo hi guard f)

Returns a list of numbers by iterating from integer *lo* to integer *hi* (both inclusive) and applying function f to each integer in the range for which guard returns true. The default guard always returns true. The default for f is identity.

(sum xs) procedure

Returns the sum of all numbers of list xs. This procedure fails if there is an element in xs which is not a number.

(product xs) procedure

Returns the product of all numbers of list xs. This procedure fails if there is an element in xs which is not a number.

(minimum xs) procedure

Returns the minimum of all numbers of list xs. This procedure fails if there is an element in xs $\overline{\text{which is}}$ not a number.

(maximum xs) procedure

Returns the maximum of all numbers of list xs. This procedure fails if there is an element in xs which is not a number.

(conjugate x) procedure

Conjugates number x. For real numbers x, conjugate returns x, otherwise x is being returned with the opposite sign for the imaginary part.

(degrees->radians x)

procedure Converts degrees into radians.

(radians->degrees x)procedure

Converts radians into degrees.

(prime? n)procedure

Returns #t if integer n is a prime number, #f otherwise.

32 LispKit Object

Library (lispkit object) implements a simple, delegation-based object system for LispKit. It provides procedural and declarative interfaces for objects and classes. The class system is optional. It mostly provides means to define and manage new object types and construct objects using object constructors.

32.1 Introduction

Similar to other Scheme and Lisp-based object systems, methods of objects are defined in terms of object/class-specific specializations of generic procedures. A generic procedure consists of methods for the various objects/classes it supports. A generic procedure performs a dynamic dispatch on the first parameter (the self parameter) to determine the applicable method.

32.1.1 Generic procedures

Generic procedures can be defined using the define-generic form. Here is an example which defines three generic methods, one with only a self parameter, and two with three parameters self, \times and y. The last generic procedure definition includes a default method which is applicable to all objects for which there is no specific method. When a generic procedure without default is applied to an object that does not define its own method implementation, an error gets signaled.

```
(define-generic (point-coordinates self))
(define-generic (set-point-coordinates! self x y))
(define-generic (point-move! self x y)
  (let ((coord (point-coordinate self)))
     (set-point-coordinate! self (+ (car coord) x) (+ (cdr coord) y))))
```

32.1.2 Objects

An object encapsulates a list of methods each implementing a generic procedure. These methods are regular closures which can share mutable state. Objects do not have an explicit notion of a field or slot as in other Scheme or Lisp-based object systems. Fields/slots need to be implemented via generic procedures and method implementations sharing state. Here is an example explaining this approach:

```
(define (make-point x y)
  (object ()
     ((point-coordinates self) (cons x y))
     ((set-point-coordinates! self nx ny) (set! x nx) (set! y ny))
     ((object->string self) (string-append (object->string x) "/" (object->string y)))))
```

This is a function creating new point objects. The \times and y parameters of the constructor function are used for representing the state of the point object. The created point objects implement three generic procedures: point-coordinates, set-point-coordinates, and object->string. The latter procedure is defined directly by the library and, in general, used for creating a string representation

of any object. By implementing the object->string method, the behavior gets customized for the object.

The following lines of code illustrate how point objects can be used:

32.1.3 Inheritance

The LispKit object system supports inheritance via delegation. The following code shows how colored points can be implemented by delegating all point functionality to the previous implementation and by simply adding only color-related logic.

The object created in function make-colored-point inherits all methods from object super which gets set to a new point object. It adds a new method to generic procedure point-color and redefines the object->string method. The redefinition is implemented in terms of the inherited object->string method for points. The form invoke can be used to refer to overridden methods in delegatee objects. Thus, (invoke (super object->string) self) calls the object->string method of the super object but with the identity (self) of the colored point.

The following interaction illustrates the behavior:

Objects can delegate functionality to multiple delegatees. The order in which they are listed determines the methods which are being inherited in case there are conflicts, i.e. multiple delegatees implement a method for the same generic procedure.

32.1.4 Classes

Classes add syntactic sugar, simplying the creation and management of objects. They play the following role in the object-system of LispKit:

- 1. A class defines a constructor for objects represented by this class.
- 2. Each class defines an object type, which can be used to distinguish objects created by the same constructor and supporting the same methods.
- 3. A class can inherit functionality from several other classes, making it easy to reuse functionality.

4. Classes are first-class objects supporting a number of class-related procedures.

The following code defines a point class with similar functionality as above:

```
(define-class (point x y) ()
  (object ()
     ((point-coordinates self) (cons x y))
     ((set-point-coordinates! self nx ny) (set! x nx) (set! y ny))
     ((object->string self) (string-append (object->string x) "/" (object->string y)))))
```

Instances of this class are created by using the generic procedure make-instance which is implemented by all class objects:

Each object created by a class implements a generic procedure object-class referring to the class of the object. Since classes are objects themselves we can obtain their name with generic procedure class-name:

Generic procedure instance-of? can be used to determine whether an object is a direct or indirect instance of a given class. The last two lines above show that pt2 is an instance of point, but pt is not, even though it is functionally equivalent.

The following definition re-implements the colored point example from above using a class:

The following lines illustrate the behavior of colored-point objects vs point objects:

32.2 Procedural object interface

```
(object? expr) procedure
```

(make-object)	procedure
(make-object delegate)	
(method obj generic)	procedure
(object-methods obj)	procedure
(add-method! obj generic method)	procedure
(delete-method! obj generic)	procedure
(make-generic-procedure)	procedure
32.3 Declarative object interface	
(object)	syntax
(define-generic)	syntax
(invoke)	syntax
(invoke)	syntax
(invoke) 32.4 Procedural class interface	syntax
	syntax
32.4 Procedural class interface	
32.4 Procedural class interface (class? expr)	procedure
32.4 Procedural class interface (class? expr) root	procedure
32.4 Procedural class interface (class? expr) root	procedure
32.4 Procedural class interface (class? expr) root (make-class name superclasses constructor)	procedure
32.4 Procedural class interface (class? expr) root (make-class name superclasses constructor) 32.4.1 Instance methods	procedure object procedure

32.4.2 Class methods

(class-name self) generic procedure

(class-direct-superclasses self) generic procedure

(subclass? self other) generic procedure

(make-instance self . args) generic procedure

(instance-of? self obj) generic procedure

32.5 Declarative class interface

(define-class ...) syntax

33 LispKit Port

Ports represent abstractions for handling input and output. They are used to access files, devices, and similar things on the host system on which LispKit is running.

An *input port* is a LispKit object that can deliver data upon command, while an *output port* is an object that can accept data. In LispKit, input and output port types are disjoint, i.e. a port is either an input or an output port.

Different port types operate on different data. LispKit provides two different types of ports: *textual ports* and *binary ports*. Textual ports and binary ports are disjoint, i.e. a port is either textual or binary.

A *textual port* supports reading or writing of individual characters from or to a backing store containing characters using read-char and write-char, and it supports operations defined in terms of characters, such as read and write.

A binary port supports reading or writing of individual bytes from or to a backing store containing bytes using read-u8 and write-u8 below, as well as operations defined in terms of bytes.

33.1 Default ports

current-output-port current-input-port current-error-port parameter object

These parameter objects represent the current default input port, output port, or error port (an output port), respectively. These parameter objects can be overridden with parameterize.

default-output-port default-input-port

constant

These two ports are the initial values of current-output-port and current-input-port when LispKit gets initialized. They are typically referring to the default output and input device of the system on which LispKit is running.

33.2 Predicates

(port? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a port object; otherwise #f is returned.

(input-port? obj)

procedure

(output-port? obj)

These predicates return #t if obj is an input port or output port; otherwise they return #f.

(textual-port? obj)

procedure

(binary-port? obj)

These predicates return #t if obj is a textual or a binary port; otherwise they return #f.

(input-port-open? *port*) (output-port-open? *port*)

procedure

Returns #t if *port* is still open and capable of performing input or output, respectively, and #f otherwise.

(eof-object? obj)

Returns #t if obj is an end-of-file object, otherwise returns #f.

33.3 General ports

(close-port port)
(close-input-port port)
(close-output-port port)

procedure

Closes the resource associated with *port*, rendering the port incapable of delivering or accepting data. It is an error to apply close-input-port and close-output-port to a port which is not an input or output port, respectively. All procedures for closing ports have no effect if the provided *port* has already been closed.

(with-input-from-port port thunk) (with-output-to-port port thunk)

procedure

The given port is made to be the value returned by current-input-port or current-output-port (as used by (read), (write obj), and so forth). The *thunk* is then called with no arguments. When the *thunk* returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. It is an error if *thunk* does not accept zero arguments. Both procedures return the values yielded by *thunk*. If an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of these procedures, they behave exactly as if the current input or output port had been bound dynamically with parameterize.

(call-with-port proc)

procedure

The call-with-port procedure calls *proc* with *port* as an argument. It is an error if *proc* does not accept one argument.

If *proc* returns, then the port is closed automatically and the values yielded by *proc* are returned. If *proc* does not return, then the port will not be closed automatically unless it is possible to prove that the port will never again be used for a read or write operation.

This is necessary, because LispKit's escape procedures have unlimited extent and thus it is possible to escape from the current continuation but later to resume it. If LispKit would be permitted to close the port on any escape from the current continuation, then it would be impossible to write portable code using both call-with-current-continuation and call-with-port.

33.4 File ports

(open-input-file *filepath*) (open-input-file *filepath fail*)

procedure

Takes a *filepath* referring to an existing file and returns a textual input port that is capable of delivering data from the file. If the file does not exist or cannot be opened, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled if argument *fail* is not provided. If *fail* is provided, it is returned in case an error occured.

(open-binary-input-file filepath)
(open-binary-input-file filepath fail)

procedure

Takes a *filepath* referring to an existing file and returns a binary input port that is capable of delivering data from the file. If the file does not exist or cannot be opened, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled if argument *fail* is not provided. If *fail* is provided, it is returned in case an error occurred.

(open-output-file filepath) (open-output-file filepath fail)

procedure

Takes a *filepath* referring to an output file to be created and returns a textual output port that is capable of writing data to the new file. If a file with the given name exists already, the effect is unspecified. If the file cannot be opened, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled if argument *fail* is not provided. If *fail* is provided, it is returned in case an error occurred.

(open-binary-output-file filepath) (open-binary-output-file filepath fail)

procedure

Takes a *filepath* referring to an output file to be created and returns a binary output port that is capable of writing data to the new file. If a file with the given name exists already, the effect is unspecified. If the file cannot be opened, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled if argument *fail* is not provided. If *fail* is provided, it is returned in case an error occurred.

(with-input-from-file filepath thunk) (with-output-to-file filepath thunk)

procedure

The file determined by *filepath* is opened for input or output as if by open-input-file or open-output-file, and the new port is made to be the value returned by current-input-port or current-output-port (as used by (read), (write obj), and so forth). The *thunk* is then called with no arguments. When the *thunk* returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. It is an error if *thunk* does not accept zero arguments. Both procedures return the values yielded by *thunk*. If an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of these procedures, they behave exactly as if the current input or output port had been bound dynamically with parameterize.

(call-with-input-file *filepath proc*) (call-with-output-file *filepath proc*)

procedure

These procedures create a textual port obtained by opening the file referred to by *filepath* (a string) for input or output as if by open-input-file or open-output-file. This port and *proc* are then passed to a procedure equivalent to call-with-port. It is an error if *proc* does not accept one argument.

33.5 String ports

(open-input-string str)

procedure

Takes a string and returns a textual input port that delivers characters from the string. If the string is modified, the effect is unspecified.

(open-output-string)

procedure

Returns a textual output port that will accumulate characters for retrieval by get-output-string.

```
(parameterize ((current-output-port (open-output-string)))
  (display "piece")
  (display " by piece ")
  (display "by piece.")
  (get-output-string (current-output-port)))
   ⇒ "piece by piece by piece."
```

(get-output-string port)

procedure

It is an error if port was not created with open-output-string.

Returns a string consisting of the characters that have been output to *port* so far in the order they were output.

```
(parameterize ((current-output-port (open-output-string)))
  (display "piece")
  (display " by piece ")
  (display "by piece.")
  (newline)
  (get-output-string (current-output-port)))
  ⇒ "piece by piece by piece.\n"
```

(with-input-from-string str thunk)

procedure

String *str* is opened for input as if by open-input-string, and the new textual string port is made to be the value returned by current-input-port. The *thunk* is then called with no arguments. When the *thunk* returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. It is an error if *thunk* does not accept zero arguments. with-input-from-string returns the values yielded by *thunk*. If an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of these procedures, they behave exactly as if the current input port had been bound dynamically with parameterize.

(with-output-to-string thunk)

procedure

A new string output port is created as if by calling open-output-string, and the new port is made to be the value returned by current-output-port. The *thunk* is then called with no arguments. When the *thunk* returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. It is an error if *thunk* does not accept zero arguments. Both procedures return the values yielded by *thunk*. If an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of these procedures, they behave exactly as if the current input or output port had been bound dynamically with parameterize.

(call-with-output-string proc)

procedure

The procedure *proc* is called with one argument, a textual output port. The values yielded by *proc* are ignored. When *proc* returns, call-with-output-string returns the port's accumulated output as a string.

This procedure is defined as follows:

```
(define (call-with-output-string procedure)
  (let ((port (open-output-string)))
    (procedure port)
    (get-output-string port)))
```

33.6 Bytevector ports

(open-input-bytevector bvector)

procedure

Takes a bytevector *bvector* and returns a binary input port that delivers bytes from the bytevector *bvector*.

(open-output-bytevector)

procedure

Returns a binary output port that will accumulate bytes for retrieval by get-output-bytevector.

(get-output-bytevector port)

procedure

It is an error if *port* was not created with open-output-bytevector . get-output-bytevector returns a bytevector consisting of the bytes that have been output to the port so far in the order they were output.

(call-with-output-bytevector *proc*)

procedure

The procedure *proc* gets called with one argument, a binary output port. The values yielded by procedure *proc* are ignored. When it returns, call-with-output-bytevector returns the port's accumulated output as a newly allocated bytevector.

This procedure is defined as follows:

```
(define (call-with-output-bytevector procedure)
  (let ((port (open-output-bytevector)))
     (procedure port)
     (get-output-bytevector port)))
```

33.7 URL ports

(open-input-url url)
(open-input-url url timeout)
(open-input-url url timeout fail)

procedure

Takes a *url* referring to an existing resource and returns a textual input port that is capable of reading data from the resource (e.g. via HTTP). *timeout* specifies a timeout in seconds as a flonum for the operation to wait. If no data is available, the procedure will fail either by throwing an exception or by returning value *fail* if provided.

```
(open-binary-input-url url)
(open-binary-input-url url timeout)
(open-binary-input-url url timeout fail)
```

procedure

Takes a *url* referring to an existing resource and returns a binary input port that is capable of reading data from the resource (e.g. via HTTP). *timeout* specifies a timeout in seconds as a flonum for the operation to wait. If no data is available, the procedure will fail either by throwing an exception or by returning value *fail* if provided.

(with-input-from-url url thunk)

procedur

The given url is opened for input as if by open-input-url, and the new input port is made to be the value returned by current-input-port. The thunk is then called with no arguments. When the thunk returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. It is an error if thunk does not accept zero arguments. The procedure returns the values yielded by thunk. If an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of this procedure, they behave exactly as if current-input-port had been bound dynamically with parameterize.

(call-with-input-url url proc)

procedure

call-with-input-url creates a textual input port by opening the resource at *url* for input as if by openinput-url. This port and *proc* are then passed to a procedure equivalent to call-with-port. It is an error if *proc* does not accept one argument. Here is an implementation of call-with-input-url:

(try-call-with-input-url url proc thunk)

procedure

try-call-with-input-url creates a textual input port by opening the resource at *url* for input as if by open-input-url. This port and *proc* are then passed to a procedure equivalent to call-with-port in case it was possible to open the port. If the port couldn't be opened, *thunk* gets invoked. It is an error if *proc* does not accept one argument and if *thunk* requires at least one argument. Here is an implementation of try-call-with-input-url:

33.8 Asset ports

(open-input-asset *name type*) (open-input-asset *name type dir*)

procedure

This function can be used to open a textual LispKit asset file located in one of LispKit's asset paths. An asset is identified via a file *name*, a file *type*, and an optional directory path *dir. name*, *type*, and *dir* are all strings. open-input-asset constructs a relative file path in the following way (assuming *name* does not have a suffix already):

```
dir/name.type
```

It then searches the asset paths in their given order for a file matching this relative file path. Once the first matching file is found, the file is opened as a text file and a corresponding textual input port that is capable of reading data from the file is returned. It is an error if no matching asset is found.

(open-binary-input-asset name type) (open-binary-input-asset name type dir)

procedure

This function can be used to open a binary LispKit asset file located in one of LispKit's asset paths. An asset is identified via a file *name*, a file *type*, and an optional directory path *dir. name*, *type*, and *dir* are all strings. open-input-asset constructs a relative file path in the following way (assuming *name* does not have a suffix already):

```
dir/name.type
```

It then searches the asset paths in their given order for a file matching this relative file path. Once the first matching file is found, the file is opened as a binary file and a corresponding binary input port that is capable of reading data from the file is returned. It is an error if no matching asset is found.

33.9 Reading from ports

If port is omitted from any input procedure, it defaults to the value returned by (current-input-port) . It is an error to attempt an input operation on a closed port.

```
(read) procedure (read port)
```

The read procedure converts external representations of Scheme objects into the objects themselves by parsing the input. read returns the next object parsable from the given textual input *port*, updating *port* to point to the first character past the end of the external representation of the object.

If an end of file is encountered in the input before any characters are found that can begin an object, then an end-of-file object is returned. The port remains open, and further attempts to read will also return an end-of-file object. If an end of file is encountered after the beginning of an object's external representation, but the external representation is incomplete and therefore not parsable, an error that satisfies read-error? is signaled.

(read-char) (read-char port)

procedure

Returns the next character available from the textual input *port*, updating *port* to point to the following character. If no more characters are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

(peek-char) (peek-char *port*)

procedure

Returns the next character available from the textual input *port*, but without updating *port* to point to the following character. If no more characters are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

Note: The value returned by a call to peek-char is the same as the value that would have been returned by a call to read-char with the same port. The only difference is that the very next call to read-char or peek-char on that port will return the value returned by the preceding call to peek-char. In particular, a call to peek-char on an interactive port will hang waiting for input whenever a call to read-char would have hung.

(char-ready?)
(char-ready? port)

procedure

Returns #t if a character is ready on the textual input *port* and returns #f otherwise. If char-ready? returns #t then the next read-char operation on the given *port* is guaranteed not to hang. If the *port* is at end of file, then char-ready? returns #t.

Rationale: The char-ready? procedure exists to make it possible for a program to accept characters from interactive ports without getting stuck waiting for input. Any input editors associated with such ports must ensure that characters whose existence has been asserted by char-ready? cannot be removed from the input. If char-ready? were to return #f at end of file, a port at end of file would be indistinguishable from an interactive port that has no ready characters.

(read-token)

procedure

(read-token port)

(read-token port charset)

Returns the next token of text available from the textual input *port*, updating *port* to point to the following character. A token is a non-empty sequence of characters delimited by characters from character set *charset*. Tokens never contain characters from *charset*. *charset* defaults to the set of all whitespace and newline characters.

(read-line obj)
(read-line port)

procedure

Returns the next line of text available from the textual input *port*, updating *port* to point to the following character. If an end of line is read, a string containing all of the text up to (but not including) the end of line is returned, and *port* is updated to point just past the end of line. If an end of file is encountered before any end of line is read, but some characters have been read, a string containing those characters is returned. If an end of file is encountered before any characters are read, an end-of-file object is returned. For the purpose of this procedure, an end of line consists of either a linefeed character, a carriage return character, or a sequence of a carriage return character followed by a linefeed character.

(read-string k)
(read-string k port)

procedure

Reads the next k characters, or as many as are available before the end of file, from the textual input port into a newly allocated string in left-to-right order and returns the string. If no characters are available before the end of file, an end-of-file object is returned.

(read-u8) (read-u8 port)

procedure

Returns the next byte available from the binary input *port*, updating *port* to point to the following byte. If no more bytes are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

(peek-u8 obj)

Returns the next byte available from the binary input *port*, but without updating *port* to point to the following byte. If no more bytes are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

(u8-ready?)
(u8-ready? port)

Returns #t if a byte is ready on the binary input *port* and returns #f otherwise. If u8-ready? returns #t then the next read-u8 operation on the given *port* is guaranteed not to hang. If the *port* is at end of file then u8-ready? returns #t.

(read-bytevector k) procedure (read-bytevector k port)

Reads the next *k* bytes, or as many as are available before the end of file, from the binary input *port* into a newly allocated bytevector in left-to-right order and returns the bytevector. If no bytes are available before the end of file, an end-of-file object is returned.

(read-bytevector! bvector)
(read-bytevector! bvector port)
(read-bytevector! bvector port start)
(read-bytevector! bvector port start end)

Reads the next *end* – *start* bytes, or as many as are available before the end of file, from the binary input *port* into bytevector *bvector* in left-to-right order beginning at the *start* position. If *end* is not supplied, reads until the end of bytevector *bvector* has been reached. If *start* is not supplied, reads beginning at position 0. Returns the number of bytes read. If no bytes are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

33.10 Writing to ports

If *port* is omitted from any output procedure, it defaults to the value returned by (current-output-port) . It is an error to attempt an output operation on a closed port.

(write obj)
(write obj port)

Writes a representation of *obj* to the given textual output *port*. Strings that appear in the written representation are enclosed in quotation marks, and within those strings backslash and quotation mark characters are escaped by backslashes. Symbols that contain non-ASCII characters are escaped with vertical lines. Character objects are writ- ten using the #\ notation.

If *obj* contains cycles which would cause an infinite loop using the normal written representation, then at least the objects that form part of the cycle will be represented using datum labels. Datum labels will not be used if there are no cycles.

(write-shared obj)
(write-shared obj port)

The write-shared procedure is the same as write, except that shared structures will be represented using datum labels for all pairs and vectors that appear more than once in the output.

(write-simple obj)
(write-simple obj port)

The write-simple procedure is the same as write, except that shared structures will never be represented using datum labels. This can cause write-simple not to terminate if *obj* contains circular structures.

(display obj)
(display obj port)

procedure

Writes a representation of *obj* to the given textual output *port*. Strings that appear in the written representation are output as if by write-string instead of by write. Symbols are not escaped. Character objects appear in the representation as if written by write-char instead of by write. display will not loop forever on self-referencing pairs, vectors, or records.

The write procedure is intended for producing machine-readable output and display for producing human-readable output.

(newline)

procedure

(newline port)

Writes an end of line to textual output port.

(write-char char)

procedure

(write-char char port)

Writes the character *char* (not an external representation of the character) to the given textual output *port*.

(write-string str)

procedure

(write-string str port)

(write-string str port start)

(write-string str port start end)

Writes the characters of string *str* from index *start* to *end* (exclusive) in left-to-right order to the textual output *port*. The default of *start* is 0, the default of *end* is the length of *str*.

(write-u8 byte)

procedure

(write-u8 byte)

Writes the byte to the given binary output port.

(write-bytevector bvector)

procedure

(write-bytevector bvector port)

(write-bytevector bvector port start)

(write-bytevector byector port start end)

Writes the bytes of bytevector *bvector* from *start* to *end* (exclusive) in left-to-right order to the binary output *port*. The default of *start* is 0, the default of *end* is the length of *bvector*.

(flush-output-port)

procedure

(flush-output-port port)

Flushes any buffered output from the buffer of the given output *port* to the underlying file or device.

(eof-object)

procedure

Returns an end-of-file object.

34 LispKit Prolog

Library (lispkit prolog) implements *Schelog*, an *embedding* of Prolog-style logic programming in Scheme by Dorai Sitaram. This approach allows Prolog-style logic programming and Scheme-style functional programming to be combined. Schelog contains the full repertoire of Prolog features, including meta-logical and second-order ("set") predicates, leaving out only those features that could more easily and more efficiently be done with Scheme subexpressions.

34.1 Simple Goals and Queries

Schelog objects are the same as Scheme objects. However, there are two subsets of these objects that are of special interest to Schelog: *goals* and *predicates*. We will first look at some simple goals. The next section will introduce predicates and ways of making complex goals using predicates.

A *goal* is an object whose truth or falsity we can check. A goal that turns out to be true is said to succeed. A goal that turns out to be false is said to fail. Two simple goals that are provided in Schelog are:

```
%true
%fail
```

The goal %true always succeeds, the goal %fail always fails.

The names of all Schelog primitive objects start with %. This is to avoid clashes with the names of conventional Scheme objects of related meaning. User-created objects in Schelog are not required to follow this convention.

A Schelog user can query a goal by wrapping it in a %which -form.

```
(%which () %true)
```

evaluates to (), indicating success, whereas:

```
(%which () %fail)
```

evaluates to #f, indicating failure.

The second subexpression of the <code>%which</code> -form is the empty list (). Later we will see <code>%which</code> used with other lists as the second subform. The distinction between successful and failing goals relies on Scheme distinguishing between <code>#f</code> and (). We will use the annotation () true to signal that () is being used as a true value. Henceforth, we will use the notation:

```
E \Rightarrow F
```

to say that E evaluates to F. Thus,

```
(%which () %true) => () true.
```

34.2 Predicates

More interesting goals are created by applying a special kind of Schelog object called a *predicate* (or *relation*) to other Schelog objects. Schelog comes with some primitive predicates, such as the arithmetic operators %=:= and %< , standing for arithmetic "equal" and "less than" respectively. For example, the following are some goals involving these predicates:

```
(%which () (%=:= 1 1)) => ()true
(%which () (%< 1 2)) => ()true
(%which () (%=:= 1 2)) => #f
(%which () (%< 1 1)) => #f
```

Other arithmetic predicates are %> ("greater than"), %<= ("less than or equal"), %>= ("greater than or equal"), and %=/= ("not equal").

Schelog predicates are not to be confused with conventional Scheme predicates (such as < and =). Schelog predicates, when applied to arguments, produce goals that may either succeed or fail. Scheme predicates, when applied to arguments, yield a boolean value. Henceforth, we will use the term "predicate" to mean Schelog predicates. Conventional predicates will be explicitly called "Scheme predicates".

34.2.1 Predicates introducing facts

Users can create their own predicates using the Schelog form %rel . For example, the following code defines a predicate %knows :

```
(define %knows
  (%rel ()
    (('Odysseus 'TeX))
    (('Odysseus 'Scheme))
    (('Odysseus 'Prolog))
    (('Odysseus 'Prolog))
    (('Penelope 'TeX))
    (('Penelope 'TeX))
    (('Penelope 'Prolog))
    (('Penelope 'Odysseus))
    (('Telemachus 'TeX))
    (('Telemachus 'calculus))))
```

The expression has the expected meaning. Each *clause* in the <code>%rel</code> establishes a *fact*: Odysseus knows TeX, Telemachus knows calculus, etc. In general, if we apply the predicate to the arguments in any one of its clauses, we will get a successful goal. Thus, since <code>%knows</code> has a clause that reads <code>(('Odysseus'TeX))</code>, the goal <code>(%knows'Odysseus'TeX)</code> will be true.

We can now get answers for the following types of queries:

```
(%which () (%knows 'Odysseus 'TeX)) => ()true (%which () (%knows 'Telemachus 'Scheme)) => \#f
```

34.2.2 Predicates with rules

Predicates can be more complicated than the above recitation of facts. The predicate clauses can be *rules*, e.g.

This defines the predicate "computer-literate" in terms of the predicate "knows". In effect, a person is defined as computer-literate if they know TeX and Scheme, or TeX and Prolog.

Note that this use of <code>%rel</code> employs a local *logic variable* called person. In general, a <code>%rel</code>-expression can have a list of symbols as its second subform. These name new logic variables that can be used within the body of the <code>%rel</code>. The following query can now be answered:

```
(%which () (%computer-literate 'Penelope)) => () true
```

Since Penelope knows TeX and Prolog, she is computer-literate.

34.2.3 Solving goals

The above queries are yes/no questions. Logic programming allows more: We can formulate a goal with *uninstantiated* logic variables and then ask the querying process to provide, if possible, values for these variables that cause the goal to succeed. For instance, the query:

```
(%which (what)
(%knows 'Odysseus what))
```

asks for an instantiation of the logic variable what that satisfies the goal (%knows 'Odysseus what) . In other words, we are asking, "What does Odysseus know?".

Note that this use of <code>%which</code>, like <code>%rel</code> in the definition of <code>%computer-literate</code>, uses a local logic variable <code>what</code>. In general, the second subform of <code>%which</code> can be a list of local logic variables. The <code>%which-query</code> returns an answer that is a list of bindings, one for each logic variable mentioned in its second subform. Thus,

```
(%which (what)
  (%knows 'Odysseus what)) => ((what TeX))
```

But that is not all that Odysseus knows. Schelog provides a zero-argument procedure called <code>%more</code> that <code>retries</code> the goal in the last <code>%which-query</code> for a different solution.

```
(%more) => ((what Scheme))
```

We can keep asking for more solutions:

```
(%more) => ((what Prolog))
(%more) => ((what Penelope))
(%more) => #f
```

The final #f shows that there are no more solutions. This is because there are no more clauses in the %knows predicate that list Odysseus as knowing anything else.

It is now clear why () true was the right choice for truth in the previous <code>%which</code> -queries that had no logic variables. <code>%which</code> returns a list of bindings for true goals: the list is empty when there are no variables.

34.2.4 Asserting extra clauses

We can add more clauses to a predicate after it has already been defined via %rel . Schelog provides the %assert form for this purpose.

```
(%assert %knows ()
  (('Odysseus 'archery)))
```

tacks on a new clause at the end of the existing clauses of the %knows predicate. Now, the query:

```
(%which (what)
  (%knows 'Odysseus what))
```

gives TeX, Scheme, Prolog, and Penelope, as before, but a subsequent (%more) yields a new result: archery. The Schelog form %assert-a is similar to %assert but adds clauses *before* any of the current clauses.

Both %assert and %assert-a assume that the variable they are adding to already names a predicate, presumably defined using %rel. In order to allow defining a predicate entirely through %assert, Schelog provides an empty predicate value %empty-rel. %empty-rel takes any number of arguments and always fails. Here is a typical use of the %empty-rel and %assert combination:

```
(define %parent %empty-rel)
(%assert %parent ()
  (('Laertes 'Odysseus)))
(%assert %parent ()
  (('Odysseus 'Telemachus))
  (('Penelope 'Telemachus)))
```

Schelog does not provide a predicate for *retracting* assertions since we can keep track of older versions of predicates using conventional Scheme features such as let and set!.

34.2.5 Local variables

The local logic variables of <code>%rel</code> and <code>%which</code>-expressions are in reality introduced by the Schelog syntactic form called <code>%let</code>. <code>%let</code> introduces new lexically scoped logic variables. Supposing, instead of

```
(%which (what)
(%knows 'Odysseus what))
```

we had asked

```
(%let (what)
  (%which ()
     (%knows 'Odysseus what)))
```

This query, too, succeeds five times, since Odysseus knows five things. However, <code>%which</code> emits bindings only for the local variables that it introduces. Thus, this query emits () true five times before (<code>%more</code>) finally returns <code>#f</code>.

34.3 Using conventional Scheme expressions

The arguments of Schelog predicates can be any Scheme objects. In particular, composite structures such as lists, vectors and strings can be used, as also Scheme expressions using the full array of Scheme's construction and decomposition operators. For instance, consider the following goal:

```
(%member x '(1 2 3))
```

Here, %member is a predicate, x is a logic variable, and '(1 2 3) is a structure. Given a suitably intuitive definition for %member, the above goal succeeds for x = 1, 2, and 3. Here is a possible definition of %member:

```
(define %member
  (%rel (x y xs)
        ((x (cons x xs)))
        ((x (cons y xs))
        (%member x xs))))
```

%member is defined with three local variables: x, y, xs. It has two clauses, identifying the two ways of determining membership. The first clause of %member states a fact: For any x, x is a member of a list whose head is also x. The second clause of %member is a rule: x is a member of a list if we can show that it is a member of the tail of that list. In other words, the original %member goal is translated into a $sub\ goal$, which is also a %member goal.

Note that the variable y in the definition of %member occurs only once in the second clause. As such, it doesn't need you to make the effort of naming it. Names help only in matching a second occurrence to a first. Schelog lets you use the expression (_) to denote an anonymous variable; i.e. _ is a thunk that generates a fresh anonymous variable at each call. The predicate %member can be rewritten in the following way:

34.3.1 Constructors

We can use constructors, i.e. Scheme procedures for creating structures, to simulate data types in Schelog. For instance, let's define a natural-number data-type where 0 denotes zero, and ($succ\ x$) denotes the natural number whose immediate predecessor is x. The constructor $succ\ can$ be defined in Scheme as:

```
(define succ
  (lambda (x)
      (vector 'succ x)))
```

Addition and multiplication can be defined as:

```
(define %add
(%rel (x y z)
((0 y y))
```

```
(((succ x) y (succ z))
        (%add x y z))))
(define %times
  (%rel (x y z z1)
        ((0 y 0))
        ((succ x) y z)
            (%times x y z1)
            (%add y z1 z))))
```

We can do a lot of arithmetic with this in place. For instance, the factorial predicate looks like:

```
(define %factorial
  (%rel (x y y1)
     ((0 (succ 0)))
     (((succ x) y)
        (%factorial x y1)
        (%times (succ x) y1 y))))
```

34.3.2 %is

The above is a very inefficient way to do arithmetic, especially when the underlying language Scheme offers excellent arithmetic facilities, including a comprehensive numeric tower and exact rational arithmetic. One problem with using Scheme calculations directly in Schelog clauses is that the expressions used may contain logic variables that need to be dereferenced. Schelog provides the predicate %is that takes care of this. The goal

```
(%is X E)
```

unifies $\,^{\times}$ with the value of $\,^{\times}$ considered as a Scheme expression. $\,^{\times}$ can have logic variables, but usually they should at least be bound, as unbound variables may not be palatable values to the Scheme operators used in $\,^{\times}$ E. We can now directly use the numbers of Scheme to write a more efficient %factorial predicate:

```
(define %factorial
  (%rel (x y x1 y1)
        ((0 1))
        ((x y) (%is x1 (- x 1))
              (%factorial x1 y1)
              (%is y (* y1 x)))))
```

A price that this efficiency comes with is that we can use "factorial only with its first argument already instantiated. In many cases, this is not an unreasonable constraint. In fact, given this limitation, there is nothing to prevent us from using Scheme's factorial directly:

```
(define %factorial
  (%rel (x y)
      ((x y)
      (%is y (scheme-factorial x)))))
```

or better yet, inline any calls to %factorial with %is -expressions calling scheme-factorial, where the latter is defined in the usual manner:

34.3.3 Lexical scoping

One can use Scheme's lexical scoping to enhance predicate definitions. Here is a list-reversal predicate defined using a hidden auxiliary predicate:

(revaux X Y Z) uses Y as an accumulator for reversing X into Z. Y starts out as (). Each head of X is consed on to Y. Finally, when X has wound down to (), Y contains the reversed list and can be returned as Z. Here, revaux is used purely as a helper predicate for %reverse, and so it can be concealed within a lexical contour. We use letrec instead of let because revaux is a recursive procedure.

34.3.4 Type predicates

Schelog provides a couple of predicates that let the user probe the type of objects. The goal

```
(%constant X)
```

succeeds if X is an *atomic* object, i.e. not a list or vector. The predicate %compound, the negation of %constant, checks if its argument is indeed a list or a vector.

The above are merely the logic-programming equivalents of corresponding Scheme predicates. Users can use the predicate %is and Scheme predicates to write more type checks in Schelog. Thus, to test if X is a string, the following goal could be used:

```
(%is #t (string? X))
```

User-defined Scheme predicates, in addition to primitive Scheme predicates, can thus be imported.

34.4 Backtracking

It is helpful to go into the following evaluation in a little more detail:

```
(%which ()
  (%computer-literate 'Penelope))
  => () true
```

The starting goal is:

```
GO = (%computer-literate Penelope)
```

Schelog tries to match this with the head of the first clause of %computer-literate. It succeeds, generating a binding (person Penelope). But this means it now has two new goals — <code>subgoals</code> — to solve. These are the goals in the body of the matching clause, with the logic variables substituted by their instantiations:

```
G1 = (%knows Penelope TeX)
G2 = (%knows Penelope Scheme)
```

For G1, Schelog attempts matches with the clauses of %knows, and succeeds at the fifth try. There are no subgoals in this case, because the bodies of these "fact" clauses are empty, in contrast to the "rule" clauses of %computer -literate. Schelog then tries to solve G2 against the clauses of %knows, and since there is no clause stating that Penelope knows Scheme, it fails.

All is not lost though. Schelog now *backtracks* to the goal that was solved just before: G1 . It *retries* G1, i.e. tries to solve it in a different way. This entails searching down the previously unconsidered %knows clauses for G1 , i.e. the sixth onwards. Obviously, Schelog fails again, because the fact that Penelope knows TeX occurs only once.

Schelog now backtracks to the goal before G1, i.e. G0. We abandon the current successful match with the first clause-head of %computer-literate, and try the next clause-head. Schelog succeeds, again producing a binding (person Penelope), and two new subgoals:

```
G3 = (%knows Penelope TeX)
G4 = (%knows Penelope Prolog)
```

It is now easy to trace that Schelog finds both G3 and G4 to be true. Since both of G0 's subgoals are true, G0 is itself considered true. And this is what Schelog reports. The interested reader can now trace why the following query has a different denouement:

```
(%which ()
  (%computer-literate 'Telemachus))
=> #f
```

34.5 Unification

When we say that a goal matches with a clause-head, we mean that the predicate and argument positions line up. Before making this comparison, Schelog dereferences all already bound logic variables. The resulting structures are then compared to see if they are recursively identical. Thus, 1 unifies with 1, and (list 1 2) with $'(1\ 2)$; but 1 and 2 do not unify, and neither do $'(1\ 2)$ and $'(1\ 3)$.

In general, there could be quite a few uninstantiated logic variables in the compared objects. Unification will then endeavor to find the most natural way of binding these variables so that we arrive at structurally identical objects. Thus, (list \times 1), where \times is an unbound logic variable, unifies with '(0 1), producing the binding (\times 0).

Unification is thus a goal, and Schelog makes the unification predicate available to the user as %= , e.g.

```
(%which (x)
(%= (list x 1) '(0 1))
=> ((x 0))
```

Schelog also provides the predicate %/=, the *negation* of %=. (%/= X Y) succeeds if and only if X does *not* unify with Y.

Unification goals constitute the basic subgoals that all Schelog goals devolve to. A goal succeeds because all the eventual unification subgoals that it decomposes to in at least one of its subgoal-branching succeeded. It fails because every possible subgoal-branching was thwarted by the failure of a crucial unification subgoal.

Going back to the example in the section on backtracking, the goal (%computer-literate 'Penelope) succeeds because (a) it unified with (%computer-literate person); and then (b) with the binding (person Penelope) in place, (%knows person 'TeX) unified with (%knows 'Penelope 'TeX) and (%knows person 'Prolog) unified with (%knows 'Penelope 'Prolog).

In contrast, the goal (%computer-literate 'Telemachus) fails because, with (person Telemachus), the subgoals (%knows person 'Scheme) and (%knows person 'Prolog) have no facts they can unify with.

34.5.1 The "occurs check"

A robust unification algorithm uses the *occurs check*, which ensures that a logic variable isn't bound to a structure that contains itself. Not performing the check can cause the unification to go into an infinite loop in some cases. On the other hand, performing the occurs check greatly increases the time taken by unification, even in cases that wouldn't require the check.

Schelog uses the global variable *schelog-use-occurs-check?* to decide whether to use the occurs check. By default, this variable is #f, i.e. Schelog disables the occurs check. To enable the check,

```
(set! *schelog-use-occurs-check?* #t)
```

34.6 Conjuctions and disjunctions

Goals may be combined using the forms %and and %or to form compound goals. For %not , see the section on "Negation as failure". Here is an example:

```
(%which (x)
  (%and (%member x '(1 2 3))
          (%< x 3)))</pre>
```

gives solutions for x that satisfy both the argument goals of the %and , i.e. x should both be a member of '(1 2 3) and be less than 3. The first solution is

```
((x 1))
```

Typing (%more) gives another solution:

```
((x 2))
```

There are no more solutions, because $(x \ 3)$ satisfies the first, but not the second goal. Similarly, the query

lists all x that are members of either list.

```
((x 1))
(%more) => ((x 2))
(%more) => ((x 3))
(%more) => ((x 3))
(%more) => ((x 4))
(%more) => ((x 5))
```

Here, $((x \ 3))$ is listed twice. We can rewrite the predicate %computer-literate from section "Predicates with rules" using %and and %or:

Or, more succinctly:

We can even dispense %rel altogether, turning %computer-literate into a conventional Scheme predicate definition:

34.7 Manipulating logic variables

Schelog provides special predicates for probing logic variables, without risking them getting bound.

34.7.1 Checking for variables

The goal

```
(%== X Y)
```

succeeds if X and Y are *identical* objects. This is not quite the unification predicate %=, for %== doesn't touch unbound objects the way %= does. For instance, %== will not equate an unbound logic variable with a bound one, nor will it equate two unbound logic variables unless they are the *same* variable.

The predicate %/== is the negation of %==.

The goal

```
(%var X)
```

succeeds if X isn't completely bound, i.e. it has at least one unbound logic variable in its innards.

The predicate %nonvar is the negation of %var.

34.7.2 Preserving variables

Schelog lets the user protect a term with variables from unification by allowing that term to be treated as a completely bound object. The predicates provided for this purpose are %freeze, %melt, %melt-new, and %copy.

The goal

```
(%freeze S F)
```

unifies $\, F \,$ to the frozen version of $\, S \,$. Any lack of bindings in $\, S \,$ are preserved no matter how much you toss $\, F \,$ about.

The goal

```
(%melt F S)
```

retrieves the object frozen in F into S.

The goal

```
(%melt-new F S)
```

is similar to %melt, except that when S is made, the unbound variables in F are replaced by brand-new unbound variables.

The goal

```
(%copy S C)
```

is an abbreviation for (%freeze S F) followed by (%melt-new F C) .

34.8 The cut (!)

The cut (called !)`` is a special goal that is used to prune backtracking options. Like the %true' goal, the cut goal too succeeds, when accosted by the Schelog subgoaling engine. However, when a further subgoal down the line fails, and time comes to retry the cut goal, Schelog will refuse to try alternate clauses for the predicate in whose definition the cut occurs. In other words, the cut causes Schelog to commit to all the decisions made from the time that the predicate was selected to match a subgoal till the time the cut was satisfied.

For example, consider again the %factorial predicate, as defined in the section on %is:

Clearly,

```
(%which ()
    (%factorial 0 1))
    => () true
(%which (n)
    (%factorial 0 n))
    => ((n 1))
```

But what if we asked for (%more) for either query? Backtracking will try the second clause of %factorial, and sure enough the clause-head unifies, producing binding $(x \ 0)$. We now get three subgoals. Solving the first, we get $(x1 \ -1)$, and then we have to solve (%factorial $-1 \ y1$). It is easy to see there is no end to this, as we fruitlessly try to get the factorials of numbers that get more and more negative.

If we placed a cut at the first clause:

```
((0 1) !)
...
```

the attempt to find more solutions for (%factorial 0 1) is stopped immeditately.

Calling %factorial with a *negative* number would still cause an infinite loop. To take care of that problem as well, we use another cut:

```
(define %factorial
  (%rel (x y x1 y1)
      ((0 1) !)
      ((x y) (< x 0) ! %fail)
      ((x y) (%is x1 (- x 1))
            (%factorial x1 y1)
            (%is y (\* y1 x)))))</pre>
```

Using *raw* cuts as above can get very confusing. For this reason, it is advisable to use it hidden away in well-understood abstractions. Two such common abstractions are the conditional and negation.

34.8.1 Conditional goals

An "if ... then ... else ..." predicate can be defined as follows

```
(define %if-then-else
  (%rel (p q r)
      ((p q r) p ! q)
      ((p q r) r)))
```

Note that for the first time we have predicate arguments that are themselves goals.

Consider the goal

```
GO = (%if-then-else Gbool Gthen Gelse)
```

We first unify GO with the first clause-head, giving (p Gbool), (q Gthen), (r Gelse). Gbool can now either succeed or fail.

Case 1: If Gbool fails, backtracking will cause the G0 to unify with the second clause-head. r is bound to Gelse, and so Gelse is tried, as expected.

Case 2: If Gbool succeeds, the cut commits to this clause of the <code>%if-then-else</code>. We now try <code>Gthen</code>. If <code>Gthen</code> should now fail — or even if we simply retry for more solutions — we are guaranteed that the second clause-head will not be tried. If it were not for the cut, <code>GO</code> would attempt to unify with the second clause-head, which will of course succeed, and <code>Gelse</code> will be tried.

34.8.2 Negation as failure

Another common abstraction using the cut is negation. The negation of goal G is defined as (%not G), where the predicate %not is defined as follows:

```
(define %not
  (%rel (g)
      ((g) g ! %fail)
      ((g) %true)))
```

Thus, g's negation is deemed a failure if g succeeds, and a success if g fails. This is of course confusing goal failure with falsity. In some cases, this view of negation is actually helpful.

34.9 Set predicates

The goal

```
(%bag-of X G Bag)
```

unifies with Bag the list of all instantiations of X for which G succeeds. Thus, the following query asks for all the things known, i.e. the collection of things such that someone knows them:

```
(%which (things-known)
  (%let (someone x)
        (%bag-of x (%knows someone x) things-known)))
=> ((things-known
        (TeX Scheme Prolog
        Penelope TeX Prolog
        Odysseus TeX calculus)))
```

This is the only solution for this goal:

```
(%more) =>#f
```

Note that some things, e.g. TeX, are enumerated more than once. This is because more than one person knows TeX. To remove duplicates, use the predicate <code>%set-of</code> instead of <code>%bag-of</code>:

In the above, the free variable someone in the %knows-goal is used as if it were existentially quantified. In contrast, Prolog's versions of %bag-of and %set-of fix it for each solution of the set-predicate goal. We can do it too with some additional syntax that identifies the free variable, for instance:

The bag of things known by *one* someone is returned. That someone is Odysseus. The query can be retried for more solutions, each listing the things known by a different someone:

Schelog also provides two variants of these set predicates: %bag-of-1 and %set-of-1. These act like %bag-of and %set-of but fail if the resulting bag or set is empty.

34.10 API

```
(%/= E1 E2)

%/= is the negation of predicate %= . The goal (%/= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 can not be unified with E2
```

.

syntax

 $(\%/==E1\ E2)$ predicate

%/== is the negation of predicate %==. The goal (%/== E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are not identical.

(%< E1 E2)

The goal (%< E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is less than E2.

(% <= E1 E2) predicate

The goal (%<= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is less than or equal to E2.

(%= E1 E2)

The goal (%= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 can be unified with E2. Any resulting bindings for logic variables are kept.

 $(\%=/=E1\ E2)$

The goal (%=/= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is not equal to E2.

 $(\%=:=E1\ E2)$ predicate

The goal (%=:= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is equal to E2.

(% = E1 E2) predicate

The goal (%== E1 E2) succeeds if E1 is *identical* to E2. They should be structurally equal. If containing logic variables, they should have the same variables in the same position. Unlike a %= -call, this goal will not bind any logic variables.

(%> E1 E2)

The goal (%> E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is greater than E2.

(% > = E1 E2) predicate

The goal (%>= E1 E2) succeeds if E1 and E2 are bound to numbers and E1 is greater than or equal to E2.

(%and *G* ...)

The goal (%and G ...) succeeds if all the goals G ... succeed.

(%append E1 E2 E3)

The goal (%append E1 E2 E3) succeeds if E3 is unifiable with the list obtained by appending E1 and E2.

(%assert Pname (V ...) C ...)

The form (%assert Pname (V ...) C ...) adds the clauses C ... to the end of the predicate that is the value of the Scheme variable Pname. The variables V ... are local logic variables for C

(%assert-a *Pname* (*V* ...) *C* ...)

The form (%assert-a Pname (V ...) C ...) adds the clauses C ... to the front of the predicate that is the value of the Scheme variable Pname. The variables V ... are local logic variables for C

(%bag-of E1 G E2)

The goal (%bag-of E1 G E2) unifies with E2 the bag (multiset) of all the instantiations of E1 for which goal G succeeds.

(%bag-of-1 E1 G E2)

The goal (%bag-of E1 G E2) unifies with E2 the bag (multiset) of all the instantiations of E1 for which goal G succeeds. %bag-of-1 fails if the bag is empty.

(%compound *E*)

The goal (%compound E) succeeds if E is a non-atomic structure, i.e. a vector or a list.

(%constant E) predicate

The goal (%constant E) succeeds if E is an atomic object, i.e. not a vector and a list.

(%copy F S)

The goal (%copy F S) unifies with S a copy of the frozen structure in F.

(%empty-rel E ...)

The goal (%empty-rel E ...) always fails. The value %empty-rel is used as a starting value for predicates that can later be enhanced with %assert and %assert-a.

%fail goal

The goal %fail always fails.

(%free-vars (V ...) G)

The form (%free-vars (V ...) G) identifies the occurrences of the variables V ... in goal G as free. It is used to avoid existential quantification in calls to set predicates such as %bag-of, %set-of, etc.

(%freeze S F)

The goal (%freeze S F) unifies with F a new frozen version of the structure in S. Freezing implies that all the unbound variables are preserved. F can henceforth be used as *bound* object with no fear of its variables getting bound by unification.

(%if-then-else G1 G2 G3) predicate

The goal (%if-then-else G1 G2 G3) tries G1 first: if it succeeds, tries G2; if not, tries G3.

(%is E1 E2)

The goal (%is E1 E2) unifies with E1 the result of evaluating E2 as a Scheme expression. E2 may contain logic variables, which are dereferenced automatically. Fails if E2 contains unbound logic variables. Unlike other predicates, %is is implemented as syntax and not a procedure.

(%let (V ...) E ...)

The form (%let (V ...) E ...) introduces V ... as lexically scoped logic variables to be used in E

(%melt F S) predicate

The goal (%melt F S) unifies S with the thawed (original) form of the frozen structure in F.

(%melt-new F S)

The goal (%melt-new F S) unifies S with a thawed *copy* of the frozen structure in F. This means new logic variables are used for unbound logic variables in F.

(%member E1 E2)

The goal (%member E1 E2) succeeds if E1 is a member of the list in E2.

(%nonvar E)

%nonvar is the negation of %var. The goal (%nonvar E) succeeds if E is completely instantiated, i.e. it has no unbound variables in it.

(%not *G*) predicate

The goal (%not G) succeeds if G fails.

(%more) procedure

The thunk <code>%more produces more instantiations</code> of the variables in the most recent <code>%which-form</code> that satisfy the goals in that <code>%which-form</code>. If no more solutions can be found, <code>%more returns #f</code>.

(%or *G* ...)

The goal (% or G ...) succeeds if one of G ..., tried in that order, succeeds.

(%rel (V ...) C ...)

The form (%rel (V ...) C ...) creates a predicate object. Each clause C is of the form ($(E ext{ ...})$ G ...), signifying that the goal created by applying the predicate object to anything that matches (E ...) is deemed to succeed if all the goals G ... can, in their turn, be shown to succeed.

(%repeat) predicate

The goal (%repeat) always succeeds (even on retries). Used for failure-driven loops.

schelog-use-occurs-check?

object

If the global flag *schelog-use-occurs-check?* is false (the default), unification will not use the occurs check. If it is true, the occurs check is enabled.

(%set-of E1 G E2)

The goal (%set-of E1 G E2) unifies with E2 the *set* of all the instantiations of E1 for which goal G succeeds.

(%set-of-1 E1 G E2)

The goal (%set-of-1 E1 G E2) unifies with E2 the *set* of all the instantiations of E1 for which goal G succeeds. The predicate fails if the set is empty.

%true goal

The goal %true succeeds. Fails on retry.

(%var E) predicate

The goal (%var E) succeeds if E is not completely instantiated, i.e. it has at least one unbound variable in it.

(%which (V ...) G ...)

The form (%which (V ...) G ...) returns an instantiation of the variables V ... that satisfies all of G If G ... cannot be satisfied, %which returns #f . Calling the thunk %more produces more instantiations, if available.

(_) procedure

A thunk that produces a new logic variable. Can be used in situations where we want a logic variable but don't want to name it. %let, in contrast, introduces new lexical names for the logic variables it creates.

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35 LispKit Queue

Library (lispkit queue) provides an implementation for mutable queues, i.e. mutable FIFO buffers.

(make-queue)

procedure

Returns a new empty queue.

(queue *x* ...)

procedure

Returns a new queue with *x* on its first position followed by the remaining parameters.

```
(dequeue! (queue 1 2 3)) \Rightarrow 1
```

procedure

(queue? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a queue; otherwise #f is returned.

procedure

(queue-empty? q)

Returns #t if queue q is empty.

procedure

(queue-size q)

Returns the size of queue q, i.e. the number of elements buffered in q.

(queue=? q1 q2)

Returns #t if queue q1 has the exact same elements in the same order like queue q2; otherwise, #f is returned.

(enqueue! qx)

procedure

Inserts element x at the end of queue q.

(queue-front *q*)

procedure

Returns the first element in queue q. If the queue is empty, an error is raised.

(dequeue! q)

procedure

Removes the first element from queue q and returns its value.

```
(define q (make-queue))
(enqueue! q 1)
(enqueue! q 2)
(dequeue! q) ⇒ 1
(queue-front q) ⇒ 2
(queue-size q) ⇒ 1
```

(queue-clear! q)

procedure

Removes all elements from queue q.

(queue-copy q)

procedure

Returns a copy of queue q.

(queue->list q)

procedure

Returns a list consisting of all elements in queue q in the order they were inserted, i.e. starting with the first element.

```
(define q (make-queue))
(enqueue! q 1)
(enqueue! q 2)
(enqueue! q 3)
(queue->list q) ⇒ (1 2 3)
```

(list->queue *l*)

procedure

Returns a new queue consisting of the elements of list l. The first element in l will become the front element of the new queue that is returned.

```
(dequeue! (list->queue '(1 2 3))) \Rightarrow 1
```

(list->queue! s l)

procedure

Inserts the elements of list l into queue q in the order they appear in the list.

```
(define q (list->queue '(1 2 3)))
(list->queue! q '(4 5 6))
(queue->list q) ⇒ (1 2 3 4 5 6)
```

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36 LispKit Record

Library (lispkit record) implements record types for LispKit. A record provides a simple and flexible mechanism for building structures with named components wrapped in distinct types.

36.1 Declarative API

record-type syntax is used to introduce new *record types* in a declarative fashion. Like other definitions, record-type can either appear at the outermost level or locally within a body. The values of a *record type* are called *records* and are aggregations of zero or more fields, each of which holds a single location. A predicate, a constructor, and field accessors and mutators are defined for each record type.

```
(define-record-type <name> <constr> <pred> <field> ...)
  <name> and <pred> are identifiers. The <constructor> is of the form:
  (<constructor name> <field name> ...)

and each <field> is either of the form:
  (<field name> <accessor name>), or
  (<field name> <accessor name> <modifier name>).
```

It is an error for the same identifier to occur more than once as a field name. It is also an error for the same identifier to occur more than once as an accessor or mutator name.

The define-record-type construct is generative: each use creates a new record type that is distinct from all existing types, including the predefined types and other record types - even record types of the same name or structure.

An instance of define-record-type is equivalent to the following definitions:

- <name> is bound to a representation of the record type itself.
- <constructor name> is bound to a procedure that takes as many arguments as there are <field name> elements in the (<constructor name> ...) subexpression and returns a new record of type <name>. Fields whose names are listed with <constructor name> have the corresponding argument as their initial value. The initial values of all other fields are unspecified. It is an error for a field name to appear in <constructor> but not as a <field name>.
- red> is bound to a predicate that returns #t when given a value returned by the procedure
 bound to <constructor name> and #f for everything else.
- Each <accessor name> is bound to a procedure that takes a record of type <name> and returns the current value of the corresponding field. It is an error to pass an accessor a value which is not a record of the appropriate type.
- Each <modifier name> is bound to a procedure that takes a record of type <name> and a value which becomes the new value of the corresponding field. It is an error to pass a modifier a first argument which is not a record of the appropriate type.

For instance, the following record-type definition:

```
(define-record-type <pare>
  (kons x y)
  pare?
  (x kar set-kar!)
  (y kdr))
```

defines kons to be a constructor, kar and kdr to be accessors, set-kar! to be a modifier, and pare? to be a type predicate for instances of <pare> .

36.2 Procedural API

Besides the syntactical define-record-type abstraction for defining record types in a declarative fashion, LispKit provides a low-level, procedural API for creating and instantiating records and record types. Record types are represented in form of *record type descriptor* objects which itself are records.

(record? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a record of any type; returns #f otherwise.

(record-type? obj) procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a record type descriptor; returns #f otherwise.

(record-type obj)

Returns the record type descriptor for objects *obj* which are records; returns #f for all non-record values.

(make-record-type name fields)

procedure

Returns a record type descriptor which represents a new data type that is disjoint from all other types. *name* is a string which is only used for debugging purposes, such as the printed representation of a record of the new type. *fields* is a list of symbols naming the fields of a record of the new type. It is an error if the list contains duplicate symbols.

(record-type-name rtd)

procedure

Returns the type name (a string) associated with the type represented by the record type descriptor rtd. The returned value is eqv? to the *name* argument given in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by rtd.

(record-type-field-names rtd)

procedure

Returns a list of the symbols naming the fields in members of the type represented by the record type descriptor *rtd*. The returned value is equal? to the *fields* argument given in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by *rtd*.

(make-record rtd) procedure

Returns an uninitialized instance of the record type for which *rtd* is the record type descriptor.

(record-constructor rtd fields)

procedure

Returns a procedure for constructing new members of the type represented by the record type descriptor *rtd*. The returned procedure accepts exactly as many arguments as there are symbols in the given *fields* list; these are used, in order, as the initial values of those fields in a new record, which is returned by the

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constructor procedure. The values of any fields not named in *fields* are unspecified. It is an error if *fields* contain any duplicates or any symbols not in the *fields* list of the record type descriptor *rtd*.

(record-predicate rtd)

procedure

Returns a procedure for testing membership in the type represented by the record type descriptor \overline{rtd} . The returned procedure accepts exactly one argument and returns #t if the argument is a member of the indicated record type; it returns #f otherwise.

(record-field-accessor rtd field)

procedure

Returns a procedure for reading the value of a particular field of a member of the type represented by the record type descriptor *rtd*. The returned procedure accepts exactly one argument which must be a record of the appropriate type; it returns the current value of the field named by the symbol *field* in that record. The symbol *field* must be a member of the list of field names in the call to <code>make-record-type</code> that created the type represented by *rtd*.

(record-field-mutator rtd field)

procedure

Returns a procedure for writing the value of a particular field of a member of the type represented by the record type descriptor rtd. The returned procedure accepts exactly two arguments: first, a record of the appropriate type, and second, an arbitrary Scheme value; it modifies the field named by the symbol *field* in that record to contain the given value. The returned value of the modifier procedure is unspecified. The symbol *field* must be a member of the list of field names in the call to <code>make-record-type</code> that created the type represented by rtd.

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37 LispKit Regexp

Library (lispkit regexp) provides an API for defining regular expressions and applying them to strings. Supported are both matching as well as search/replace.

37.1 Regular expressions

The regular expression syntax supported by this library corresponds to the one of NSRegularExpression of Apple's *Foundation* framework. This is also the origin of the documentation of this section.

37.1.1 Meta-characters

\a : Match a *bell* (\u0007)

\A: Match at the beginning of the input. Differs from ^ in that \A will not match after a new line within the input.

\b: Outside of a [Set], match if the current position is a word boundary. Boundaries occur at the transitions between word (\w) and non-word (\W) characters, with combining marks ignored. Inside of a [Set], match a *backspace* (\u0008).

\B: Match if the current position is not a word boundary.

\cx : Match a control-X character.

\d : Match any character with the unicode general category of Nd, i.e. numbers and decimal digits.

\D: Match any character that is not a decimal digit.

\e: Match an escape (\u001B).

\E: Terminates a \Q ... \E quoted sequence.

\f: Match a form feed ($\setminus u000C$).

\G: Match if the current position is at the end of the previous match.

\n : Match a line feed (\u000A).

\N{unicode character} : Match the named character.

\p{unicode property}: Match any character with the specified unicode property.

\P{unicode property}: Match any character not having the specified unicode property.

\Q: Quotes all following characters until **\E**.

\r : Match a carriage return (\u000D).

\s : Match a whitespace character. Whitespace is defined as $[\t\n\f\r\p\{Z\}]$.

\\$: Match a non-whitespace character.

\t: Match a horizontal tabulation (\u0009).

\uhhhh: Match the character with the hex value hhhh.

\Uhhhhhhhh: Match the character with the hex value hhhhhhhh. Exactly eight hex digits must be provided, even though the largest Unicode code point is \U0010ffff.

\w : Match a word character. Word characters are [\p{Ll}\p{Lu}\p{Lt}\p{Lo}\p{Nd}].

\W: Match a non-word character.

\x{hhhh} : Match the character with hex value hhhh. From one to six hex digits may be supplied. \xhh : Match the character with two digit hex value hh.

\X: Match a grapheme cluster.

- **\Z**: Match if the current position is at the end of input, but before the final line terminator, if one exists.
- \z : Match if the current position is at the end of input. \n : Back Reference. Match whatever the n-th capturing group matched. n must be a number ≥ 1 and \le total number of capture groups in the pattern.

\0000: Match an octal character. *000* is from one to three octal digits. 0377 is the largest allowed octal character. The leading zero is required and distinguishes octal constants from back references.

[pattern]: Match any one character from the pattern.

- . : Match any character.
- ^ : Match at the beginning of a line.
- \$: Match at the end of a line.
- \: Quotes the following character. Characters that must be quoted to be treated as literals are *? + [() { } ^ \$ | \ . / .

37.2 Regular expression operators

- | : Alternation. A|B matches either A or B.
- * : Match 0 or more times, as many times as possible.
- + : Match 1 or more times, as many times as possible.
- ? : Match zero or one times, preferring one time if possible.
- {n} : Match exactly n times.
- {n,} : Match at least n times, as many times as possible.
- $\{n,m\}$: Match between n and m times, as many times as possible, but not more than m times.
- *? : Match zero or more times, as few times as possible.
- +? : Match one or more times, as few times as possible.
- ?? : Match zero or one times, preferring zero.
- {n}? : Match exactly n times.
- {n,}? : Match at least n times, but no more than required for an overall pattern match.
- {n,m}? : Match between n and m times, as few times as possible, but not less than n.
- *+ : Match zero or more times, as many times as possible when first encountered, do not retry with fewer even if overall match fails (possessive match). ++ : Match one or more times (possessive match).
- **?+** : Match zero or one times (possessive match).
- {n}+ : Match exactly n times.
- {n,}+ : Match at least n times (possessive match).
- $\{n,m\}+:$ Match between n and m times (possessive match).
- (...) : Capturing parentheses; the range of input that matched the parenthesized subexpression is available after the match.
- (?:...) : Non-capturing parentheses; groups the included pattern, but does not provide capturing of matching text (more efficient than capturing parentheses).
- (?>...) : Atomic-match parentheses; first match of the parenthesized subexpression is the only one tried. If it does not lead to an overall pattern match, back up the search for a match to a position before the "(?>" .
- (?# ...) : Free-format comment (?# comment).
- (?= ...) : Look-ahead assertion. True, if the parenthesized pattern matches at the current input position, but does not advance the input position.
- $(?! \dots)$: Negative look-ahead assertion. True, if the parenthesized pattern does not match at the current input position. Does not advance the input position.
- (?<= ...) : Look-behind assertion. True, if the parenthesized pattern matches text preceding the current input position, with the last character of the match being the input character just before the current position. Does not alter the input position. The length of possible strings matched by the look-behind pattern must not be unbounded (no \star or + operators). (?<! ...) : Negative look-behind assertion. True, if the parenthesized pattern does not match text preceding the current input position,

with the last character of the match being the input character just before the current position. Does not alter the input position. The length of possible strings matched by the look-behind pattern must not be unbounded (no \star or + operators).

(?ismwx-ismwx: ...) : Flag settings. Evaluate the parenthesized expression with the specified flags enabled or disabled.

(?ismwx-ismwx): Flag settings. Change the flag settings. Changes apply to the portion of the pattern following the setting. For example, (?i) changes to a case insensitive match.

37.2.1 Template Matching

n: The text of capture group n will be substituted for n. n must be ≥ 0 and not greater than the number of capture groups. A n not followed by a digit has no special meaning, and will appear in the substitution text as itself, i.e. n.

\: Treat the following character as a literal, suppressing any special meaning. Backslash escaping in substitution text is only required for \$ and \, but may be used on any other character.

37.2.2 Flag options

The following flags control various aspects of regular expression matching. These flags get specified within the pattern using the (?ismx-ismx) pattern options.

- i : If set, matching will take place in a case-insensitive manner.
- **x**: If set, allow use of white space and #comments within patterns.
- **s**: If set, a "." in a pattern will match a line terminator in the input text. By default, it will not. Note that a carriage-return/line-feed pair in text behave as a single line terminator, and will match a single "." in a regular expression pattern.
- ${\bf m}$: Control the behavior of ^ and \$ in a pattern. By default these will only match at the start and end, respectively, of the input text. If this flag is set, ^ and \$ will also match at the start and end of each line within the input text.
- **w**: Controls the behavior of \b in a pattern. If set, word boundaries are found according to the definitions of word found in *Unicode UAX 29, Text Boundaries*. By default, word boundaries are identified by means of a simple classification of characters as either *word* or *non-word*, which approximates traditional regular expression behavior.

37.3 API

(regexp? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a regular expression object; otherwise #f is returned.

(regexp str)
(regexp str opt ...)

Returns a new regular expression object from the given regular expression pattern *str* and matching options *opt*, *str* is a string, matching options *opt* are symbols. The following matching options are supported:

- case-insensitive: Match letters in the regular expression independent of their case.
- allow-comments: Ignore whitespace and #-prefixed comments in the regular expression pattern.
- ignore-meta: Treat the entire regular expression pattern as a literal string.
- dot-matches-line-separator: Allow . to match any character, including line separators.
- anchors-match-lines: Allow ^ and \$ to match the start and end of lines.

- unix-only-line-separators: Treat only \n as a line separator; otherwise, all standard line separators are used.
- unicode-words: Use Unicode TR#29 to specify word boundaries; otherwise, all traditional regular expression word boundaries are used.

(regexp-pattern regexp)

procedure

Returns the regular expression pattern for the given regular expression object *regexp*. A regular expression pattern is a string matching the regular expression syntax supported by library (lispkit regexp).

(regexp-capture-groups regexp)

procedure

Returns the number of capture groups of the given regular expression object regexp.

(escape-regexp-pattern str)

procedure

Returns a regular expression pattern string by adding backslash escapes to pattern *str* as necessary to protect any characters that would match as pattern meta-characters.

```
(escape-regexp-pattern "(home/objecthub)")

⇒ "\\(home\\/objecthub\\)"
```

(escape-regexp-template str)

procedure

Returns a regular expression pattern template string by adding backslash escapes to pattern template *str* as necessary to protect any characters that would match as pattern meta-characters.

```
(regexp-matches regexp str)
```

procedure

(regexp-matches regexp str start)

(regexp-matches regexp str start end)

Returns a *matching spec* if the regular expression object *regexp* successfully matches the entire string *str* from position *start* (inclusive) to *end* (exclusive); otherwise, #f is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

A matching spec returned by regexp-matches consists of pairs of fixnum positions (startpos . endpos) in str. The first pair is always representing the full match (i.e. startpos is 0 and endpos is the length of str), all other pairs represent the positions of the matching capture groups of regexp.

```
(define email
    (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-matches email "matthias@objecthub.net")

⇒ ((0 . 22))
(define series
    (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-matches series "Season 3 Episode 12")

⇒ ((0 . 20) (7 . 8) (18 . 20))
```

(regexp-matches? regexp str)

procedure

(regexp-matches? regexp str start)

(regexp-matches? regexp str start end)

Returns #t if the regular expression object *regexp* successfully matches the entire string *str* from position *start* (inclusive) to *end* (exclusive); otherwise, #f is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

```
(regexp-search regexp str)
(regexp-search regexp str start)
(regexp-search regexp str start end)
```

procedure

Returns a *matching spec* for the first match of the regular expression *regexp* with a part of string *str* between position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive). If *regexp* does not match any part of *str* between *start* and *end*, #f is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

A *matching spec* returned by regexp-search consists of pairs of fixnum positions (*startpos* . *endpos*) in *str*. The first pair is always representing the full match of the pattern, all other pairs represent the positions of the matching capture groups of *regexp*.

```
(define email
  (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-search email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org")

⇒ ((8 . 30))
(define series
  (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-search series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot")

⇒ ((4 . 23) (11 . 12) (21 . 23))
```

```
(regexp-search-all regexp str)
(regexp-search-all regexp str start)
(regexp-search-all regexp str start end)
```

procedure

Returns a list of all *matching specs* for matches of the regular expression *regexp* with parts of string *str* between position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive). If *regexp* does not match any part of *str* between *start* and *end*, the empty list is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

A *matching spec* returned by regexp-search consists of pairs of fixnum positions (*startpos* . *endpos*) in *str*. The first pair is always representing the full match of the pattern, all other pairs represent the positions of the matching capture groups of *regexp*.

```
(define email
  (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
  (regexp-search-all email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org")
  ⇒ (((8 . 30)) ((34 . 45)))
  (define series
    (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
  (regexp-search-all series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot")
  ⇒ (((4 . 23) (11 . 12) (21 . 23)))
```

```
(regexp-extract regexp str)
(regexp-extract regexp str start)
(regexp-extract regexp str start end)
```

procedure

Returns a list of substrings from *str* which all represent full matches of the regular expression *regexp* with parts of string *str* between position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive). If *regexp* does not match any part of *str* between *start* and *end*, the empty list is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

```
(define email
    (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-extract email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org" 10)

⇒ ("tthias@objecthub.net" "foo@bar.org")
(define series
    (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-extract series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot")

⇒ ("Season 3 Episode 12")
```

```
(regexp-split regexp str)
(regexp-split regexp str start)
(regexp-split regexp str start end)
```

procedure

Splits string *str* into a list of possibly empty substrings separated by non-empty matches of regular expression *regexp* within position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive). If *regexp* does not match any part of *str* between *start* and *end*, a list with *str* as its only element is returned. The default for *start* is 0; the default for *end* is the length of the string.

```
(define email
   (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-split email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org" 10)

⇒ ("Contact ma" " or " "")
(define series
   (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-split series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot")

⇒ ("New " ": Pilot")
```

```
(regexp-partition regexp str)
(regexp-partition regexp str start)
(regexp-partition regexp str start end)
```

procedure

Partitions string *str* into a list of non-empty strings matching regular expression *regexp* within position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive), interspersed with the unmatched portions of the whole string. The first and every odd element is an unmatched substring, which will be the empty string if *regexp* matches at the beginning of the string or end of the previous match. The second and every even element will be a substring fully matching *regexp*. If *str* is the empty string or if there is no match at all, the result is a list with *str* as its only element.

```
(define email
    (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-partition email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org" 10)

⇒ ("Contact ma" "tthias@objecthub.net" " or " "foo@bar.org" "")
(define series
    (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-partition series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot")

⇒ ("New " "Season 3 Episode 12" ": Pilot")
```

```
(regexp-replace regexp str subst)
(regexp-replace regexp str subst start)
(regexp-replace regexp str subst start end)
```

procedure

Returns a new string replacing all matches of regular expression *regexp* in string *str* within position *start* (inclusive) and *end* (exclusive) with string *subst*. regexp-replace will always return a new string, even if there are no matches and replacements.

The optional parameters *start* and *end* restrict both the matching and the substitution, to the given positions, such that the result is equivalent to omitting these parameters and replacing on (substring *str start end*).

```
(define email
    (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(regexp-replace email "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org" "<omitted>" 10)

⇒ "Contact ma<omitted> or <omitted>"
(define series
    (regexp "Season\\s+(\\d+)\\s+Episode\\s+(\\d+)"))
(regexp-replace series "New Season 3 Episode 12: Pilot" "Series")

⇒ "New Series: Pilot"
```

(regexp-replace! x)

procedure

Mutates string str by replacing all matches of regular expression regexp within position start (inclusive)

and *end* (exclusive) with string *subst*. The optional parameters *start* and *end* restrict both the matching and the substitution. regexp-replace! returns the number of replacements that were applied.

```
(define email
  (regexp "[A-Z0-9a-z._%+-]+@[A-Za-z0-9.-]+\\.[A-Za-z]{2,4}"))
(define str "Contact matthias@objecthub.net or foo@bar.org")
(regexp-replace! email str "<omitted>" 10) ⇒ 2
str ⇒ "Contact ma<omitted> or <omitted>"
```

```
(regexp-fold regexp kons knil str)
(regexp-fold regexp kons knil str finish)
(regexp-fold regexp kons knil str finish start)
(regexp-fold regexp kons knil str finish start end)
```

procedure

regexp-fold is the most fundamental and generic regular expression matching iterator. It repeatedly searches string *str* for the regular expression *regexp* so long as a match can be found. On each successful match, it applies (kons *i regexp-match str acc*) where *i* is the index since the last match (beginning with *start*), *regexp-match* is the resulting *matching spec*, and *acc* is the result of the previous *kons* application, beginning with *knil*. When no more matches can be found, regexp-fold calls *finish* with the same arguments, except that *regexp-match* is #f. By default, *finish* just returns *acc*.

38 LispKit Set

Library (lispkit set) provides a generic implementation for sets of objects. Its API design is compatible to the R6RS-style API of library (lispkit hashtable).

A set is a data structure for representing collections of objects. Any object can be used as element, provided a hash function and a suitable equivalence function is available. A hash function is a procedure that maps elements to exact integer objects. It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that the hash function is compatible with the equivalence function, which is a procedure that accepts two objects and returns true if they are equivalent and #f otherwise. Standard sets for arbitrary objects based on the eq? , eqv? , and equal? predicates are provided.

38.1 Constructors

 (make-eq-set)
 procedure

 Create a new empty set using eq? as equivalence function.
 procedure

 (make-eqv-set)
 procedure

Create a new empty set using eqv? as equivalence function.

(make-equal-set) procedure

Create a new empty set using equal? as equivalence function.

(make-set hash equiv)

(make-set hash equiv k)

Create a new empty set using the given hash function hash and equivalence function equiv. An initial capacity k can be provided optionally.

(eq-set element ...)

Create a new set using eq? as equivalence function. Initialize it with the values *element*

[eqv-set *element* ...]

Create a new set using eqv? as equivalence function. Initialize it with the values *element*

(equal-set element ...)

Create a new set using equal? as equivalence function. Initialize it with the values *element*

38.2 Inspection

(set-equivalence-function s)

Returns the equivalence function used by set *s*.

(set-hash-function s) procedure

procedure

Returns the hash function used by set *s*.

(set-mutable? s)

Returns #t if set s is mutable.

38.3 Predicates

(set? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a set.

(set-empty? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an empty set.

(set=? s1 s2)

procedure

Returns #t if set s1 and set s2 are using the same equivalence function and contain the same elements.

(disjoint? s1 s2)

procedure

Returns #t if set s1 and set s2 are disjoint sets.

(subset? s1 s2)

procedure

Returns #t if set s1 is a subset of set s2.

(proper-subset? s1 s2)

procedure

Returns #t if set s1 is a proper subset of set s2, i.e. s1 is a subset of s2 and s1 is not equivalent to s2.

(set-contains? s element)

procedure

Returns # if set s contains element.

(set-any? s proc)

procedure

Returns true if there is at least one element in set s for which procedure *proc* returns true (i.e. not #f).

(set-every? s proc)

procedure

Returns true if procedure *proc* returns true (i.e. not #f) for all elements of set s.

38.4 Procedures

(set-size s)

procedure

Returns the number of elements in set s.

(set-elements s)

procedure

Returns the elements of set s as a vector.

(set-copy s)

procedure

(set-copy s mutable)

Copies set s creating an immutable copy if mutable is set to #f or if mutable is not provided.

(set-for-each s proc)

procedure

Applies procedure *proc* to all elements of set *s* in an undefined order.

(set-filter s pred)

procedure

Creates a new set containing the elements of set s for which the procedure pred returns true.

(set-union *s s1* ...)

procedure

Creates a new set containing the union of s with s1

(set-intersection s s1 ...)

procedure

Creates a new set containing the intersection of s with s1

(set-difference s s1 ...)

procedure

Creates a new set containing the difference of s and the sets in $s1 \dots$.

(set-> list s)

procedure

Returns the elements of set s as a list.

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(list->eq-set elements)

procedure

Creates a new set using the equivalence function eq? from the values in list *elements*.

(list->eqv-set elements)

procedure

Creates a new set using the equivalence function eqv? from the values in list *elements*.

(list->equal-set *elements*)

procedure

Creates a new set using the equivalence function equal? from the values in list elements.

38.5 Mutators

(set-adjoin! s element ...)

procedure

Adds *element* ... to the set s.

(set-delete! s element ...)

procedure

Deletes *element* ... from the set *s*.

(set-clear! s)

procedure

(set-clear! s k)

Clears set s and reserves a capacity of k elements if k is provided.

(list->set! *s elements*)

procedure

Adds the values of list *elements* to set *s*.

(set-filter! s pred)

procedure

Removes all elements from set s for which procedure pred returns #f.

(set-union! *s s1* ...)

procedure

Stores the union of set s and sets $s1 \dots$ in s.

(set-intersection! s s1 ...)

procedure

Stores the intersection of set s and the sets s1 ... in s.

(set-difference! s s1 ...)

procedure

Stores the difference of set s and the sets s1 ... in s.

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39 LispKit SQLite

SQLite is a lightweight, embedded, relational open-source database management system. It is simple to use, requires zero configuration, is not based on a server, and manages databases directly in files.

Library (lispkit sqlite) provides functionality for creating, managing, and querying SQLite databases in LispKit. (lispkit sqlite) is a low-level library that wraps the classial C API for SQLite3. Just like in the C API, the actual SQL statements are represented as strings and compiled into statement objects that are used for executing the statements.

39.1 Introduction

Library (lispkit sqlite) exports procedure open-database for creating new databases and connecting to existing ones. The following code will create a new database from scratch in file ~/Desk-top/TestDatabase.sqlite if that file does not exist. If the file exists, open-database will return a database object for accessing the database:

```
(import (lispkit sqlite))
(define db (open-database "~/Desktop/TestDatabase.sqlite"))
```

A new table can be created in database db with the help of an SQL CREATE TABLE statement. SQL statements are defined as strings and compiled into statement objects via procedure prepare-statement. Procedure process-statement is used to execute statement objects.

Entries can be inserted into the new table Contacts with a corresponding SQL statement as shown in the following listing. First, a new SQL statement is being compiled. This SQL statement contains *parameters*. These are placeholders that are defined via ? . They can be bound to concrete values before the statement is executed using procedures bind-parameter and bind-parameters.

The SQL statement below has 4 parameters, indexed starting 1. The code below binds these parameters one by one via bind-parameter to concrete values before the statement is executed via process-statement.

```
(define stmt1 (prepare-statement db "INSERT INTO Contacts VALUES (?, ?, ?);"))
(bind-parameter stmt1 1 1000)
(bind-parameter stmt1 2 "Mickey Mouse")
(bind-parameter stmt1 3 "mickey@disney.net")
(bind-parameter stmt1 4 "+1 101-123-456")
(process-statement stmt1)
```

SQL statements can be reused many times. Typically, this is done by utilizing procedure resetstatement. If the previous execution was successful, though, this is not strictly necessary and a reset is done automatically. The code below re-applies the same statement a second time, this time using procedure bind-parameters to bind all parameters in one go.

```
(reset-statement stmt1); not strictly needed here
(bind-parameters stmt1 '(1001 "Donald Duck" "donald@disney.net" "+1 101-123-456"))
(process-statement stmt1)
```

The following code shows how to query for the total number of distinct phone numbers in table Contacts . The first invokation of procedure process-statement returns #f, indicating that there is a result. column-count returns 1, which is the column containing the distinct count. The count is extracted from the statement via column-value. The second invokation of process-statement now returns #t as there are no further query results.

```
; Count the number of distinct phone numbers.
(define stmt2 (prepare-statement db "SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT phone) FROM Contacts;"))
(process-statement stmt2) ; returns `#f`, i.e. there is a result
(display (column-count stmt2))
(newline)
(display (column-value stmt2 0))
(newline)
(process-statement stmt2) ; returns `#t`, i.e. there is no further result
```

The final example code below shows how to iterate effectively over a result table that has more than one result row.

Executing this code returns the following list:

```
(("Donald Duck" "donald@disney.net") ("Mickey Mouse" "mickey@disney.net"))
```

39.2 API

39.2.1 SQLite version retrieval

(sqlite-version)

procedure

The sqlite-version procedure returns a string that specifies the version of the SQLite framework in use in the format "X.Y.Z", where X is the major version number (e.g. 3 for SQLite3), Y is the minor version number, and Z is a release number.

(sqlite-version-number)

procedure

The sqlite-version-number procedure returns a fixnum with the value X1000000 + Y1000 + Z where X is the major version number (e.g. 3 for SQLite3), Y is the minor version number, and Z is a release number.

39.2.2 Database options

The following fixnum constants are used to specify how databases are opened or created via makedatabase and open-database. They can be combined by using an *inclusive or* function such as fxior. For instance, (fxior sqlite-readwrite sqlite-create) combines the two options sqlite-create and sqlite-readwrite.

sqlite-readonly constant

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database is opened in read-only mode. If the database does not exist already, an exception is thrown.

sqlite-readwrite constan

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database is opened for reading and writing if possible, or reading only if the file cannot be written at the operating system-level. If the database does not exist already, an exception is thrown.

sqlite-create constant

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. This option needs to be combined with either sqlite-readwrite or sqlite-readonly. It will lead to the creation of a new database in case there is no database at the specified path.

sqlite-default constant

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database is opened for reading and writing if possible, or reading only if the file cannot be written at the operating system-level. If the database does not exist already, a new database is being created.

sqlite-fullmutex constant

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database will use the "serialized" threading mode. In this mode, multiple threads can safely attempt to use the same database connection at the same time without the need for synchronization.

sqlite-sharedcache constant

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database is opened with shared cache enabled.

sqlite-privatecache

This is a fixnum value for specifying an option how databases are opened or created via make-database and open-database. With this option, the database is opened with shared cache disabled.

39.2.3 Database objects

SQLite database objects are either created in memory with procedure <code>make-database</code> or they are created on disk by calling procedure <code>open-database</code>. <code>open-database</code> can also be used for opening an existing database. SQLite stores databases in regular files on disk.

(make-database)
(make-database options)

procedure

Creates a new temporary in-memory database whose characteristics are described by *options*. *options* is a fixnum value. If no options are specified, sqlite-default (= create a new read/write database in memory) is used as the default. Options are represented as fixnum values. Combinations of options are

created by performing a *bitwise inclusive or* of several option values, e.g. via (fxior opt1 opt2). The following option values are predefined and can be used with make-database:

- sqlite-default: A new in-memory database is created and opened for reading and writing.
- sqlite-fullmutex: The database will use the "serialized" threading mode. In this mode, multiple threads can safely attempt to use the same database connection at the same time without the need for synchronization.
- sqlite-sharedcache: The database is opened with shared cache enabled.
- sqlite-privatecache: The database is opened with shared cache disabled.

(open-database path)

(open-database path options)

procedure

Opens a database at file path *path* whose characteristics are described by *options*. *options* is a fixnum value. If no options are specified, sqlite-default (= create a new read/write database if there is not database at *path*) is used as the default. Options are represented as fixnum values. Combinations of options are created by performing a *bitwise inclusive or* of several option values, e.g. via (fxior opt1 opt2). The following option values are predefined and can be used with open-database:

- sqlite-readonly: The database is opened in read-only mode. If the database does not exist already, an exception is thrown.
- sqlite-readwrite: The database is opened for reading and writing if possible, or reading only if the file cannot be written at the operating system-level. If the database does not exist already, an exception is thrown.
- sqlite-create: This option needs to be combined with either sqlite-readwrite or sqlite-readonly. It will lead to the creation of a new database in case there is no database at the specified path.
- sqlite-default: The database is opened for reading and writing if possible, or reading only if the file cannot be written at the operating system-level. If the database does not exist already, a new database is being created.
- sqlite-fullmutex: The database will use the "serialized" threading mode. In this mode, multiple threads can safely attempt to use the same database connection at the same time without the need for synchronization.
- sqlite-sharedcache: The database is opened with shared cache enabled.
- sqlite-privatecache: The database is opened with shared cache disabled.

(close-database db)

procedure

Closes database *db* and deallocates all memory related to the database. If a transaction is open at this point, the transaction is automatically rolled back.

(sqlite-database? *obj*)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a database object. Otherwise, predicate sqlite-database? returns #f.

(database-path db)

procedure

Returns the file path as a string at which the database db is being persisted. For in-memory databases, this procedure returns #f.

(database-last-row-id *db*)

procedure

Each entry in a database table (except for WITHOUT ROWID tables) has a unique fixnum key called the row id. Procedure database-last-row-id returns the row id of the most recent successful insert into a table of database db. Inserts into WITHOUT ROWID tables are not recorded. If no successful inserts into row id tables have ever occurred for an open database, then database-last-row-id returns zero.

(database-last-changes *db*)

procedure

database-last-changes returns the number of rows modified, inserted or deleted by the most recently completed INSERT, UPDATE or DELETE statement on the database db. Executing any other type of SQL statement does not modify the value returned by database-last-changes.

(database-total-changes db)

procedure

Procedure database-total-changes returns the total number of rows inserted, modified or deleted by all INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statements completed since the database db was opened. Executing any other type of SQL statement does not affect the value returned by database-total-changes.

39.2.4 SQL statements

SQL statements are created with procedure prepare-statement. This procedure returns a statement object which encapsulates a compiled SQL query. The compiled SQL query can be executed by repeatedly calling procedure process-statement. As long as process-statement returns #f, a new result row can be extracted from the statement object with procedures such as column-count, column-name, column-type, column-value, row-names, row-types, row-values, and row-alist. As soon as process-statement returns #t, processing is complete. With procedure reset-statement, a statement object can be reset such that it can be executed again.

(sqlite-statement? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a statement object. Otherwise, predicate sqlite-statement? returns #f.

(prepare-statement db str)

procedure

To execute an SQL statement, it must first be compiled into bytecode which then gets executed, potentially multiple times, in a second step. prepare-statement compiles an SQL statement contained in string *str* for execution in database *db*. It returns a *statement* object which encapsulates the compiled query. If compilation fails, an execption is thrown.

(parameter-count stmt)

procedure

Returns the number of parameters contained in statement object *stmt*. If *stmt* contains *N* parameters, they can be referenced by the indices 1 to *N*.

(parameter-index stmt name)

procedure

Returns the index of named parameter *name* in statement object *stmt*. *name* is a string. The result is a positive fixnum if the named parameter exists, or #f if there is no parameter with name *name*.

(parameter-name *stmt idx*)

procedure

Returns the name of the named parameter at index *idx* in statement object *stmt* as a string. If such a parameter does not exist, parameter-name returns #f. *idx* is a positive fixnum.

(bind-parameter stmt idx val)

procedure

Binds parameter at index *idx* to value *val* in statement object *stmt*.

(bind-parameters stmt vals)

procedure

(bind-parameters stmt vals idx)

Binds the parameters starting at index idx to values in list vals. If idx is not given, 1 is used as a default. bind-parameters returns the tail of the list that could not be bound to parameters. idx is a positive fixnum.

(process-statement stmt)

procedure

Procedure process-statement starts or proceeds executing statement stmt. The result of the execution step is accessible via the statement object stmt and can be inspected by procedures such as column-count, column-name, column-type, column-value, row-names, row-types, row-values, and row-alist. process-statement returns #f as long as the execution is ongoing and a new resulting table row is available for inspection. When #t is returned, execution is complete.

(reset-statement stmt)

procedure

Resets the statement object *stmt* so that it can be processed another time.

(column-count stmt) procedure

column-count returns the number of columns of the result of processing statement *stmt*. If *stmt* does not yield data as a result, column-count returns 0.

(column-name *stmt idx*)

procedure

column-name returns the name of column *idx* of the result of executing statement *stmt*. *idx* is a fixnum identifying the column by its 0-based index. column-name returns #f if column *idx* does not exist.

(column-type stmt idx)

procedure

column-type returns the type of the value at column idx of the result of executing statement stmt. idx is a fixnum identifying the column by its 0-based index. column-type returns #f if column idx does not exist. Types are represented by symbols. The following types are supported:

- sqlite-integer: Values are fixnums
- sqlite-float: Values are flonums
- sqlite-text: Values are strings
- sqlite-blob: Values are bytevectors
- sqlite-null: There is no value (void is the only supported value)

(column-value stmt idx)

procedure

column-value returns the value at column *idx* of the result of executing statement *stmt*. *idx* is a fixnum identifying the column by its 0-based index. column-value returns #f if column *idx* does not exist.

(row-names stmt) procedure

Returns a list of all column names of the result of executing statement stmt.

(row-types stmt)

procedure

Returns a list of all column types of the result of executing statement *stmt*. Types are represented by symbols. The following types are supported:

- sqlite-integer: Values are fixnums
- sqlite-float: Values are flonums
- sqlite-text: Values are strings
- sqlite-blob: Values are bytevectors
- sqlite-null: There is no value (void is the only supported value)

(row-values stmt) procedure

Returns a list of all column values of the result of executing statement *stmt*.

(row-alist stmt)

Returns an association list associating column names with column values of the result of executing statement *stmt*.

40 LispKit Stack

Library (lispkit stack) provides an implementation for mutable stacks, i.e. mutable LIFO buffers.

(make-stack)

procedure

Returns a new empty stack.

(stack *x* ...)

procedure

Returns a new stack with x on its top position followed by the remaining parameters.

```
(stack-top (stack 1 2 3)) \Rightarrow 1
```

(stack? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a stack; otherwise #f is returned.

(stack-empty? s)

procedure

Returns #t if stack s is empty.

(stack-size s)

procedure

Returns the size of stack *s*, i.e. the number of elements buffered in *s*.

(stack=? s1 s2)

procedure

Returns #t if stack s1 has the exact same elements in the same order like stack s2; otherwise, #f is returned.

(stack-push! s x)

procedure

Pushes element *x* onto stack *s*.

(stack-top s)

procedure

Returns the top element of stack s. If the stack is empty, an error is raised.

(stack-pop! s)

procedure

Removes the top element from stack *s* and returns its value.

```
(define s (make-stack))
(stack-push! s 1)
(stack-push! s 2)
(stack-pop! s) ⇒ 2
(stack-size s) ⇒ 1
```

(stack-clear! s)

procedure

Removes all elements from stack s.

(stack-copy s)

procedure

Returns a copy of stack s.

(stack->list s)

procedure

Returns a list consisting of all elements on stack *s* in the order they appear, i.e. starting with the top element.

```
(stack->list (stack 1 2 3))
```

(list->stack l)

procedure

Returns a new stack consisting of the elements of list l. The first element in l will become the top element of the stack that is returned.

(list->stack! s l)

procedure

Pushes the elements of list l onto stack s in reverse order.

```
(define s (list->stack '(3 2 1)))
(list->stack! s '(6 5 4))
(stack->list s) ⇒ (6 5 4 3 2 1)
```

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41 LispKit Stream

Streams are a sequential data structure containing elements computed only on demand. They are sometimes also called *lazy lists*.

Streams get constructed with list-like constructors. A stream is either *null* or is a *pair* with a stream in its cdr. Since elements of a stream are computed only when accessed, streams can be infinite. Once computed, the value of a stream element is cached in case it is needed again.

41.1 Benefits of using streams

When used effectively, the primary benefit of streams is improved modularity. Consider a process that takes a sequence of items, operating on each in turn. If the operation is complex, it may be useful to split it into two or more procedures in which the partially-processed sequence is an intermediate result. If that sequence is stored as a list, the entire intermediate result must reside in memory all at once; however, if the intermediate result is stored as a stream, it can be generated piecemeal, using only as much memory as required by a single item. This leads to a programming style that uses many small operators, each operating on the sequence of items as a whole, similar to a pipeline of unix commands.

In addition to improved modularity, streams permit a clear exposition of backtracking algorithms using the "stream of successes" technique, and they can be used to model generators and co-routines. The implicit memoization of streams makes them useful for building persistent data structures, and the laziness of streams permits some multi-pass algorithms to be executed in a single pass. Savvy programmers use streams to enhance their programs in countless ways.

There is an obvious space/time trade-off between lists and streams; lists take more space, but streams take more time (to see why, look at all the type conversions in the implementation of the stream primitives). Streams are appropriate when the sequence is truly infinite, when the space savings are needed, or when they offer a clearer exposition of the algorithms that operate on the sequence.

41.2 Stream abstractions

The (lispkit stream) library provides two mutually-recursive abstract data types: An object of type stream is a promise that, when forced, is either stream-null or is an object of type stream-pair. An object of the stream-pair type contains a stream-car and a stream-cdr, which must be a stream. The essential feature of streams is the systematic suspensions of the recursive promises between the two data types.

The object stored in the stream-car of a stream-pair is a promise that is forced the first time the stream-car is accessed; its value is cached in case it is needed again. The object may have any type, and different stream elements may have different types. If the stream-car is never accessed, the object stored there is never evaluated. Likewise, the stream-cdr is a promise to return a stream, and is only forced on demand.

41.3 Stream API

The design of the API of library (lispkit stream) is based on Philip Bewig's SRFI 41. The implementation of the library is LispKit-specific.

stream-null object

stream-null is a stream that, when forced, is a single object, distinguishable from all other objects, that represents the null stream. stream-null is immutable and unique.

(stream? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is a stream; otherwise #f is returned.

(stream-null? obj) procedure

stream-null? is a procedure that takes an object *obj* and returns #t if the object is the distinguished null stream and #f otherwise. If object *obj* is a stream, stream-null? must force its promise in order to distinguish stream-null from stream-pair.

(stream-pair? obj) procedure

stream-pair? is a procedure that takes an object and returns #t if the object is a stream-pair constructed by stream-cons and #f otherwise. If object is a stream, stream-pair? must force its promise in order to distinguish stream-null from stream-pair.

(stream-cons obj strm) syntax

stream—cons is a special form that accepts an object *obj* and a stream *strm* and creates a newly-allocated stream containing a stream that, when forced, is a stream—pair with the object in its stream—car and the stream in its stream—cdr. stream—cons must be syntactic, not procedural, because neither object *obj* nor stream is evaluated when stream—cons is called. Since strm is not evaluated, when the stream—pair is created, it is not an error to call stream—cons with a stream that is not of type stream; however, doing so will cause an error later when the stream—cdr of the stream—pair is accessed. Once created, a stream—pair is immutable.

```
(define s (stream-cons 1 (stream-cons 2 (stream-cons 3 stream-null)))) (stream-car s) \Rightarrow 1 (stream-car (stream-cdr s)) \Rightarrow 2
```

(stream-car strm) procedure

stream-car is a procedure that takes a stream *strm* and returns the object stored in the stream-car of the stream. stream-car signals an error if the object passed to it is not a stream-pair. Calling stream-car causes the object stored there to be evaluated if it has not yet been; the object's value is cached in case it is needed again.

(stream-cdr strm) procedure

stream-cdr is a procedure that takes a stream *strm* and returns the stream stored in the stream-cdr of the stream. stream-cdr signals an error if the object passed to it is not a stream-pair. Calling stream-cdr does not force the promise containing the stream stored in the stream-cdr of the stream.

(stream obj ...)

stream is syntax that takes zero or more objects *obj* and creates a newly-allocated stream containing in its elements the objects, in order. Since stream is syntactic, the objects are evaluated when they are accessed, not when the stream is created. If no objects are given, as in (stream), the null stream is returned.

(stream-lambda formals expr0 expr1 ...)

syntax

stream-lambda creates a procedure that returns a stream to evaluate the body of the procedure. The last body expression to be evaluated must yield a stream. As with the regular lambda, *formals* may be a single variable name, in which case all the formal arguments are collected into a single list, or it is a list

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of variable names, which may be <code>null</code> if there are no arguments, proper if there are an exact number of arguments, or dotted, if a fixed number of arguments is to be followed by zero or more arguments collected into a list. The body <code>expr0 expr1</code> ... must contain at least one expression, and may contain internal definitions preceding any expressions to be evaluated.

(define-stream (name arg ...) expr0 expr1 ...)

syntax

define-stream creates a procedure *name* that returns a stream, and may appear anywhere a normal define may appear, including as an internal definition, and may have internal definitions of its own, including other define-streams. The defined procedure takes arguments $arg\ldots$ in the same way as stream-lambda. define-stream is syntactic sugar on stream-lambda.

(stream-let tag ((var val) ...) expr1 expr2 ...)

syntax

stream-let creates a local scope that binds each variable var to the value of its corresponding expression val. It additionally binds tag to a procedure which takes the bound variables as arguments and body as its defining expressions, binding the tag with stream-lambda. tag is in scope within body, and may be called recursively. When the expanded expression defined by the stream-let is evaluated, stream-let evaluates the expressions $expr1 expr2 \dots$ in its body in an environment containing the newly-bound variables, returning the value of the last expression evaluated, which must yield a stream.

stream-let provides syntactic sugar on stream-lambda, in the same manner as normal let provides syntactic sugar on normal lambda. However, unlike normal let, the tag is required, not optional, because unnamed stream-let is meaningless.

```
(display-stream strm)
(display-stream strm n)
(display-stream strm n sep)
(display-stream strm n sep port)
```

procedure

display-stream displays the first n elements of stream strm on port port using string as a separator string. If n is not provided, all elements are getting displayed. If sep is not provided, ", " is used as a default. If port is not provided, the current output port is used.

```
(list->stream lst)
```

list->stream takes a list of objects *lst* and returns a newly-allocated stream containing in its elements the objects in the list. Since the objects are given in a list, they are evaluated when list->stream is called, before the stream is created. If the list of objects is null, as in (list->stream '()), the null stream is returned.

```
(port->stream)
(port->stream port)
```

port->stream takes a port *port* and returns a newly-allocated stream containing in its elements the characters on the port. If the port is not given, it defaults to the current input port. The returned stream has finite length and is terminated by stream-null.

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(stream->list *strm*) (stream->list *strm* n)

procedure

stream->list takes a natural number n and a stream strm and returns a newly-allocated list containing in its elements the first n items in the stream. If the stream has less than n items, all the items in the stream will be included in the returned list. If n is not given, it defaults to infinity, which means that unless the stream is finite, stream->list will never return.

(stream-append strm ...)

procedure

stream-append returns a newly-allocated stream containing in its elements those elements contained in its argument streams strm..., in order of input. If any of the input streams is infinite, no elements of any of the succeeding input streams will appear in the output stream; thus, if x is infinite, (stream-append x y) $\equiv x$.

(stream-concat strms)

procedure

stream-concat takes a stream *strms* consisting of one or more streams and returns a newly-allocated stream containing all the elements of the input streams. If any of the streams in the input stream is infinite, any remaining streams in the input stream will never appear in the output stream.

(stream-constant obj ...)

procedure

stream-constant takes one or more objects *obj* ... and returns a newly-allocated stream containing in its elements the objects, repeating the objects in succession forever.

(stream-drop strm n)

procedure

stream-drop returns the suffix of the input stream strm that starts at the next element after the first n elements. The output stream shares structure with the input stream; thus, promises forced in one instance of the stream are also forced in the other instance of the stream. If the input stream has less than n elements, stream-drop returns the null stream.

(stream-drop-while pred? strm)

procedure

stream-drop-while returns the suffix of the input stream that starts at the first element x for which (pred? x) is #f. The output stream shares structure with the input stream.

(stream-filter pred? strm)

procedure

stream-filter returns a newly-allocated stream that contains only those elements x of the input stream for which (pred? x) is non- #f.

(stream-fold proc base strm)

procedure

stream-fold applies a binary procedure *proc* to *base* and the first element of stream *strm* to compute a new base, then applies the procedure *proc* to the new base (1st argument of *proc*) and the next element of stream (2nd argument of *proc*) to compute a succeeding base, and so on, accumulating a value that is finally returned as the value of stream-fold when the end of the stream is reached. *strm* must be finite, or stream-fold will enter an infinite loop.

See also stream-scan, which is similar to stream-fold, but useful for infinite streams. stream-fold is a left-fold; there is no corresponding right-fold, since right-fold relies on finite streams that are fully-evaluated, at which time they may as well be converted to a list.

(stream-for-each proc strm ...)

procedure

stream-for-each applies a procedure *proc* elementwise to corresponding elements of the input streams *strm* ... for its side-effects. stream-for-each stops as soon as any of its input streams is exhausted.

(stream-from first) (stream-from first delta)

procedure

stream-from creates a newly-allocated stream that contains *first* as its first element and increments each succeeding element by *delta*. If *delta* is not given it defaults to 1. *first* and *delta* may be of any numeric type. stream-from is frequently useful as a generator in stream-of expressions. See also stream-range for a similar procedure that creates finite streams.

(stream-iterate proc base)

procedure

stream-iterate creates a newly-allocated stream containing *base* in its first element and applies *proc* to each element in turn to determine the succeeding element.

(stream-length *strm*)

procedure

stream-length takes an input stream *strm* and returns the number of elements in the stream. It does not evaluate its elements. stream-length may only be used on finite streams as it enters an infinite loop with infinite streams.

(stream-map proc strm ...)

procedure

stream-map applies a procedure *proc* elementwise to corresponding elements of the input streams *strm* ..., returning a newly-allocated stream containing elements that are the results of those procedure applications. The output stream has as many elements as the minimum-length input stream, and may be infinite.

(stream-match strm-expr (pattern [fender] expr) ...)

syntax

stream-match provides the syntax of pattern-matching for streams. The input stream *strm-expr* is an expression that evaluates to a stream and is matched against a number of clauses. Each clause (pattern [fender] expr) consists of a pattern that matches a stream of a particular shape, an optional *fender* that must succeed if the pattern is to match, and an expression that is evaluated if the pattern matches.

There are four types of patterns:

- (): Matches the null stream
- (pat0 pat1 ...) : Matches a finite stream with length exactly equal to the number of pattern elements
- (pat0 pat1 ... patrest): Matches an infinite stream, or a finite stream with length at least as great as the number of pattern elements before the literal dot
- pat : Matches an entire stream. Should always appear last in the list of clauses; it's not an error to appear elsewhere, but subsequent clauses could never match

Each pattern element pati may be either:

- *An identifier*: Matches any stream element. Additionally, the value of the stream element is bound to the variable named by the identifier, which is in scope in the *fender* and expression of the corresponding clause. Each identifier in a single pattern must be unique.
- A literal underscore: Matches any stream element, but creates no bindings.

The patterns are tested in order, left-to-right, until a matching pattern is found. If *fender* is present, it must evaluate as non- #f for the match to be successful. Pattern variables are bound in the corresponding *fender* and expression. Once the matching pattern is found, the corresponding expression is evaluated and returned as the result of the match. An error is signaled if no pattern matches the input stream.

(stream-of expr rest ...)

syntax

stream-of provides the syntax of stream comprehensions, which generate streams by means of looping expressions. The result is a stream of objects of the type returned by *expr*. There are four types of clauses:

- (var in stream-expr): Loop over the elements of stream-expr, in order from the start of the stream, binding each element of the stream in turn to var. stream-from and stream-range are frequently useful as generators.
- (var is expr): Bind var to the value obtained by evaluating expr.
- (pred? expr): Include in the output stream only those elements x for which (pred? x) is non#f.

The scope of variables bound in the stream comprehension is the clauses to the right of the binding clause (but not the binding clause itself) plus the result expression. When two or more generators are present,

the loops are processed as if they are nested from left to right; i.e. the rightmost generator varies fastest. A consequence of this is that only the first generator may be infinite and all subsequent generators must be finite. If no generators are present, the result of a stream comprehension is a stream containing the result expression; thus, (stream-of 1) produces a finite stream containing only the element 1.

(stream-range first past) (stream-range first past delta)

procedure

stream-range creates a newly-allocated stream that contains *first* as its first element and increments each succeeding element by *step*. The stream is finite and ends before *past*, which is not an element of the stream. If *step* is not given it defaults to 1 if *first* is less than past and -1 otherwise. First, *past* and *step* may be of any numeric type. stream-range is frequently useful as a generator in stream-of expressions.

(stream-ref strm n)

stream-ref returns the n-th element of stream, counting from zero. An error is signaled if n is greater than or equal to the length of stream.

(stream-reverse strm) procedur

stream-reverse returns a newly-allocated stream containing the elements of the input stream strm but in reverse order. stream-reverse may only be used with finite streams; it enters an infinite loop with infinite streams. stream-reverse does not force evaluation of the elements of the stream.

(stream-scan proc base strm)

procedure

stream-scan accumulates the partial folds of an input stream *strm* into a newly-allocated output stream. The output stream is the *base* followed by (stream-fold proc base (stream-take i stream)) for each of the first i elements of stream.

(stream-take strm n) procedure

stream-take takes a non-negative integer n and a stream and returns a newly-allocated stream containing the first n elements of the input stream. If the input stream has less than n elements, so does the output stream.

(stream-take-while pred? strm)

procedure

stream-take-while takes a predicate pred? and a stream strm and returns a newly-allocated stream containing those elements x that form the maximal prefix of the input stream for which (pred? x) is non-#f.

(stream-unfold mapper pred? generator base)

procedure

stream—unfold is the fundamental recursive stream constructor. It constructs a stream by repeatedly applying *generator* to successive values of *base*, in the manner of stream—iterate, then applying *mapper* to each of the values so generated, appending each of the mapped values to the output stream as long as (pred? base) is non-#f.

(stream-unfolds proc seed)

procedure

stream-unfolds returns n newly-allocated streams containing those elements produced by successive calls to the generator proc, which takes the current seed as its argument and returns n+1 values:

```
(proc seed) ⇒ seed result0 ... resultn-1
```

where the returned seed is the input seed to the next call to the generator and *resulti* indicates how to produce the next element of the *i*-th result stream:

- (value): value is the next car of the result stream
- #f: no value produced by this iteration of the generator proc for the result stream
- (): the end of the result stream

It may require multiple calls of proc to produce the next element of any particular result stream.

(stream-zip strm ...)

procedure

stream-zip takes one or more input streams *strm* ... and returns a newly-allocated stream in which each element is a list (not a stream) of the corresponding elements of the input streams. The output stream is as long as the shortest input stream, if any of the input streams is finite, or is infinite if all the input streams are infinite.

42 LispKit String

```
• \a: alarm (U+0007)
```

- \b : backspace (U+0008)
- \t : character tabulation (U+0009)
- \n: linefeed (U+000A)
- \r : return (U+000D)
- \" : double quote (U+0022)
- \\: backslash (U+005C)
- \| : vertical line (U+007C)
- \ line-end: used for encoding multi-line string literals
- \x hex-scalar-value ; : specified character

The result is unspecified if any other character in a string occurs after a backslash.

Except for a line ending, any character outside of an escape sequence stands for itself in the string literal. A line ending which is preceded by a backslash expands to nothing and can be used to encode multi-line string literals.

```
(display "The word \"recursion\" has many meanings.") ⇒
The word "recursion" has many meanings.
(display "Another example:\ntwo lines of text.") ⇒
Another example:
two lines of text.
(display "\x03B1; is named GREEK SMALL LETTER ALPHA.") ⇒
α is named GREEK SMALL LETTER ALPHA.
```

The length of a string is the number of characters, i.e. UTF-16 code units, that it contains. This number is an exact, non-negative integer that is fixed when the string is created. The valid indexes of a string are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the string. The first character of a string has index 0, the second has index 1, and so on.

Some of the procedures that operate on strings ignore the difference between upper and lower case. The names of the versions that ignore case end with -ci (for "case insensitive").

LispKit only supports mutable strings.

42.1 Basic constructors and procedures

```
(make-string k) procedure (make-string k char)
```

The make-string procedure returns a newly allocated string of length k. If *char* is given, then all the characters of the string are initialized to *char*, otherwise the contents of the string are unspecified.

procedure

(string char ...)

Returns a newly allocated string composed of the arguments. It is analogous to procedure list.

(list->string list) procedure

Returns a newly allocated string composed of the characters contained in list.

(string-ref str k) procedure

The string-ref procedure returns character k of string str using zero-origin indexing. It is an error if k is not a valid index of string str.

(string-set! str k char)

The string-set! procedure stores *char* in element k of string str. It is an error if k is not a valid index of string str.

(string-length str) procedure

Returns the number of characters in the given string *str*.

42.2 Predicates

(string? obj)

Returns #t if obj is a string; otherwise returns #f.

(string-empty? str)

Returns #t if str is an empty string, i.e. a string of length 0. Otherwise, string-empty? returns #f.

(string=? str ...)

Returns #t if all the strings have the same length and contain exactly the same characters in the same positions; otherwise string=? returns #f.

```
(string<? str ...)
(string>? str ...)
(string>=? str ...)
```

These procedures return #t if their arguments are (respectively): monotonically increasing, monotonically decreasing, monotonically non-increasing. These predicates are transitive.

These procedures compare strings in a lexicographic fashion; i.e. string<? implements a the lexicographic ordering on strings induced by the ordering char<? on characters. If two strings differ in length but are the same up to the length of the shorter string, the shorter string would be considered to be lexicographically less than the longer string.

A pair of strings satisfies exactly one of string<?, string=?, and string>?. A pair of strings satisfies string<=? if and only if they do not satisfy string>?. A pair of strings satisfies string>=? if and only if they do not satisfy string<?.

(string-ci=?)

Returns #t if, after case-folding, all the strings have the same length and contain the same characters in the same positions; otherwise string-ci=? returns #f.

```
(string-ci<? str ...) (string-ci>? str ...) (string-ci>=? str ...)
```

These procedures compare strings in a case-insensitive fashion. The "-ci" procedures behave as if they applied string-foldcase to their arguments before invoking the corresponding procedures without "-ci".

(string-contains? str sub)

Returns #t if string str contains string sub; returns #f otherwise.

procedure

(string-prefix? str sub)

Returns #t if string str has string sub as a prefix; returns #f otherwise.

procedure

procedure

(string-suffix? str sub)

Returns #t if string *str* has string *sub* as a suffix; returns #f otherwise.

42.3 Composing and extracting strings

Many of the following procedures accept an optional *start* and *end* argument as their last two arguments. If both or one of these optional arguments are not provided, *start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of the corresponding string.

(string-contains str sub)

(string-contains str sub start)

(string-contains str sub start end)

procedure

This procedure checks whether string *sub* is contained in string *str* within the index range *start* to *end*. It returns the first index into *str* at which *sub* is fully contained within *start* and *end*. If *sub* is not contained in the substring of *str*, then #f is returned.

(substring str start end)

procedure

The substring procedure returns a newly allocated string formed from the characters of string *str* beginning with index *start* and ending with index *end*. This is equivalent to calling string-copy with the same arguments, but is provided for backward compatibility and stylistic flexibility.

(string-append str ...)

procedur

Returns a newly allocated string whose characters are the concatenation of the characters in the given strings str....

(string-concatenate *list*)

(string-concatenate list sep)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated string whose characters are the concatenation of the characters in the strings contained in *list*. *sep* is either a character or string, which, if provided, is used as a separator between two strings that get concatenated. It is an error if *list* is not a proper list containing only strings as elements.

(string-upcase *str*)

procedure

(string-downcase str)

(string-titlecase str)

(string-foldcase str)

These procedures apply the Unicode full string uppercasing, lowercasing, titlecasing, and case-folding algorithms to their argument string str and return the result as a newly allocated string. It is not guaranteed that the resulting string has the same length like str. Language-sensitive string mappings and foldings are not used.

(string-normalize-diacritics str)

procedure

Procedure string-normalize-diacritics transforms the given string *str* by normalizing diacritics and returning the result as a newly allocated string.

(string-normalize-separators str)

procedure

(string-normalize-separators str sep)

(string-normalize-separators str sep cset)

Procedure string-normalize-separators normalizes string *str* by replacing sequences of separation characters from character set *cset* with string or character *sep*. If *sep* is not provided, " " is used as a default. If *cset* is not provided, all unicode newline and whitespace characters are used as a default for *cset*. *cset* is either a string of separation characters or a character set as defined by library (lispkit char-set).

(string-encode-named-chars str) (string-encode-named-chars str required-only?)

procedure

Procedure string-encode-named-chars returns a new string, replacing characters with their corresponding named XML entity in string *str*. If parameter required-only? is set to #f, all characters with corresponding named XML entities are being replaced, otherwise only the required characters are replaced.

```
(string-encode-named-chars "<one> & two = 3")

⇒ "&LT;one&gt; &AMP; two &equals; 3"
(string-encode-named-chars "<one> & two = 3" #t)

⇒ "&lt;one&gt; &amp; two = 3"
```

(string-decode-named-chars str)

procedure

Procedure string-decode-named-chars returns a new string, replacing named XML entities with their corresponding character.

```
(string-decode-named-chars "2^{3} = 8")
⇒ "2^{3} = 8"
```

```
(string-copy str)
(string-copy str start)
(string-copy str start end)
```

procedure

Returns a newly allocated copy of the part of the given string *str* between *start* and *end*.

(string-split str sep allow-empty?)

procedure

Procedure string-split splits string *str* using the separator *sep* and returns a list of the component strings, in order. *sep* is either a string or a character. Boolean argument *allow-empty?* determines whether empty component strings are dropped. *allow-empty?* is #t by default.

```
 (string-split "name-|-street-|-zip-|-city-|-" "-|-") \Rightarrow ("name" "street" "zip" "city" "") \\ (string-split "name-|-street-|-zip-|-city-|-" "-|-" #f) \Rightarrow ("name" "street" "zip" "city")
```

(string-trim str) (string-trim str chars)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated string by removing all characters from the beginning and end of string *str* that are contained in *chars*. *chars* is either a string or it is a character set. If *chars* is not provided, whitespaces and newlines are being removed.

```
(string-pad-right str char k)
(string-pad-right str char k force-length?)
```

procedure

Procedure string-pad-right returns a newly allocated string created by padding string str at the beginning of the string with character char until it is of length k. If k is less than the length of string str, the resulting string gets truncated at length k if boolean argument force-length? is #t; otherwise, the string str gets returned as is.

```
(string-pad-left str char k)
(string-pad-left str char k force-length?)
```

procedure

Procedure string-pad-left returns a newly allocated string created by padding string str at the beginning of the string with character char until it is of length k. If k is less than the length of string str, the resulting string gets truncated at length k if boolean argument force-length? is #t; otherwise, the string str gets returned as is.

```
(string-pad-center str char k) (string-pad-center str char k force-length?)
```

procedure

Procedure string-pad-center returns a newly allocated string created by padding string str at the beginning and end with character char until it is of length k, such that str is centered in the middle. If k is less than the length of string str, the resulting string gets truncated at length k if boolean argument force-length? is #t; otherwise, the string str gets returned as is.

```
(string-pad-center "scheme" #\space 8) ⇒ " scheme "
(string-pad-center "scheme" #\x 4) ⇒ "scheme"
(string-pad-center "scheme" #\x 4 #t) ⇒ "heme"
(string-pad-center "scheme" "_" 10) ⇒ "__scheme__"
```

42.4 Manipulating strings

```
(string-replace! str sub repl)
(string-replace! str sub repl start)
(string-replace! str sub repl start end)
```

procedure

Replaces all occurences of string *sub* in string *str* between indices *start* and *end* with string *repl* and returns the number of occurences of *sub* that were replaced.

```
(string-replace-first! str sub repl)
(string-replace-first! str sub repl start)
(string-replace-first! str sub repl start end)
```

procedure

Replaces the first occurrence of string *sub* in string *str* between indices *start* and *end* with string *repl* and returns the index at which the first occurrence of *sub* was replaced.

```
(string-insert! str repl)
(string-insert! str repl start)
(string-insert! str repl start end)
```

Replaces the part of string *str* between index *start* and *end* with string *repl*. The default for *start* is 0, for *end* it is (+ (string-length str) 1).

```
(string-append! str other ...)
```

procedure

Appends the strings *other*, ... to mutable string *str* in the given order.

```
(string-copy! to at from)
(string-copy! to at from start)
(string-copy! to at from start end)
```

procedure

Copies the characters of string *from* between index *start* and *end* to string *to*, starting at index *at*. If the source and destination overlap, copying takes place as if the source is first copied into a temporary string and then into the destination. It is an error if *at* is less than zero or greater than the length of string *to*. It is also an error if (- (string-length to) at) is less than (- end start).

```
(string-fill! str fill)
(string-fill! str fill start)
(string-fill! str fill start end)
```

procedure

The string-fill! procedure stores *fill* in the elements of string *str* between index *start* and *end*. It is an error if *fill* is not a character.

42.5 Iterating over strings

(string-map proc str ...)

procedure

The string-map procedure applies procedure *proc* element-wise to the characters of the strings *str* ... and returns a string of the results, in order. If more than one string *str* is given and not all strings have the same length, string-map terminates when the shortest string runs out. It is an error if *proc* does not accept as many arguments as there are strings and returns a single character.

```
(string-map char-foldcase "AbdEgH") ⇒ "abdegh"
(string-map (lambda (c) (integer->char (+ 1 (char->integer c)))) "HAL") ⇒ "IBM"
```

(string-for-each proc str ...)

procedure

The arguments to string-for-each are like the arguments to string-map, but string-for-each calls *proc* for its side effects rather than for its values. Unlike string-map, string-for-each is guaranteed to call *proc* on the characters of the strings in order from the first character to the last. If more than one string *str* is given and not all strings have the same length, string-for-each terminates when the shortest string runs out. It is an error for *proc* to mutate any of the strings. It is an error if *proc* does not accept as many arguments as there are strings.

42.6 Converting strings

```
(string->list str)
(string->list str start)
(string->list str start end)
```

procedure

The string->list procedure returns a list of the characters of string *str* between *start* and *end* preserving the order of the characters.

42.7 Input/Output

(read-file path)

procedure

Reads the text file at *path* and stores its content in a newly allocated string which gets returned by readfile.

(write-file path str)

procedure

Writes the characters of string *str* into a new text file at *path*. write-file returns #t if the file could be written successfully; otherwise #f is returned.

43 LispKit System

43.1 File paths

Files and directories are referenced by *paths*. Paths are strings consisting of directory names separated by character '/' optionally followed by a file name (if the path refers to a file) and a path extension (sometimes also called *file name suffix*, if the path refers to a file). Paths are either *absolute*, if they start with character '/', or they are *relative* to some unspecified directory.

If a relative path is used to refer to a concrete directory or file, e.g. in the API provided by library (lispkit port), typically the path is interpreted as relative to the path as defined by the parameter object current-directory, unless specified otherwise.

current-directory

parameter object

Defines the path referring to the *current directory*. Each LispKit virtual machine has its own current directory.

source-directory syntax

Returns the directory in which the source file is located which is currently being compiled and executed. Typically, such source files are executed via procedure load.

(home-directory)

procedure

(home-directory username)

(home-directory username non-sandboxed?)

Returns the path of the home directory of the user identified via string *username*. If *username* is not given or is set to #f, the name of the current user is used as a default. The name of the current user can be retrieved via procedure current-user-name. If boolean argument *non-sandboxed?* is set to #t, homedirectory will return the Unix home directory path, even if LispKit is used in a sandboxed application such as LispPad.

```
(home-directory "objecthub") ⇒ "/Users/objecthub")
```

(system-directory *type*)

procedur

Returns a list of paths to system directories specified via symbol *type* for the current user. In most cases, a single value is returned. The following type values are supported:

- desktop: The "Desktop" folder.
- downloads: The "Downloads" folder.
- movies: The "Movies" folder.
- music: Ths "Music folder.
- pictures: The "Pictures" folder.
- documents: The "Documents" folder.
- icloud: The "Documents" folder on iCloud.
- shared-public: The "Public" folder.
- application-support: The application support directory on iOS (only accessible to the application hosting LispKit)

- application-scripts: The folder where AppleScript source code is stored (only available on macOS).
- cache: The cache directory on iOS.
- temporary: A shared temporary folder.

```
(system-directory 'documents) ⇒ ("/Users/objecthub/Documents")
(system-directory 'desktop) ⇒ ("/Users/objecthub/Desktop")
```

(path path comp ...)

procedure

Constructs a new relative file or directory path consisting of a relative (or absolute) base path *base* and a number of path components *comp* If it is not possible to coonstruct a valid path, this procedure returns #f.

```
(path "one" "two" "three.png") ⇒ "one/two/three.png"
```

(parent-path path)

procedure

Returns the parent path of *path*. The result is either a relative path if *path* is relative, or the result is an absolute path. parent-path returns #f if *path* is not a valid path.

```
(parent-path "one/two/three.png") ⇒ "one/two"
(parent-path "three.png") ⇒ "."
```

(path-components path)

procedure

Returns the individual components of a (relative or absolute) path as a list of strings. Returns #F if path is not a valid path.

```
(path-components "one/two/three.png") ⇒ ("one" "two" "three.png")
```

(file-path path)

procedure

(file-path path base)

(file-path path base resolve?)

Constructs a new absolute file or directory path consisting of a base path *base* and a relative file path *path*. Procedure file-path will also resolve symbolic links if boolean argument *resolve?* is #t. The default for *resolve?* is #f. Tilde is always resolved, if provided either in *path* or *base*.

```
(file-path "Photos/img.jpg" "/Users/mz/Desktop")

⇒ "/Users/mz/Desktop/Photos/img.jpg"
(file-path "~/Images/test.jpg")

⇒ "/Users/objecthub/Images/test.jpg"
(file-path "~/Images/test.jpg" "/random")

⇒ "/Users/objecthub/Images/test.jpg"
```

(asset-file-path name type) (asset-file-path name type dir)

procedure

Returns a new absolute file or directory path to a LispKit asset. An asset is identified via a file name, a file type, and an optional directory path dir. name, type, and dir are all strings. An asset is a file which is located directly or indirectly in one of the asset directories part of the LispKit installation. An asset has a type, which is the default path extension of the file (e.g. "png" for PNG images). If dir is provided, it is a relative path to a sub-directory within a matching asset directory.

asset-file-path constructs a relative file path in the following way (assuming there is no existing file path extension already):

dir/name.type

It then searches the asset paths in their given order for a file matching this relative file path. Once the first matching file is found, an absolute file path for this file is returned by asset-file-path. If no valid (and existing) file is found, asset-file-path returns #f.

(parent-file-path *path*)

procedure

If *path* refers to a file, then parent-file-path returns the directory in which this file is contained. If *path* refers to a directory, then parent-file-path returns the directory in which this directory is contained. The result of *parent-file-path* is always an absolute path.

(path-extension path)

procedure

Returns the path extension of *path* or #f if there is no path extension.

```
(path-extension "/foo/bar.txt") ⇒ "txt"
(path-extension "/foo/bar") ⇒ #f
```

(append-path-extension path ext opt)

procedure

Appends path extension string ext to the file path path. The extension is added no matter whether \overline{path} has an extension already or not, unless opt is set to #t, in which case extension ext is only added if there is no extension already.

(remove-path-extension path)

procedure

Removes the path extension of *path* if one exists and returns the resulting path. If no path extension exists, *path* is returned.

(file-path-root? path)

procedure

Returns #t if *path* exists and corresponds to the root of the directory hierarchy. The root is typically equivalent to "/". It is an error if *path* is not a string.

43.2 File operations

LispKit supports ways to explore the file system, test if files or directories exist, read and write files, list directory contents, get metadata about files (e.g. file sizes), etc. Most of this functionality is provided by the libraries (lispkit system) and (lispkit port).

(file-exists? filepath)

procedure

The file-exists? procedure returns #t if the named file exists at the time the procedure is called, and #f otherwise. It is an error if *filename* is not a string.

(directory-exists? dirpath)

procedure

The directory-exists? procedure returns #t if the named directory exists at the time the procedure is called, and #f otherwise. It is an error if *filename* is not a string.

(file-or-directory-exists? path)

procedure

The file-or-directory-exists? procedure returns #t if the named file or directory exists at the time the procedure is called, and #f otherwise. It is an error if *filename* is not a string.

(file-readable? path)

procedure

Returns #t if the file at path exists and is readable; returns #f otherwise.

(directory-readable? path)

procedure

Returns #t if the directory at path exists and is readable; returns #f otherwise.

(file-writable? path)

procedure

Returns #t if the file at path exists and is writable; returns #f otherwise.

(directory-writable? path)

procedure

Returns #t if the directory at path exists and is writable; returns #f otherwise.

(file-deletable? *path*)

procedure

Returns #t if the file at path exists and is deletable; returns #f otherwise.

(directory-deletable? path)

procedure

Returns #t if the file at path exists and is deletab; returns #f otherwise.

(delete-file *filepath*)

procedure

The delete-file procedure deletes the file specified by *filepath* if it exists and can be deleted. If the file does not exist or cannot be deleted, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled. It is an error if *filepath* is not a string.

(delete-directory dirpath)

procedure

The delete-directory procedure deletes the directory specified by *dirpath* if it exists and can be deleted. If the directory does not exist or cannot be deleted, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled. It is an error if *dirpath* is not a string.

(delete-file-or-directory path)

procedure

The delete-file-or-directory procedure deletes the directory or file specified by *path* if it exists and can be deleted. If *path* neither leads to a file nor a directory or the file or directory cannot be deleted, an error that satisfies file-error? is signaled. It is an error if *path* is not a string.

(copy-file filepath targetpath)

procedure

The copy-file procedure copies the file specified by *filepath* to the file specified by *targetpath*. An error satisfying file-error? is signaled if *filepath* does not lead to an existing file or if a file at *targetpath* cannot be written. It is an error if either *filepath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(copy-directory dirpath targetpath)

procedure

The copy-directory procedure copies the directory specified by *dirpath* to the directory specified by *targetpath*. An error satisfying file-error? is signaled if *dirpath* does not lead to an existing directory or if a directory at *targetpath* cannot be written. It is an error if either *dirpath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(copy-file-or-directory sourcepath targetpath)

procedure

The copy-file-or-directory procedure copies the file or directory specified by *sourcepath* to the file or directory specified by *targetpath*. An error satisfying file-error? is signaled if *sourcepath* does not lead to an existing file or directory, or if a file or directory at *targetpath* cannot be written. It is an error if either *sourcepath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(move-file filepath targetpath)

procedure

Moves the file at *filepath* to *targetpath*. This procedure fails if *filepath* does not reference an existing file, or if the file cannot be moved to *targetpath*. It is an error if either *filepath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(move-directory dirpath targetpath)

procedure

Moves the directory at dirpath to targetpath. This procedure fails if dirpath does not reference an existing

directory, or if the directory cannot be moved to *targetpath*. It is an error if either *dirpath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(move-file-or-directory sourcepath targetpath)

procedure

Moves the file or directory at *sourcepath* to *targetpath*. This procedure fails if *sourcepath* does not reference an existing file or directory, or if the file or directory cannot be moved to *targetpath*. It is an error if either *sourcepath* or *targetpath* are not strings.

(file-size filepath) procedure

Returns the size of the file specificed by *filepath* in bytes. It is an error if *filepath* is not a string or if *filepath* does not reference an existing file.

(directory-list dirpath)

procedure

Returns a list of names of files and directories contained in the directory specified by *dirpath*. It is an error if *dirpath* is not a string or if *dirpath* does not reference an existing directory.

(make-directory dirpath)

procedure

Creates a directory with path *dirpath*. If the directory exists already or if it is not possible to create a directory with path *dirpath*, make-directory fails with an error. It is an error if *dirpath* is not a string.

(open-file filepath)
(open-file filepath app)
(open-file filepath app activate)

Opens the file specified by *filepath* with the application *app. activate* is a boolean argument. If it is #t, it will make *app* the frontmost application after invoking it. If *app* is not specified, the default application for the type of the file specified by *filepath* is used. If *activate* is not specified, it is assumed it is #t. open-file returns #t if it was possible to open the file, #f otherwise. Example: (open-file "/Users/objecthub/main.swift" "TextEdit").

43.3 Network operations

(open-url url)

procedure

Opens the given url in the default browser and makes the browser the frontmost application.

(http-get url)

procedure

(http-get url timeout)

http-get performs an http get request for the given URL. timeout is a floating point number defining the time in seconds it should take at most for receiving a response. http-get returns two values: the HTTP header in form of an association list, and the content in form of a bytevector. It is an error if the http get request fails. Example:

43.4 Time operations

(current-second) procedure

Returns a floating-point number representing the current time on the International Atomic Time (TAI) scale. The value 0.0 represents midnight on January 1, 1970 TAI (equivalent to ten seconds before midnight UTC) and the value 1.0 represents one TAI second later. **Note:** The current implementation returns the same number like current-seconds. This is not conforming to the R7RS spec requiring TAI scale.

(current-jiffy) procedure

Returns the number of jiffies as a fixnum that have elapsed since an arbitrary epoch. A jiffy is a fraction of a second which is defined by the return value of the jiffies-per-second procedure. The starting epoch is guaranteed to be constant during a run of the program, but may vary between runs.

(jiffies-per-second) procedure

Returns a fixnum representing the number of jiffies per SI second. Here is an example for how to use jiffies-per-second:

43.5 Locales

For handling locale-specific behavior, e.g. for formatting numbers and dates, library (lispkit system) defines a framework in which

- regions/countries are identified via ISO 3166-1 Alpha 2-code strings,
- languages are identified via ISO 639-1 2-letter strings, and
- locales (i.e. combinations of regions and languages) are identified as symbols.

Library (lispkit system) provides functions for returning all available regions, languages, and locales. It also defines functions to map identifiers to human-readable names and to construct identifiers out of other identifiers.

(available-regions) procedure

Returns a list of 2-letter region code identifiers (strings) for all available regions.

(region-name ident) procedure

(region-name ident locale)

Returns the name of the region identified by the 2-letter region code string *ident* for the given locale *locale*. If *locale* is not provided, the current (system-provided) locale is used.

(available-languages) procedure

Returns a list of 2-letter language code identifiers (strings) for all available languages.

(language-name ident)

(language-name ident locale)

Returns the name of the language identified by the 2-letter language code string *ident* for the given locale *locale*. If *locale* is not provided, the current (system-configured) locale is used.

(available-locales) procedure

Returns a list of all available locale identifiers (symbols).

(available-locale? locale)

procedure

Returns #t if the symbol *locale* is identifying a locale supported by the operating system; returns #f otherwise.

(locale)

procedure

(locale lang)

(locale lang country)

If no argument is provided locale returns the current locale (symbol) which got configured by the user for the operation system. If the string argument *lang* is provided, a locale representing *lang* (and all countries for which *lang* is supported) is returned. If both *lang* and string *country* are provided, locale will return a symbol identifying the corresponding locale.

This function never fails if both *lang* and *country* are strings. It can be used for constructing locales that are not supported by the underlying operating system. This can be checked with function available—locale? .

```
(locale) ⇒ en_US
(locale "de") ⇒ de
(locale "en" "GB") ⇒ en_GB
```

(locale-region locale)

procedure

Returns the 2-letter region code string for the region targeted by the locale identifier *locale*. If *locale* does not target a region, locale-region returns #f.

(locale-language locale)

procedure

Returns the 2-letter language code string for the language targeted by the locale identifier *locale*. If *locale* does not target a language, locale-language returns #f.

(locale-currency locale)

procedure

Returns the 3-letter currency code string for the currency associated with the country targeted by *locale*. If *locale* does not target a country, locale-currency returns #f.

43.6 Execution environment

(get-environment-variable name)

procedure

Many operating systems provide each running process with an environment consisting of *environment variables*. Both the name and value of an environment variable are represented as strings. The procedure get-environment-variable returns the value of the environment variable *name*, or #f if the named environment variable is not found.

```
(get-environment-variable "PATH") ⇒ "/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/bin"
```

(get-environment-variables)

procedure

Returns the names and values of all the environment variables as an association list, where the car of each entry is the name of an environment variable and the cdr is its value, both as strings. Example: (("USER" . "root") ("HOME" . "/")).

(command-line)

procedure

Returns the command line passed to the process as a list of strings. The first string corresponds to the command name.

(features)

procedure

Returns a list of the feature identifiers which cond-expand treats as true. Here is an example of what

features might return: (modules x86-64 lispkit macosx syntax-rules complex 64bit macos little-endian dynamic-loading ratios r7rs). LispKit supports at least the following feature identifiers:

- lispkit
- r7rs
- ratios
- complex
- syntax-rules
- little-endian
- big-endian
- dynamic-loading
- modules
- 32bit
- 64bit
- macos
- macosx
- ios
- linux
- i386
- x86-64
- arm64
- arm

(implementation-name)

procedure

Returns the name of the Scheme implementation. For LispKit, this function returns the string "LispKit".

(implementation-version)

procedure

Returns the version of the Scheme implementation as a string.

(cpu-architecture)

procedure

Returns the CPU architecture on which this Scheme implementation is executing as a string.

(machine-name)

procedure

Returns a name for the particular machine on which the Scheme implementation is currently running.

(machine-model)

procedure

Returns an identifier for the machine on which the Scheme implementation is currently running.

(os-type)

procedure

Returns the type of the operating system on which the Scheme implementation is running as a string. For macOS, this procedure returns "Darwin".

(os-name)

procedure

Returns the name of the operating system on which the Scheme implementation is running as a string. For macOS, this procedure returns "macOS".

(os-version)

procedure

Returns the build number of the operating system on which the Scheme implementation is running as a string. For macOS 10.14.1, this procedure returns "18B75".

(os-release)

procedure

Returns the (major) release version of the operating system on which the Scheme implementation is running as a string. For macOS 10.14.1, this procedure returns "10.14".

(current-user-name)

procedure

Returns the username of the user running the Scheme implementation as a string.

(user-data username)

procedure

Returns information about the user specified via *username* in form of a list. The list provides the following information in the given order:

- 1. User id (fixnum)
- 2. Group id (fixnum)
- 3. Username (string)
- 4. Full name (string)
- 5. Home directory (string)
- 6. Default shell (string)

Here is an example showing the result for invocation (user-data "objecthub"): (501 20 "objecthub" "Max Mustermann" "/Users/objecthub/" "/bin/bash").

44 LispKit System OS

Library (lispkit system os) currently defines a single procedure system-call for invoking external binaries as a sub-process of the LispKit interpreter. This library is operating system specific and requires careful usage in portable code.

```
(system-call path args)
(system-call path args env)
(system-call path args env port)
(system-call path args env port input)
```

Executes the binary at *path* passing the string representation of the elements of list *args* as command-line arguments. *env* is an association list defining environment variables. Both keys and values are strings. The output generated by executing the binary is directed towards *port*, which is a textual output port. The default for *port* corresponds to current-output-port, a parameter object defined by library (lispkit port). Providing #f as *port* will send the output to /dev/null. *input* is an optional string which can be used to pipe data into the binary as input. The current implementation is not able to handle interactive binaries. system-call returns the result code for executing the binary (0 refers to a regular exit).

45 LispKit Test

Library (lispkit test) provides an API for writing unit tests. The API is largely compatible to similar APIs that are bundled with popular Scheme interpreters and compilers.

45.1 Test groups

Tests are bundled in *test groups*. A test group contains actual *tests* comparing acual with expected values and *nested test groups*. Test groups may be given a *name* which is used for reporting on the testing progress and displaying aggregate test results for each test group.

The following code snippet illustrates how test groups are typically structured:

```
(test-begin "Test group example")
(test "Sum of first 10 integers" 45 (apply + (iota 10)))
(test 64 (gcd 1024 192))
(test-approx 1.414 (sqrt 2.0))
(test-end)
```

This code creates a test group with name Test group example. The test group defines three tests, one verifying the result of (apply + (iota 10)), one testing gcd and one testing sqrt. When executed, the following output is shown:

```
PASS] Sum of first 10 integers
[PASS] (gcd 1024 192)
[FAIL] (sqrt 2.0): expected 1.414 but received 1.414213562373095

Basic unit tests
3 tests completed in 0.001 seconds
2 (66.66%) tests passed
1 (33.33%) tests failed
```

Procedure test-begin opens a new test group. It is optionally given a test group name. Anonymous test groups (without name) are supported, but not encouraged as they make it more difficult to understand the testing output.

Special forms such as test and test-approx are used to compare expected values with actual result values. Expected values always preced the actual values. Tests might also be given a name, which is used instead of the expression to test in the test report. test, test-approx, etc. need to be called in the context of a test group, otherwise the syntactical forms will fail. This is different from other similar libraries which often have an anonymous top-level test group implicitly.

Here is the structure of a more complicated testing setup which has a top-level test group Library tests and two nested test groups Functionality A and Functionality B.

```
(test-begin "Library tests")
  (test-begin "Functionality A")
  (test ...)
  ...
  (test-end)
  (test-begin "Functionality B")
  ...
  (test-end)
(test-end)
```

The syntactic form test-group can be used to write small test groups more concisely. This code defines the same test group as above using test-group:

```
(test-group "Library tests"
  (test-group "Functionality A"
      (test ...)
      ...)
  (test-group "Functionality B"
      (test ...)
      ...))
```

45.2 Defining test groups

```
(test-begin)
(test-begin name)
```

A new test group is opened via procedure test-begin . *name* defines a name for the test group. The name is primarily used in the test report to refer to the test group.

```
(test-end) [procedure] (test-end name)
```

The currently open test group gets closed by calling procedure test-end. Optionally, for documentation and validation purposes, it is possible to provide *name*. If explicitly given, it has to match the name of the corresponding test-begin call in terms of equal? . When test-end is called, a summary gets printed listing stats such as passed/failed tests, the time it took to execute the tests in the group, etc.

```
(test-exit) (text-exit obj)
```

This procedure should be placed at the top-level of a test script. It raises an error if it is placed in the context of an open test group. If *obj* is provided and failures were encountered in the previously closed top-level test group, test-exit will exit the evaluation of the code by invoking (exit obj).

```
(test-group name body ...) syntax
```

test-group is a syntactical shortcut for opening and closing a new named test group. It is equivalent to:

```
(begin
  (test-begin name)
body ...
  (test-end))
```

(test-group-failed-tests)

procedure

Returns the number of failed tests in the innermost active test group.

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(test-group-passed-tests)

Returns the number of passed tests in the innermost active test group.

procedure

(failed-tests)

Returns the number of failed tests in all currently active test group.

procedure

procedure

(passed-tests)

Returns the number of passed tests in all currently active test group.

45.3 Comparing actual with expected values

(test exp tst) (test name exp tst)

syntax

Main syntax for comparing the result of evaluating expression *tst* with the expected value *exp*. The procedure stored in parameter object *current-test-comparator* is used to compare the actual value with the expected value. *name* is supposed to be a string and used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead. test catches errors and prints informative failure messages, including the name, what was expected and what was computed. test is a convenience wrapper around test-equal that catches common mistakes.

(test-equal exp tst) (test-equal name exp tst) (test-equal name exp tst eq)

syntax

Compares the result of evaluating expression *tst* with the expected value *exp*. The procedure *eq* is used to compare the actual value with the expected value *exp*. If *eq* is not provided, the procedure stored in parameter object *current-test-comparator* is used as a default. *name* is supposed to be a string and it is used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead. test-equal catches errors and prints informative failure messages, including the name, what was expected and what was computed.

(test-assert tst) (test-assert name tst)

syntax

test-assert asserts that the test expression *tst* is not false. It is a convenience wrapper around test-equal. *name* is supposed to be a string. It is used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead.

(test-error tst) (test-error name tst)

syntax

test-error asserts that the test expression *tst* fails by raising an error. *name* is supposed to be a string. It is used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead.

(test-approx exp tst) (test-approx name exp tst)

syntax

Compares the result of evaluating expression *tst* with the expected floating-point value *exp*. The procedure approx-equal? is used to compare the actual value with the expected flonum value *exp*. approx-equal? uses the parameter object current-test-epsilon to determine the precision of the comparison (the default is 0.0000001). *name* is supposed to be a string. It is used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead. test-approx catches errors and prints informative failure messages, including the name, what was expected and what was computed.

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(test-not tst)
(test-not name tst)

syntax

test-not asserts that the test expression *tst* is false. It is a convenience wrapper around test-equal. *name* is supposed to be a string. It is used to report success and failure of the test. If not provided, the output of (display tst) is used as a name instead.

(test-values exp tst)

syntax

(test-values name exp tst)

Compares the result of evaluating expression *tst* with the expected values *exp. exp* should be of the form (values x ...) . As opposed to test and test-equal, test-values works for multiple return values in a portable fashion. The procedure stored in parameter object *current-test-comparator* is used as a comparison procedure. *name* is expected to be a string.

45.4 Test utilities

current-test-comparator

parameter object

Parameter object referring to the default comparison procedure for test and the test-* syntactical forms. By default, current-test-comparator refers to equal? .

current-test-epsilon

parameter object

Maximum difference allowed for inexact comparisons via procedure approx-equal? . By default, this parameter object is set to 0.0000001.

(approx-equal? xy)

procedure

(approx-equal? x y epsilon)

Compares numerical value x with numerical value y and returns #t if x and y are approximately true. They are approximately true if x and y differ at most by *epsilon*. If *epsilon* is not provided, the value of parameter object current-test-epsilon is used as a default.

(write-to-string obj)

procedure

Writes value obj into a new string using procedure write, unless *obj* is a pair, in which case write-to-string interprets it as a Scheme expression and uses shortcut syntax for special forms such as quote, quasiquote, etc. This procedure is used to convert expressions into names of tests.

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46 LispKit Text-Table

Library (lispkit text-table) provides an API for creating tables of textual content. The library supports column and cell-based text alignment, allows for multi-line rows, and supports different types of row separators.

46.1 Overview

A text table consists of one header row followed by text and separator rows. As part of the header row, it is possible to specify the respective column titles, the text alignment of the header cell, the default text alignment of the corresponding column and a minimum and maximum size of the column (in terms of characters).

Text table rows specify string values for each column. Optionally, it is possible to define a text alignment for each cell that overrides the default column alignment.

The following example shows how text tables are created:

```
(define tt (make-text-table
             '(("ID" center right)
               ("Name" center left)
               ("Address" center left 10 20)
               ("Approved" center center))
             double-line-sep))
(add-text-table-row! tt
  '("1"
   "Mark Smith"
   "2600 Windsor Road\nRedwood City, CA"
   "Yes"))
(add-text-table-separator! tt line-sep)
(add-text-table-row! tt
    "Emily Armstrong"
   "160 Randy Rock Way\nMountain View, CA"
(add-text-table-separator! tt line-sep)
(add-text-table-row! tt
    "Alexander Montgomery"
   "1500 Valencia Street\nSuite 100\nLos Altos, CA"
   "Yes"))
(add-text-table-separator! tt line-sep)
(add-text-table-row! tt
  '("4"
    "Myra Jones"
   "1320 Topaz Street\nPalo Alto, CA"
    "Yes"))
```

A displayable string representation can be generated via procedure text-table->string. This is what the result looks like:

ID	Name	Address	Approved
1	Mark Smith	2600 Windsor Road Redwood City, CA	Yes
2	Emily Armstrong	160 Randy Rock Way Mountain View, CA	No
3	Alexander Montgomery	1500 Valencia Street Suite 100 Los Altos, CA	Yes
4	Myra Jones	1320 Topaz Street Palo Alto, CA	Yes

46.2 API

(text-table? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is a text table object; returns #f otherwise.

(text-table-header? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a valid text table header. A text table header is a proper list of header cells, one for each column of the text table. A header cell has one of the following forms:

- "title", just specifying the column title.
- ("title" halign) where halign is an alignment specifier (i.e. either left, right, center) that declares how the title is aligned.
- ("title" halign calign) where halign and calign are alignment specifiers. halign declares how the column title is aligned, calign declares how the content in the rest of the column is aligned by default.
- ("title" halign calign min) where halign and calign are alignment specifiers and min is the minimum size of the column.
- ("title" halign calign min max) where halign and calign are alignment specifiers and min is the minimum and max the maximum size of the column.

(text-table-row? obj) procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a valid text table row. A text table row is a proper list of row cells, one for each column of the text table. A row cell has one of the following forms:

- "content", just specifying the content of the cell.
- ("content" align) where align is an alignment specifier (i.e. either left, right, center) that declares how the content in the row cell is aligned.

(make-text-table headers) (make-text-table headers sep) (make-text-table headers sep edges) procedure

Returns a new text table with the given header row. *headers* is a valid text table header, *sep* is a separator between header and table rows (i.e. an object for which text-table-separator? returns #t) and *edges* specifies whether the table edges are round (round-edges) or sharp (sharp-edges).

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```
(make-text-table
 '(("x" center right 3 5) ("f(x)" center right))
 double-line-sep)
```

(add-text-table-row! table row)

procedure

Adds a new row to the given text table. *row* is a valid text table row, i.e. it is a proper list of row cells, one for each column of the text table. A row cell is either a string or a list with two elements, a string and an alignment specifier (i.e. either left, right, center) which declares how the content in the row cell is aligned.

(add-text-table-separator! *table*) (add-text-table-separator! *table sep*)

procedure

Adds a new row separator to the given table. sep is a separator, i.e. it is either <code>space-sep</code>, <code>line-sep</code>, <code>double-line-sep</code>, <code>bold-line-sep</code>, <code>dashed-line-sep</code>, or <code>bold-dashed-line-sep</code>. The default for sep is <code>line-sep</code>.

(alignment-specifier? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a valid alignment specifier. Supported alignment specifiers are left, right, and center.

left object

right

center

Corresponds to one of the three supported alignment specifiers for text tables.

(text-table-edges? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a valid text table edges specifier. Supported edges specifiers are no-edges, round-edges, and sharp-edges.

no-edges

object

round-edges

sharp-edges

Corresponds to one of the three supported edges specifiers for text tables.

(text-table-separator? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a valid text table separator. Supported separators are no-sep, space-sep, line-sep, double-line-sep, bold-line-sep, dashed-line-sep, bold-dashed-line-sep.

no-sep

object

space-sep

line-sep

double-line-sep

bold-line-sep

dashed-line-sep

bold-dashed-line-sep

Corresponds to one of the seven supported text table separators.

(text-table->string table)

procedure

(text-table->string table border)

Returns the given text table as a string that can be displayed. *border* is a boolean argument specifying whether a border is printed around the table.

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47 LispKit Type

Library (lispkit type) provides a simple, lightweight type abstraction mechanism. It allows for creating new types at runtime that are disjoint from all existing types. The library provides two different types of APIs: a purely procedural API for type creation and management, as well as a declarative API. The procedural API does not have an explicit representation of types. The declarative API introduces extensible types which do have a runtime representation.

47.1 Usage of the procedural API

New types are created with function <code>make-type</code>. <code>make-type</code> accepts one argument, which is a type label. The type label is an arbitrary value that is only used for debugging purposes. Typically, symbols are used as type labels.

The following line introduces a new type for *intervals*:

(make-type 'interval) returns four functions:

- new-interval is a procedure which takes one argument, the internal representation of the interval, and returns a new object of the new interval type
- interval? is a type test predicate which accepts one argument and returns #t if the argument is of the new interval type, and #f otherwise.
- interval-ref takes one object of the new interval type and returns its internal representation. interval-ref is the inverse operation of new-interval.
- make-interval-subtype is a type generator (similar to make-type), a function that takes a type label and returns four functions representing a new subtype of the interval type.

Now it is possible to implement a constructor make-interval for intervals:

```
(define (make-interval lo hi)
  (if (and (real? lo) (real? hi) (<= lo hi))
        (new-interval (cons (inexact lo) (inexact hi)))
        (error "make-interval: illegal arguments" lo hi)))</pre>
```

make-interval first checks that the constructor arguments are valid and then calls new-interval to create a new interval object. Interval objects are represented via pairs whose *car* is the lower bound, and *cdr* is the upper bound. Nevertheless, pairs and interval objects are distinct values as the following code shows:

```
(define interval-obj (make-interval 1.0 9.5))
(define pair-obj (cons 1.0 9.5))

(interval? interval-obj) ⇒ #t
(interval? pair-obj) ⇒ #f
(equal? interval-obj pair-obj) ⇒ #f
```

The type is displayed along with the representation in the textual representation of interval objects: #in-terval:(1.0 . 9.5).

Below are a few functions for interval objects. They all use interval-ref to extract the internal representation from an interval object and then operate on the internal representation.

```
(define (interval-length interval)
  (let ((bounds (interval-ref interval)))
    (- (cdr bounds) (car bounds))))

(define (interval-empty? interval)
    (zero? (interval-length interval)))
```

The following function calls show that interval-ref fails with a type error if its argument is not an interval object.

```
(interval-length interval-obj) \Rightarrow 8.5
(interval-empty? '(1.0 . 1.0)) \Rightarrow
[error] not an instance of type interval: (1.0 . 1.0)
```

47.2 Usage of the declarative API

The procedural API provides the most flexible way to define a new type in LispKit. On the other hand, this approach comes with two problems:

- 1. a lot of boilerplate needs to be written, and
- 2. programmers need to be experienced to correctly encapsulate new data types and to provide means to extend them.

These problems are addressed by the declarative API of (lispkit type). At the core, this API defines a syntax define-type for declaring new types of data. define-type supports defining simple, encapsulated types as well as provides a means to make types extensible.

The syntax for defining a simple, non-extensible type has the following form:

```
(define-type name name?
  (( make-name x ... ) expr ... )
  name-ref
functions )
```

name is a symbol and defines the name of the new type. name? is a predicate for testing whether a given object is of type name. make-name defines a constructor which returns a value representing the data of the new type. name-ref is a function to unwrap values of type name. It is optional and normally not needed since functions can be declared such that the unwrapping happens implicitly. All functions defined via define-type take an object (usually called self) of the defined type as their first argument.

There are two forms to declare a function as part of define-type: one providing access to self directly, and one only providing access to the unwrapped data value:

```
(( name-func\ self\ y\ ...\ )\ expr\ ...\ ) provides access directly to self\ (which\ is\ a\ value\ of\ type\ name), and (( name-func\ (repr\ )\ y\ ...\ )\ expr\ ...\ ) which provides access only to the unwrapped data repr .
```

With this new syntax, type interval from the section describing the procedural API, can now be rewritten like this:

```
(define-type interval
  interval?
  ((make-interval lo hi)
    (if (and (real? lo) (real? hi) (<= lo hi))
        (cons (inexact lo) (inexact hi))
        (error "make-interval: illegal arguments" lo hi)))
  ((interval-length (bounds))
    (- (cdr bounds) (car bounds)))
  ((interval-empty? self)
    (zero? (interval-length self))))</pre>
```

interval is a standalone type which cannot be extended. define-type provides a simple means to make types extensible such that subtypes can be created reusing the base type definition. This is done with a small variation of the define-type syntax:

```
(define-type (name super) name?
  (( make-name x ... ) expr ... )
  name-ref
functions )
```

In this syntax, *super* refers to the type extended by *name*. All extensible types extend another extensible type and there is one supertype called object provided by library (lispkit type) as a primitive.

With this syntactic facility, interval can be easily re-defined to be extensible:

```
(define-type (interval object)
  interval?
  ((make-interval lo hi)
    (if (and (real? lo) (real? hi) (<= lo hi))
        (cons (inexact lo) (inexact hi))
        (error "make-interval: illegal arguments" lo hi)))
  ((interval-length (bounds))
    (- (cdr bounds) (car bounds)))
  ((interval-empty? self)
    (zero? (interval-length self))))</pre>
```

It is now possible to define a tagged-interval data structure which inherits all functions from interval and encapsulates a tag with the interval:

```
(define-type (tagged-interval interval)
  tagged-interval?
  ((make-tagged-interval lo hi tag)
     (values lo hi tag))
  ((interval-tag (bounds tag))
  tag))
```

tagged-interval is a subtype of interval; i.e. values of type tagged-interval are also considered to be of type interval. Thus, tagged-interval inherits all function definitions from interval and defines a new function interval-tag just for tagged-interval values. Here is some code explaining the usage of tagged-interval:

```
(define ti (make-tagged-interval 4.0 9.0 'inclusive))
(tagged-interval? ti) ⇒ #t
(interval? ti) ⇒ #t
(interval-length ti) ⇒ 5.0
(interval-tag ti) ⇒ inclusive
(interval-tag interval-obj) ⇒ [error] not an instance of type tagged-interval: #interval:((1.0 ↔ . 9.5))
```

Constructors of extended types, such as make-tagged-interval return multiple values: all the parameters for a super-constructor call and one additional value (the last value) representing the data provided by the extended type. In the example above, make-tagged-interval returns three values: lo, hi, and tag. After the constructor make-tagged-interval is called, the super-constructor is invoked with arguments lo and hi. The result of make-tagged-interval is a tagged-interval object consisting of two state values contained in a list: one for the supertype interval (consisting of the bounds (lo hi)) and one for the subtype tagged-interval (consisting of the tag). This can also be seen when displaying a tagged-interval value:

```
ti ⇒ #tagged-interval:((4.0 . 9.0) inclusive)
```

This is also the reason why function interval-tag gets access to two unwrapped values, bounds and tag: one (bounds) corresponds to the value associated with type interval, and the other one (tag) corresponds to the value associated with type tagged-interval.

47.3 API

(make-type type-label)

procedure

Creates a new, unique type, and returns four procedures dealing with this new type:

- 1. The first procedure takes one argument returning a new object of the new type wrapping the argument
- 2. The second procedure is a type test predicate which accepts one argument and returns #t if the argument is of the new type, and #f otherwise.
- 3. The third procedure takes one object of the new type and returns its internal representation (what was passed to the first procedure).
- 4. The fourth procedure is a type generator (similar to make-type), a function that takes a type label and returns four functions representing a new subtype of the new type.

type-label is only used for debugging purposes. It is shown when an object's textual representation is used. In particular, calling the third procedure (the type de-referencing function) will result in an error message exposing the type label if the argument is of a different type than expected.

```
(define-type name name? ((make-name x ...) e ...) func ...) (define-type name name? ((make-name x ...) e ...) ref func ...)
```

Defines a new standalone type *name* consisting of a type test predicate *name*?, a constructor *make-name*, and an optional function *ref* used to unwrap values of type *name*. *ref* is optional and normally not needed since functions *func* can be declared such that the unwrapping happens implicitly. All functions *func* defined via define-type take an object (usually called self) of the defined type as their first argument.

There are two ways to declare a function as part of define-type: one providing access to self directly, and one only providing access to the unwrapped data value:

- ((name-func self y ...) expr ...) provides access directly to self (which is a value of type name), and
- ((name-func (repr) $y \dots$) $expr \dots$) provides access only to the unwrapped data repr.

```
(define-type (name super) name? ((make-name x ...) e ...) func ...) (define-type (name super) name? ((make-name x ...) e ...) ref func ...)
```

This variant of define-type defines a new extensible type *name* extending supertype *super*, which also needs to be an extensible type. A new extensible type *name* comes with a type test predicate *name*?, a constructor *make-name*, and an optional function *ref* used to unwrap values of type *name*. *ref* is optional

and normally not needed since functions *func* can be declared such that the unwrapping happens implicitly. All functions *func* defined via define-type take an object (usually called self) of the defined type as their first argument.

There are two ways to declare a function as part of define-type: one providing access to self directly, and one providing access to the unwrapped data values (one for each type in the supertype chain):

- ((name-func self y ...) expr ...) provides access directly to self (which is a value of type name), and
- ((name-func (repr...) y...) expr...) provides access only to the unwrapped data values repr

Constructors of extended types return multiple values: all the parameters for a super-constructor call and one additional value (the last value) representing the data provided by the extended type.

object value

The supertype of all extensible types defined via define-type.

(extensible-type? obj) procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a value representing an extensible type. For instance, (extensible-type? object) returns #t.

48 LispKit Vector

Vectors are heterogeneous data structures whose elements are indexed by a range of integers. A vector typically occupies less space than a list of the same length, and a randomly chosen element can be accessed in constant time vs. linear time for lists.

The *length* of a vector is the number of elements that it contains. This number is a non-negative integer that is fixed when the vector is created. The valid indexes of a vector are the exact, non-negative integers less than the length of the vector. The first element in a vector is indexed by zero, and the last element is indexed by one less than the length of the vector.

Two vectors are equal? if they have the same length, and if the values in corresponding slots of the vectors are equal? .

A vector can be *mutable* or *immutable*. Trying to change the state of an *immutable vector*, e.g. via vector-set! will result in an error being raised.

Vectors are written using the notation $\#(obj \ldots)$. For example, a vector of length 3 containing the number zero in element 0, the list (1 2 3 4) in element 1, and the string "Lisp" in element 2 can be written as follows: #(0 (1 2 3 4) "Lisp").

Vector constants are self-evaluating, so they do not need to be quoted in programs. Vector constants, i.e. vectors created with a vector literal, are *immutable*.

LispKit also supports *growable vectors* via library (lispkit gvector). As opposed to regular vectors, a growable vector does not have a fixed size and supports adding and removing elements. While a growable vector does not satisfay the vector? predicate, this library also accepts growable vectors as parameters whenever a vector is expected. Use predicate mutable-vector? for determining whether a vector is either a regular mutable vector or a growable vector.

48.1 Predicates

(vector? obj)

Returns #t if *obj* is a regular vector; otherwise returns #f. This function returns #f for growable vectors; see library (lispkit gvector).

(mutable-vector? obj)

Returns #t if *obj* is either a mutable regular vector or a growable vector (see library (lispkit gvector)); otherwise returns #f.

(immutable-vector? obj) procedure

Returns #t if obj is an immutable vector; otherwise returns #f.

(vector= eql vector ...)

Procedure vector= is a generic comparator for vectors. Vectors a and b are considered equal by vector= if their lengths are the same, and for each respective elements ai and bi, (eql ai bi) evaluates to true. eql is always applied to two arguments.

If there are only zero or one vector argument, #t is automatically returned. The dynamic order in which comparisons of elements and of vectors are performed is unspecified.

```
(vector= eq? #(a b c d) #(a b c d)) ⇒ #t
(vector= eq? #(a b c d) #(a b d c)) ⇒ #f
(vector= = #(1 2 3 4 5) #(1 2 3 4)) ⇒ #f
(vector= = #(1 2 3 4) #(1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0)) ⇒ #t
(vector= eq?) ⇒ #t
(vector= eq? '#(a)) ⇒ #t
```

48.2 Constructors

```
(make-vector k) (make-vector k fill)
```

Returns a newly allocated vector of k elements. If a second argument is given, then each element is initialized to *fill*. Otherwise the initial contents of each element is unspecified.

```
(vector obj ...)
```

Returns a newly allocated mutable vector whose elements contain the given arguments. It is analogous to list.

```
(vector 'a 'b 'c) ⇒ #(a b c)
```

(immutable-vector obj ...)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated immutable vector whose elements contain the given arguments in the given order.

(list->vector list) procedure

The list->vector procedure returns a newly created mutable vector initialized to the elements of the list *list* in the order of the list.

```
(list->vector '(a b c)) \Rightarrow #(a b c)
```

(list->immutable-vector list)

procedure

The list->vector procedure returns a newly created immutable vector initialized to the elements of the list *list* in the order of the list.

```
(string->vector str)
(string->vector str start)
(string->vector str start end)
```

The string->vector procedure returns a newly created mutable vector initialized to the elements of the string *str* between *start* and *end* (i.e. including all characters from index *start* to index *end*-1).

```
(string->vector "ABC") \Rightarrow #(#\A #\B #\C)
```

(vector-copy vector)

procedure

(vector-copy vector mutable)

(vector-copy vector start)

(vector-copy vector start end)

(vector-copy vector start end mutable)

Returns a newly allocated copy of the elements of the given vector between *start* and *end*, but excluding the element at index *end*. The elements of the new vector are the same (in the sense of eqv?) as the elements of the old.

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mutable is a boolean argument. If it is set to #f, an immutable copy of *vector* will be created. The type of the second argument of vector-copy is used to disambiguate between the second and third version of the function. An exact integer will always be interpreted as *start*, a boolean value will always be interpreted as *mutable*.

(vector-append vector ...)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable vector whose elements are the concatenation of the elements of the given vectors.

```
(vector-append #(a b c) #(d e f)) \Rightarrow #(a b c d e f)
```

(vector-concatenate *vector xs*)

procedure

Returns a newly allocated mutable vector whose elements are the concatenation of the elements of the vectors in *xs*. *xs* is a proper list of vectors.

```
(vector-concatenate '(\#(a \ b \ c) \ \#(d) \ \#(e \ f))) \Rightarrow \#(a \ b \ c \ d \ e \ f)
```

(vector-map f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Constructs a new mutable vector of the shortest size of the vector arguments vector1, vector2, etc. Each element at index i of the new vector is mapped from the old vectors by (f (vector-ref vector1 i) (vector-ref vector2 i) ...). The dynamic order of the application of f is unspecified.

```
(vector-map + #(1 2 3 4 5) #(10 20 30 40)) \Rightarrow #(11 22 33 44)
```

(vector-map/index f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedur

Constructs a new mutable vector of the shortest size of the vector arguments vector1, vector2, etc. Each element at index i of the new vector is mapped from the old vectors by (f i (vector-ref vector1 i) (vector-ref vector2 i) ...). The dynamic order of the application of f is unspecified.

```
(vector-map/index (lambda (i x y) (cons i (+ x y))) #(1 2 3) #(10 20 30))

⇒ #((0 . 11) (1 . 22) (2 . 33))
```

(vector-sort *pred vector*)

procedure

(vector-sort pred vector start)

(vector-sort pred vector start end)

Procedure vector-sort returns a new vector containing the elements of *vector* in sorted order using *pred* as the "less than" predicate. If *start* and *end* are given, they indicate the sub-vector that should be sorted.

```
(vector-sort < (vector 7 4 9 1 2 8 5))

⇒ #(1 2 4 5 7 8 9)
```

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48.3 Iterating over vectors

(vector-for-each f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

vector-for-each implements a simple vector iterator: it applies f to the corresponding list of parallel elements from $vector1\ vector2\ ...$ in the range [0], length, where length is the length of the smallest vector argument passed. In contrast with vector-map, f is reliably applied to each subsequent element, starting at index 0, in the vectors.

(vector-for-each/index f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

vector-for-each/index implements a simple vector iterator: it applies f to the index i and the corresponding list of parallel elements from vector1 vector2 ... in the range [0], length, where length is the length of the smallest vector argument passed. The only difference to vector-for-each is that vector-for-each always passes the current index as the first argument of f in addition to the elements from the vectors vector1 vector2

```
(vector-for-each/index
  (lambda (i x) (display i)(display ": ")(display x)(newline))
  #("foo" "bar" "baz" "quux" "zot"))

⇒
0: foo
1: bar
2: baz
3: quux
4: zot
```

48.4 Managing vector state

(vector-length vector)

procedure

Returns the number of elements in vector as an exact integer.

(vector-ref *vector k*)

procedure

The vector-ref procedure returns the contents of element k of vector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of vector.

```
(vector-ref '#(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) 5) \Rightarrow 8 (vector-ref '#(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) (exact (round (* 2 (acos -1))))) \Rightarrow 13
```

(vector-set! *vector k obj*)

procedure

The vector-set! procedure stores obj in element k of vector. It is an error if k is not a valid index of vector.

```
(let ((vec (vector 0 '(2 2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (vector-set! vec 1 '("Sue" "Sue"))
  vec)
```

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(vector-swap! *vector j k*)

procedure

procedure

The vector-swap! procedure swaps the element j of vector with the element k of vector.

48.5 Destructive vector operations

Procedures which operate only on a part of a vector specify the applicable range in terms of an index interval [start; end[; i.e. the end index is always exclusive.

```
(vector-copy! to at from)
(vector-copy! to at from start)
(vector-copy! to at from start end)
```

Copies the elements of vector *from* between *start* and *end* to vector *to*, starting at *at*. The order in which elements are copied is unspecified, except that if the source and destination overlap, copying takes place as if the source is first copied into a temporary vector and then into the destination. *start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of *vector*.

It is an error if at is less than zero or greater than the length of to. It is also an error if (- (vector-length to) at) is less than (- end start).

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4 5))
(define b (vector 10 20 30 40 50)) (vector-copy! b 1 a 0 2)
b ⇒ #(10 1 2 40 50)
```

```
(vector-fill! vector fill)

(vector-fill! vector fill start)

(vector-fill! vector fill start end)
```

The vector-fill! procedure stores *fill* in the elements of *vector* between *start* and *end*. *start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of *vector*.

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4 5))
(vector-fill! a 'smash 2 4)
a ⇒ #(1 2 smash smash 5)
```

```
(vector-reverse! vector)

(vector-reverse! vector start)

(vector-reverse! vector start end)
```

Procedure vector-reverse! destructively reverses the contents of *vector* between *start* and *end*. *start* defaults to 0 and *end* defaults to the length of *vector*.

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4 5))
(vector-reverse! a)
a ⇒ #(5 4 3 2 1)
```

```
(vector-sort! pred vector)
(vector-sort! pred vector start)
(vector-sort! pred vector start end)
```

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Procedure vector-sort! destructively sorts the elements of *vector* using the "less than" predicate *pred* between the indices *start* and *end*. Default for *start* is 0, for *end* it is the length of the vector.

```
(define a (vector 7 4 9 1 2 8 5))
(vector-sort! < a)
a ⇒ #(1 2 4 5 7 8 9)</pre>
```

(vector-map! f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Similar to vector-map which maps the various elements into a new vector via function f, procedure vector-map! destructively inserts the mapped elements into vector1. The dynamic order in which f gets applied to the elements is unspecified.

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4))
(vector-map! + a #(10 20 30))
a ⇒ #(11 22 33 4)
```

(vector-map/index! f vector1 vector2 ...)

procedure

Similar to vector-map/index which maps the various elements together with their index into a new vector via function f, procedure vector-map/index! destructively inserts the mapped elements into vector1. The dynamic order in which f gets applied to the elements is unspecified.

```
(define a (vector 1 2 3 4))
(vector-map/index! (lambda (i x y) (cons i (+ x y))) a #(10 20 30))
a ⇒ #((0 . 11) (1 . 22) (2 . 33) 4)
```

48.6 Converting vectors

```
(vector->list vector)
(vector->list vector start)
(vector->list vector start end)
```

The vector->list procedure returns a newly allocated list of the objects contained in the elements of *vector* between *start* and *end* in the same order line in *vector*.

```
(vector->list '#(dah dah didah)) ⇒ (dah dah didah)
(vector->list '#(dah dah didah) 1 2) ⇒ (dah)
```

```
(vector->string vector)

(vector->string vector start)

(vector->string vector start end)
```

The vector->string procedure returns a newly allocated string of the objects contained in the elements of *vector* between *start* and *end*. This procedure preserves the order of the characters. It is an error if any element of vector between *start* and *end* is not a character.

```
(vector->string #(#\1 #\2 #\3) ⇒ "123"
```

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49 LispPad AppleScript

Library (lisppad applescript) exports procedures for invoking *Automator workflows* and *AppleScript* scripts and subroutines from Scheme code. Since LispPad runs in a sandbox and scripts and subroutines are executed outside of the sandbox, this will enable direct integrations with other macOS applications supporting AppleScript or Automator such as Mail, Safari, Music, etc.

49.1 Script authorization

The script authorization mechanism of macOS is unfortunately a bit cumbersome, requiring the installation of the *Automator* and *AppleScript* files in a particular directory specifically for LispPad. (system-directory 'application-scripts) returns a list of directories in which scripts are accessible by Lisp-Pad. This includes typically the directory:

```
/Users/username/Library/Application Scripts/net.objecthub.LispPad
```

This directory can be opened on macOS's Finder via:

```
(open-file (car (system-directory 'application-scripts)))
```

Scripts need to be copied to this directory.

49.2 Script integration

As an example, the following script defines two AppleScript subroutines safariFrontURL and setSafariFrontURL. The AppleScript code also displays an error if the script is run overall as its only role is to make subroutines accessible to LispPad. Such scripts are written using Apple's *Script Editor* application and need to be stored in a directory accessible by LispPad as explained above.

```
on safariFrontURL()
tell application "Safari" to return URL of front document
end safariFrontURL

on setSafariFrontURL(newUrl)
tell application "Safari" to set URL of front document to newUrl
end setSafariFrontURL

on run
display alert "Do not run this script. It provides AppleScript sub-routines to LispPad."
end run
```

Assuming that the script was saved in a file at path:

```
/Users/username/Library/Application Scripts/net.objecthub.LispPad/AccessSafari.scpt
```

it is now possible to load the script via procedure applescript into an *AppleScript* object from which the various subroutines can be accessed:

```
(import (lisppad applescript))
(define script (applescript "AccessSafari.scpt"))
```

It is possible to run the whole script via procedure execute-applescript:

```
(execute-applescript script)
```

The execution of scripts is always synchronous, so the procedure call to execute-applescript terminates only when the execution of the script terminates. When executed, the script above will always display an alert since it was not made to be executed.

It is not possible to pass parameters via execute-applescript or receive results. This can be achieved by calling subroutines with procedure apply-applescript-proc. The following code will invoke subroutine safariFrontURL from the script above and return the URL of the current frontmost Safari window:

```
(apply-applescript-proc script "safariFrontURL" '())
```

The third argument of procedure apply-applescript-proc is a list of parameters for the subroutine. The following code will set the URL of the frontmost Safari window to "http://lisppad.objecthub.net".

```
(apply-applescript-proc script "setSafariFrontURL" '("http://lisppad.objecthub.net"))
```

Library (lisppad applescript) provides a means to quickly create Scheme functions matching Apple-Script subroutines. This is shown in the following code:

```
(define safari-front-url (applescript-proc script "safariFrontURL"))
(define set-safari-front-url! (applescript-proc script "setSafariFrontURL"))
(display (safari-front-url))
(newline)
(set-safari-front-url! "http://lisppad.objecthub.net")
```

49.3 Exchanging data

This is how library (lisppad applescript) is mapping data types when exchanging data between Scheme and AppleScript:

Scheme datatype	AppleScript datatype
void	null
boolean	boolean
fixnum	int32
flonum	double
proper list	list
string	unicode text
date-time	date

If data of other data types is attempted to be exchanged, it might lead to failures or the data might get dropped or omitted.

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49.4 API

(applescript? obj)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is an AppleScript object, #f otherwise.

(applescript path)

procedure

Loads and compiles the AppleScript file at *path* returning an AppleScript object that can be used to execute the script or subroutines defined by the script.

(applescript-path script)

procedure

Returns the file path from which the AppleScript object *script* was created.

(execute-applescript script)

procedure

Executes the given AppleScript script. The execution is synchronous and execute-applescript will only return once *script* has been executed.

(apply-applescript-proc script name args)

procedure

Invokes the subroutine *name* defined by AppleScript *script* with the arguments *args*. *name* is a string, *script* is an AppleScript object, and *args* is a list of arguments passed on to the subroutine. apply-applescript-proc returns the result returned by the subroutine, i.e. the execution of the subroutine is synchronous.

(applescript-proc script name)

procedure

Returns a Scheme procedure for subroutine *name* defined in AppleScript *script*. *name* is a string and *script* is an AppleScript object. applescript-proc is defined in the following way:

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50 LispPad Location

Library (lisppad location) implements procedures for geocoding and reverse geocoding and provides representations of *locations* (latitude, longitude, altitude) and *places* (structured representation of addresses).

50.1 Locations

A *location* consists of a latitude, a longitude, and an optional altitude. Locations are represented as lists of two or three flonum values.

(location? obj)

Returns #t if the given expression obj is a valid location; returns #f otherwise.

(location latitude longitude)

(location latitude longitude altitude)

Creates a location for the given *latitude*, *longitude*, and *altitude*. This procedure fails with an error if any of the provided arguments are not flonum values.

procedure

(current-location) procedure

Returns the current device location. If a device location can't be determined, the procedure returns #f. The procedure also returns #f if the user did not authorize the device to reveal the location to LispPad.

(location-latitude loc) procedure

Returns the latitude of location loc.

Returns the longitude of location *loc*.

(location-longitude loc) procedure

(location-altitude loc)

Returns the altitude of location *loc*. Since altitudes are optional, procedure location-altitude returns #f if the altitude is undefined.

(location-distance loc1 loc2) procedure

Returns the distance between location *loc1* and location *loc2* in meters.

50.2 Places

A place is a structured representation describing a place on Earth. Its main components are address components, but a place might also provide meta-information such as the timezone of the place or the ISO country code. Library (lispkit date-time) provides more functionality to deal with such meta-data. Places are represented as lists of one to ten strings in the following order:

- 1. ISO country code
- 2. Country
- 3. Region (a part of the country; e.g. State, Bundesland, Kanton, etc.)
- 4. Administrational region (a part of the region; e.g. County, Landkreis, etc.)

- 5. Postal code
- 6. City
- 7. Locality (a part of the city; e.g. District, Stadtteil, etc.)
- 8. Street
- 9. Street number
- 10. Time zone

Note that all components are optional. An optional component is represented as #f.

(place? obj)

Returns #t if the given expression obj is a valid place; returns #f otherwise.

(place code)

(place code country)

(place code country region)

(place code country region admin)

(place code country region admin zip)

(place code country region admin zip city)

(place code country region admin zip city locality)

(place code country region admin zip city locality street)

(place code country region admin zip city locality street nr)

(place code country region admin xip city locality street nr tx)

Returns a location for the given components of a place. Each component is either #f (= undefined) or a string.

(place-country-code pl)

procedure

procedure

Returns the country code for place *pl* as a string or #f if the country code is undefined.

(place-country pl) procedure

Returns the country for place *pl* as a string or #f if the country is undefined.

(place-region pl)

Returns the region for place *pl* as a string or #f if the region is undefined.

(place-admin pl) procedure

Returns the administrational region for place pl as a string or #f if the administrational region is undefined.

(place-postal-code pl) procedure

Returns the postal code for place pl as a string or #f if the postal code is undefined.

(place-city pl) procedure

Returns the city for place *pl* as a string or #f if the city is undefined.

(place-locality pl)

Returns the locality for place *pl* as a string or #f if the locality is undefined.

(place-street pl)

Returns the street for place *pl* as a string or #f if the street is undefined.

(place-street-number pl) procedure

Returns the street number for place *pl* as a string or #f if the street number is undefined.

(place-timezone pl) procedure

Returns the timezone for place pl as a string or #f if the timezone is undefined.

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50.3 Geocoding

```
(geocode obj)
(geocode obj locale)
```

Returns a list of locations for the given place or address. *obj* is either a valid place representation or it is an address string. *locale* is a symbol representing a locale, which is used to interpret the given place or address. geocode signals an error if the geocoding operation fails (e.g. if there is no network access).

```
(geocode "Brandschenkestrasse 110, Zürich" 'de_CH)

⇒ ((47.3654121 8.5247038))
```

```
(reverse-geocode loc)
(reverse-geocode loc locale)
(reverse-geocode lat long)
(reverse-geocode lat long locale)
```

Returns a list of places for the given location. *loc* is a valid location. *lat* and *long* describe latitude and longitude as flonums directly. *locale* is a symbol representing a locale. It is used for the place representations returned by reverse-geocode.

(place->address pl)

procedure

procedure

Formats a place as an address. For this operation to succeed, it is important that the country code of the place pl is set as it is used to determine the address format.

```
(address->place str) (address->place str locale)
```

procedure

Parses the given address string *str* into a place (or potentially multiple possible places) and returns this as a list of places. *locale* is a symbol representing a locale. It is used for the place representations returned by address->place.

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51 LispPad Speech

Library (lisppad speech) provides a speech synthesis API which parses text and converts it into audible speech. The conversion is based on factors like the language, the *voice*, and a range of parameters which are all aggregated by *speaker* objects.

51.1 Speech synthesis

(speak text)
(speak text speaker)

Speaks the given string *text* using with the *speaker* object providing all speech synthesis parameters. If *speaker* is not provided, the value of parameter object current-speaker is used.

procedure

(phonemes text)
(phonemes text speaker)

Converts the given natural language string *text* into a string of phonemes using the given *speaker*. If *speaker* is not provided, the value of parameter object current-speaker is used.

Speakers can be configured to speak phonemes instead of natural language via procedure speaker-interpret-phonemes! .

51.2 Speakers

A *speaker* is an object defining speech synthesis parameters. There is a *current speaker* which is used by default, unless a speaker is explicitly specified for the various procedures that require a speaker parameter.

A speaker object has the following components:

- an immutable voice,
- a mutable speaking rate,
- a mutable speaking volume,
- a flag determining whether the speaker interprets text or phonemes,
- a flag determining how numbers are interpreted, as well as
- a speaking pitch.

current-speaker parameter object

Defines the *current speaker*, which is used as a default by all functions for which the speaker argument is optional. If there is no current speaker, this parameter is set to #f.

(speaker? obj) procedure

Returns #t if *obj* is a speaker object; otherwise #f is returned.

(make-speaker)
(make-speaker voice)

Returns a new speaker for the given *voice*. If *voice* is not provided, a default voice, specified at the operating system level, is being used. Speakers are stateful objects which can be configured with a number of procedures: set-speaker-rate!, set-speaker-volume!, set-speaker-interpret-phonemes!, set-speaker-interpret-numbers!, and set-speaker-pitch!.

(speaker-voice)

procedure

(speaker-voice *speaker*)

Returns the voice of speaker. If speaker is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(speaker-rate)

procedure

(speaker-rate speaker)

Returns the speaking rate of *speaker*. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(set-speaker-rate! rate)

procedure

(set-speaker-rate! rate speaker)

Sets the speaking rate of *speaker* to number *rate*. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(speaker-volume)

procedure

(speaker-volume speaker)

Returns the volume of *speaker* as a flonum ranging from 0.0 to 1.0. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(set-speaker-volume! *volume*)

procedure

(set-speaker-volume! volume speaker)

Sets the volume of *speaker* to number *volume* which is a flonum between 0.0 and 1.0. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(speaker-interpret-phonemes)

procedure

(speaker-interpret-phonemes speaker)

Returns #t if *speaker* interprets phonemes instead of natural language text. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(set-speaker-interpret-phonemes! phoneme?)

procedure

(set-speaker-interpret-phonemes! phoneme? speaker)

If boolean argument *phoneme?* is #f, *speaker* is configured to interpret natural language. If *phoneme?* is set to any other value, the *speaker* is interpreting phonemes instead. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(speaker-interpret-numbers)

procedure

(speaker-interpret-numbers speaker)

Returns #t if *speaker* interprets numbers as a natural language speaker would do ("100" is spoken as "hundred"). If it returns #f, *speaker* decomposes numbers into a sequence of digits and speaks them individually ("100" is spoken as "one zero zero"). If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

(set-speaker-interpret-numbers! natural?)

procedure

(set-speaker-interpret-numbers! natural? speaker)

Sets the number interpretation of *speaker* to boolean *natural?*. If *natural?* is #t *speaker* will interpret numbers as a natural language speaker would do ("100" is spoken as "hundred"). If *natural?* is #f, *speaker* decomposes numbers into a sequence of digits and speaks them individually ("100" is spoken as "one zero zero"). If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

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(speaker-pitch) (speaker-pitch speaker)

procedure

Returns the pitch of *speaker* as a pair of two flonums: the car is the base of the pitch, and the cdr is the modulation of the pitch. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

```
(set-speaker-pitch! pitch)
(set-speaker-pitch! pitch speaker)
```

procedure

Sets the pitch of *speaker* to the pair of flonums *pitch* whose car is the base of the pitch, and the cdr is the modulation of the pitch. If *speaker* is not provided, the parameter object current-speaker is used.

51.3 Voices

Voices are provided by the operating system and library (lispkit speech) does not have an explicit representation as objects. Symbols are used as identifiers for voices. For example, com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.Alex refers to the default US voice.

A voice has the following characteristics:

- Name (string)
- Age (fixnum)
- Gender (male or female)
- Locale (symbol, e.g. en_US)

Library (lispkit system) provides means to handle locales, including language and country codes.

(voice) (voice name) (voice id)

procedure

Returns a symbol identifying the voice specified by the arguments of voice. If no argument is provided, an indentifier for the default voice is returned. If a *name* string is provided, then an identifier for a voice whose name is *name* is returned, or #f if no such voice exists. If an *id* symbol is provided, then an identifier for a voice whose identifier matches *id* is returned, or #f if no such voice exists.

```
(available-voices)
(available-voices lang)
(available-voices lang gender)
```

procedure

Returns a list of symbols identifying voices matching the given language filter *lang* and gender filter *gender*. Both *lang* and *gender* are symbols. *lang* should either be a language or locale identifier. It can also be set to #f if only a gender filter is needed. *gender* should either be symbol male or female.

```
(available-voices 'en)

⇒ (com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.Alex com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.daniel

⇔ com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.fiona com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.Fred

⇔ com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.karen com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.moira

⇔ com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.rishi com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.samantha

⇔ com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.tessa com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.veena)
(available-voices (locale "en" "GB"))

⇒ (com.apple.speech.synthesis.voice.daniel)
```

(available-voice? *obj*)

procedure

Returns #t if obj is a symbol identifying an available voice, otherwise #f is returned. This procedure fails if obj is neither a symbol nor the value #f.

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(voice-name voice)

Returns the name of the voice identified by symbol voice.

(voice-age voice)

Returns the age of the voice identified by symbol voice.

(voice-gender voice)

Returns the gender of the voice identified by symbol voice.

(voice-locale voice)

Returns the locale of the voice identified by symbol voice.

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procedure

procedure

procedure

procedure

52 LispPad System

Library (lisppad system) defines an API for scripting the LispPad user interface. This library is specific to LispPad and is not bundled with LispKit.

Library (lisppad system) provides functionality primarily for managing LispPad windows: new windows can be created, properties of existing windows can be changed, and the content of existing windows can be accessed and modified. There is also support for making use of simple dialogs, e.g. for displaying messages, asking the user to make a choice, or for letting the user choose a file or directory in a load or save panel.

52.1 Windows

(lisppad system) does not provide a data structure for modeling references to LispPad windows. Instead, it uses integer ids as references. Two different types of windows can be managed:

- Edit windows are used for editing text, and
- Graphics windows are used for displaying drawings created via library (lispkit draw).

Other types of windows are currently not accessible via library (lisppad system).

(open-document *path*)

procedure

Opens a document stored in a file at path *path*. Only documents that LispPad is able to open are supported.

(edit-windows) procedure

Returns an association list containing all open edit windows. Each open window has an entry of the form (window id . window title). For example, the result of invoking (edit-windows) could look like this: ((106102873393392 . "LispKit Libraries.md") (106377751319520 . "Untitled")).

(graphics-windows) procedure

Returns an association list containing all open graphics windows. Each open window has an entry of the form (window id . window title). For example, the result of invoking (graphics-windows) could look like this: ((106102873393789 . "My Drawing") (106377751899571 . "Untitled Drawing")).

(window-name win) procedure

Returns the name of the window with window id win.

(window-position win)

procedure

Returns the position of the window with window id *win*. The position of a window is the upper left corner of its title bar represented as a point.

(set-window-position! win pos)

procedure

Sets the position of the window with window id *win* to point *pos*. The position of a window is the upper left corner of its title bar.

(window-size win) procedure

Returns the size of the window with window id win. The size of a window consists of its width and height represented as a size.

(set-window-size! win size)

procedure

Sets the size of the window with window id *win* to size *size*. The size of a window consists of its width and height.

(close-window win)

procedure

Closes the window with window id win.

52.2 Edit Windows

(make-edit-window str pos size)

procedure

Creates a new edit window containing *str* as its textual content. The window's initial position is *pos* and its size is *size*.

(edit-window-text win)

procedure

Returns the textual content of the edit window with the given window id win.

(insert-edit-window-text! win str)

procedure

(insert-edit-window-text! win str start)

(insert-edit-window-text! win str start end)

Inserts a string *str* replacing text between *start* and *end* for the edit window with window id *win*. It *start* is not provided, *start* is considered to be 0 (i.e. the text is inserted at the beginning). If *end* is not provided, it is considered to be the length of the text contained in the edit window *win*.

(edit-window-text-length win)

procedure

Returns the length of the text contained in the edit window with window id win.

52.3 Graphics Windows

(make-graphics-window drawing dsize)

procedure

(make-graphics-window drawing dsize title)

(make-graphics-window drawing dsize title pos)

(make-graphics-window drawing dsize title pos size)

Creates a new graphics window for drawing *drawing*. *dsize* refers to the size of the drawing. *title* is the window title of the new window, *pos* is its initial position, and *size* corresponds to the initial size of the graphics window.

(use-graphics-window drawing dsize title)

procedure

(use-graphics-window drawing dsize title pos)

(use-graphics-window drawing dsize title pos size)

(use-graphics-window drawing dsize title pos size ignore)

This is almost equivalent to function <code>make-graphics-window</code>. The main difference consists in <code>use-graphics-window</code> reusing an existing graphics window if there is one open with the given title. If there is no window whose title matches <code>title</code>, a new graphics window will be created. If a window exists already and boolean argument <code>ignore</code> is set to <code>#t</code>, the existing window's position and size will not be updated.

(update-graphics-window win)

procedure

This function forces the graphics window with window id *win* to redraw its content. Currently, graphics windows are only guaranteed to redraw automatically after executing a command in the session window which was used to create the drawing object.

(graphics-window-drawing win)

procedure

Returns the drawing associated with the graphics window with window id win.

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(set-graphics-window-drawing! win drawing)

procedure

Sets the drawing associated with the graphics window with window id win to drawing.

(graphics-window-label win)

procedure

Each graphics window has a label at the bottom of the window. This label can be arbitrarily modified, and e.g. used as a caption. graphics-window-label returns the label of the graphics window with window id win.

(set-graphics-window-label! win str)

procedure

Each graphics window has a label at the bottom of the window. The label of graphics window win can be set via function set-graphics-window-label! to string str.

(drawing-size win)

procedure

Returns the size of the drawing associated with graphics window win. Please note that this is not the window size of win.

(set-drawing-size! win size)

procedure

Sets the size of the drawing associated with graphics window win to size. Please note that this is not setting the window size of win.

52.4 Utilities

(screen-size)

procedure

(screen-size win)

Returns the screen size of the screen on which window win is displayed. If argument win is omitted, function screen-size will return the size of the main screen.

(show-message-panel title)

procedure

(show-message-panel title str)

(show-message-panel title str button)

Shows a message panel within the current session window. *title* refers to the panel title, *str* is the message to be displayed , and *button* is the label of the confirmation button.

(show-choice-panel title str)

procedure

(show-choice-panel title str yes)

(show-choice-panel title str yes no)

Shows a choice panel within the current session window. *title* refers to the panel title, *str* is the question to be asked, and *yes* and *no* refer to the two labels of the buttons for users to choose. The function returns #t if the user clicked on the "yes button".

(show-load-panel prompt)

procedure

(show-load-panel prompt folders)

(show-load-panel prompt folders filetypes)

Displays a load panel within the current session window together with the given *prompt* message. *folders* is a boolean argument; it should be set to #t if the user is required to select a folder. *filetypes* is a list of suffixes of selectable file types.

(show-save-panel prompt)

procedure

(show-save-panel prompt filetypes)

Displays a save panel within the current session window together with the given *prompt* message. *filetypes* is a list of suffixes of selectable file types.

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(session-id)

Returns a unique fixnum (within LispPad) identifying the session.

procedure

(session-name)

Returns the name of the LispPad session which executes this function.

procedure

procedure

(session-display obj)

(session-display obj bold?)

(session-display obj bold? col)

Displays value *obj* in the current session in color *col* and in bold if *bold?* is true.

(session-write obj)

procedure

(session-write obj bold?)

(session-write obj bold? col)

Writes the value obj into the current session in color col and in bold if bold? is true.

(session-log time sev str)

procedure

(session-log time sev str tag)

Logs the message *str* with severity *sev* at the given timestamp *time* (a double value) in the session log. *sev* is one of the following symbols: debug, info, warn, error, or fatal.

(project-directory)

Returns the path to the project directory as defined in the preferences of LispPad. project-directory returns #f if no project directory was explicitly set.

(dark-mode?)

Return #t if the session window of the LispPad session which executes this function is rendered in *dark mode*; returns #f otherwise.

(sleep sec) procedure

Sleeps for sec seconds.

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53 LispPad Turtle

This is a library implementing a simple graphics window for displaying turtle graphics. The library supports one graphics window per LispPad session which gets initialized by invoking init-turtle . init-turtle will create a new turtle and display its drawing on a graphics window. If there is already an existing graphics window with the given title, it will be reused.

Once init-turtle was called, the following functions can be used to move the turtle across the plane:

- (pen-up) : Lifts the turtle
- (pen-down) : Drops the turtle
- (pen-color color): Sets the current color of the turtle
- (pen-size size): Sets the size of the turtle pen
- (home): Moves the turtle back to the origin
- (move x y): Moves the turtle to position (x, y)
- (heading angle): Sets the angle of the turtle (in radians)
- (turn angle): Turns the turtle by the given angle (in radians)
- (left angle): Turn left by the given angle (in radians)
- (right angle): Turn right by the given angle (in radians)
- (forward distance): Moves forward by distance units drawing a line if the pen is down
- (backward distance): Moves backward by distance units drawing a line if the pen is down

This library defines a simplified, interactive version of the API provided by library (lispkit draw turtle).

(init-turtle)

(init-turtle scale)

(init-turtle scale title)

Initializes a new turtle and displays its drawing in a graphics window. init-turtle gets two optional arguments: scale and title. scale is a scaling factor which determines the size of the turtle drawing. title is a string that defines the window name of the turtle graphics. It also acts as the identify of the turtle graphics window; i.e. it won't be possible to have two sessions with the same name but a different graphics window.

(close-turtle-window)

procedure

procedure

Closes the turtle window and resets the turtle library.

(turtle-drawing)

procedure

Returns the drawing associated with the current turtle.

(pen-up)

procedure

Lifts the turtle from the plane. Subsequent forward and backward operations don't lead to lines being drawn. Only the current coordinates are getting updated.

(pen-down)

procedure

Drops the turtle onto the plane. Subsequent forward and backward operations will lead to lines being drawn.

(pen-color color)

procedure

Sets the drawing color of the turtle to *color*. *color* is a color object as defined by library (lispkit draw)

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(pen-size size) procedure

Sets the pen size of the turtle to *size*. The pen size corresponds to the width of lines drawn by forward and backward.

(home) procedure

Moves the turtle to its home position.

(move x y)

Moves the turtle to the position described by the coordinates *x* and *y*.

(heading angle)

Sets the heading of the turtle to angle. angle is expressed in terms of degrees.

procedure

(turn angle) procedure

Adjusts the heading of the turtle by *angle* degrees.

(right angle)
Adjusts the heading of the turtle by angle degrees.

procedure

(left angle)

Adjusts the heading of the turtle by *-angle* degrees.

(forward *distance*)

Moves the turtle forward by *distance* units drawing a line if the pen is down.

(backward distance) procedure

Moves the turtle backward by distance units drawing a line if the pen is down.

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54 SRFI Libraries

LispPad supports a broad range of libraries standardized and published via the SRFI process. The following libraries come pre-packaged with LispPad:

- SRFI 1: List Library
- SRFI 2: AND-LET* an AND with local bindings, a guarded LET* special form
- SRFI 6: Basic String Ports
- SRFI 8: receive Binding to multiple values
- SRFI 9: Defining Record Types
- SRFI 11: Syntax for receiving multiple values
- SRFI 14: Character-set library
- SRFI 16: Syntax for procedures of variable arity
- SRFI 17: Generalized set!
- SRFI 19: Time Data Types and Procedures
- SRFI 23: Error reporting mechanism
- SRFI 26: Notation for Specializing Parameters without Currying
- SRFI 27: Sources of Random Bits
- SRFI 28: Basic Format Strings
- SRFI 31: A special form rec for recursive evaluation
- SRFI 33: Integer Bitwise-operation Library
- SRFI 34: Exception Handling for Programs
- SRFI 35: Conditions
- SRFI 39: Parameter objects
- SRFI 41: Streams
- SRFI 46: Basic Syntax-rules Extensions
- SRFI 48: Intermediate Format Strings
- SRFI 51: Handling rest list
- SRFI 54: Formatting
- SRFI 55: require-extension
- SRFI 63: Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Arrays
- SRFI 64: A Scheme API for test suites
- SRFI 69: Basic hash tables
- SRFI 87: => in case clauses
- SRFI 95: Sorting and Merging
- SRFI 98: An interface to access environment variables
- SRFI 101: Purely Functional Random-Access Pairs and Lists
- SRFI 102: Procedure Arity Inspection
- SRFI 111: Boxes
- SRFI 112: Environment inquiry
- SRFI 113: Sets and bags
- SRFI 121: Generators
- SRFI 125: Intermediate hash tables
- SRFI 128: Comparators
- SRFI 129: Titlecase procedures
- SRFI 132: Sort Libraries

- SRFI 133: Vector Library
- SRFI 134: Immutable Deques
- SRFI 135: Immutable Texts
- SRFI 137: Minimal Unique Types
- SRFI 142: Bitwise Operations
- SRFI 143: Fixnums
- SRFI 145: Assumptions
- SRFI 146: Mappings
- SRFI 151: Bitwise Operations
- SRFI 152: String Library
- SRFI 154: First-class dynamic extents
- SRFI 155: Promises
- SRFI 158: Generators and Accumulators
- SRFI 161: Unifiable Boxes
- SRFI 162: Comparators sublibrary
- SRFI 165: The Environment Monad
- SRFI 166: Monadic Formatting
- SRFI 167: Ordered Key Value Store
- SRFI 173: Hooks
- SRFI 174: POSIX Timespecs
- SRFI 175: ASCII Character Library
- SRFI 177: Portable keyword arguments
- SRFI 180: JSON
- SRFI 189: Maybe and Either: optional container types
- SRFI 194: Random data generators
- SRFI 195: Multiple-value boxes
- SRFI 196: Range Objects
- SRFI 204: Wright-Cartwright-Shinn pattern matcher
- SRFI 209: Enums and Enum Sets
- SRFI 210: Procedures and Syntax for Multiple Values
- SRFI 214: Flexvectors
- SRFI 215: Central log exchange
- SRFI 216: SICP Prerequisites
- SRFI 217: Integer sets
- SRFI 219: Define higher-order lambda
- SRFI 221: Generator/accumulator sub-library
- SRFI 222: Compound objects
- SRFI 223: Generalized binary search procedures
- SRFI 224: Integer mappings
- SRFI 227: Optional Arguments
- SRFI 229: Tagged procedures

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