Notes on Abelson and Sussman, *Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs*; page numbers reference the PDF version of the text available here

# Chapter 2, "Building Abstractions with Data"

| August 2019 | Cameron Clarke |  |  |
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## 2. Building Abstractions with Data (pp. 107-293)

• A note on higher-order procedures, referencing chapter 1 (107-8)

We also saw that higher-order procedures enhance the power of our language by enabling us to manipulate, **and thereby to reason in terms of**, general methods of computation.

- The focus of chapter 2 is on data that's more complex than the simple numerical data we used in chapter 1 (108)
- Comparative point about the focus of chapter 2 (vs. the focus of chapter 1) (108)

Thus, whereas our focus in chapter 1 was on building abstractions by combining procedures to form compound procedures, we turn in this chapter to another key aspect of any programming language: the means it provides for building abstractions by combining data objects to form *compound data*.

• Why compound data are desirable in a programming language (108)

Why do we want compound data in a programming language? For the same reasons that we want compound procedures: to elevate the conceptual level at which we can design our programs, to increase the modularity of our designs, and to enhance the expressive power of our language. Just as the ability to define procedures enables us to deal with processes at a higher conceptual level than that of the primitive operations of the language, the ability to construct compound data objects enables us to deal with data at a higher conceptual level than that of the primitive data objects of the language.

- A note about designing compound data objects that are consistent with how
  we conceptualize the things in the world that these objects are meant to represent
  (e.g., pairing together a numerator and a denominator as a compound data object
  to represent rational numbers) (109)
- A note about how compound data facilitate the design methodology of *data abstraction* (109)

The use of compound data also enables us to increase the modularity of our programs. If we can manipulate rational numbers directly as objects in their own right, then we can separate the part of our program that deals with rational numbers per se from the details of how rational numbers may be represented as pairs of integers. The general technique of isolating the parts of a program that deal with how data objects are represented from the parts of a program that deal with how data objects are used is a powerful design methodology called data abstraction.

- The example of a linear-combination procedure is given to illustrate how expressive power of the language increases when we allow for data abstraction through compound data (109-10)
  - The example also shows why...
    - [...] it is important that our programming language provide the ability to manipulate compound objects directly: Without this, there is no way for a procedure such as linearcombination to pass its arguments along to add and mul without having to know their detailed structure.
- Outline of the chapter (111-2)
  - Implement the rational-number arithmetic system given above as an example, as a way into the discussion of compound data and data abstractoion
    - \* A main point of discussion here is abstraction as a technique for coping with complexity
      - Will also talk about establishing abstraction barriers between different parts of a program
  - A discussion of how forming compound data requires that the programming language have some kind of "glue" so that data objects can be combined to form more complex data objects
    - \* In Scheme, procedures can play the role of this "glue", so that no special "data" operations are required
      - · (A point about how this further blurs the distinction between "procedure" and "data")
    - \* A discussion here about *closure*—"that the glue we use for combining data objects should allow us to combine not only primitive data objects, but compound data objects as well" (111)
    - \* A discussion about how compound data objects can serve as *conventional interfaces* for combining program modules in mix-and-match ways

- A discussion about *symbolic expressions*—"data whose elementary parts can be arbitrary symbols rather than only numbers" (111)
  - \* A discussion on how the time and space requirements of processes that manipulate data can depend on how the data themselves are represented
- A discussion about *generic operations* which can handle many different types of data, whose implementation arises from the need of working with data that may be represented differently by different parts of the program
  - \* A discussion of maintaining modularity in the presence of generic expressions using *data-directed programming* "as a technique that allows individual data representations to be designed in isolation and then combined *additively* (i.e., without modification)" (112)

## 2.1 Introduction to Data Abstraction (pp. 112-132)

• data abstraction (112-3)

Data abstraction is a methodology that **enables us to isolate how** a **compound data object is used from the details of how it is constructed from more primitive data objects**.

The basic idea of data abstraction is to structure the programs that are to use compound data objects so that they operate on "abstract data." That is, our programs should use data in such a way as to make no assumptions about the data that are not strictly necessary for performing the task at hand. At the same time, a "concrete" data representation is defined independent of the programs that use the data. The interface between these two parts of our system will be a set of procedures, called *selectors* and *constructors*, that implement the abstract data in terms of the concrete representation.

### 2.1.1 Example: Arithmetic Operations for Rational Numbers (113-118)

• The note about *wishful thinking* as a powerful strategy of synthesis (in the context of constructors and selectors for rational numbers)

## Pairs (115-6)

• Scheme provides a compound structure called a *pair*, which is constructed using the primitive procedure cons (115)

This procedure [cons] takes two arguments and returns a compound data object that contains the two arguments as parts.

- cons stands for "construct" (115n2)
- Can extract the parts of a given pair using the primitive procedures car
   and cdr

- \* car stands for "Contents of Address part of Register" (115n2)
- \* cdr (pronounced "could-er") stands for "Contents of Decrement part of Register" (115n2)

```
* e.g., (115)

(define x (cons 1 2))

(car x)

;Value: 1

(cdr x)

;Value: 2
```

- cons can be used to define pairs whose elements are pairs, etc.
- Pairs (given that we can combine them) end up being a powerful, general-purpose building block to create many kinds of complex data structures (116)
  - Moreover, (116)

The single compound-data primitive *pair*, implemented by the procedures cons, car, and cdr, is the only glue we need.

- Data objects constructed from pairs are called list-structured data

#### Representing rational numbers (116-8)

- Pairs are a natural way to represent the data associated with rational numbers (119)
  - The implementation that the authors give of make-rat, numer, and denom are then in terms of cons, car, and cdr, respectively

#### Exercises (118)

- Exercise 2.1
  - Define the alternative make-rat as follows:

#### 2.1.2 Abstraction Barriers (118-122)

• Underlying idea of data abstraction (118)

In general, the underlying idea of data abstraction is to identify for each type of data object a basic set of operations in terms of which all manipulations of data objects of that type will be expressed, and then to use only those operations in manipulating the data [emphasis added].

• abstraction barriers isolate different "levels" of the system (119)

At each level, the barrier separates the programs (above) that use the data abstraction from the programs (below) that implement the data abstraction.

- Maintaining abstraction barriers helps users not have to think about implementation details of lower levels of abstraction
- Another note (121)

Constraining the dependence on the representation to a few interface procedures helps us design programs as well as modify them, because it allows us to maintain the flexibility to consider alternate implementations.

#### **Exercise (121-2)**

- · Exercise 2.2
  - We'll have the following definitions:

```
(define (make-segment point-a point-b)
  (cons point-a point-b))
(define (start-segment segment)
  (car segment))
(define (end-segment segment)
 (cdr segment))
(define (make-point x y)
  (cons x y))
(define (x-point point)
  (car point))
(define (y-point point)
  (cdr point))
(define (midpoint-segment segment)
  (let ((x1 (x-point (start-segment segment)))
        (y1 (y-point (start-segment segment)))
        (x2 (x-point (end-segment segment)))
        (y2 (y-point (end-segment segment)))
        (avg (lambda (a b) (/ (+ a b) 2.0))))
```

```
(make-point (avg x1 x2)
                     (avg y1 y2))))
And define the print-point procedure presented in the text on pg. 121-2
(define (print-point p)
  (newline)
  (display "(")
  (display (x-point p))
  (display ",")
  (display (y-point p))
  (display ")"))
And now let's test out what we've implemented:
(define a (make-point 1 2))
;Value: a
(x-point a)
; Value: 1
(y-point a)
; Value: 2
(define b (make-point 3 4))
; Value: b
(x-point b)
;Value: 3
(y-point b)
; Value: 4
(print-point a)
(1,2)
;Unspecified return value
(print-point b)
(3,4)
;Unspecified return value
(define seg (make-segment a b))
;Value: seg
(start-segment seg)
; Value: (1 . 2)
(end-segment seg)
```

```
(define midpoint (midpoint-segment seg))
      ; Value: midpoint
      (print-point midpoint)
      (2.,3.)
      ;Unspecified return value
• Exercise 2.3
    - Implement our rectangle representation first in terms of points:
      (define (make-rectangle vertex-a vertex-b vertex-c vertex-d)
        (cons vertex-a
              (cons vertex-b
                     (cons vertex-c
                           vertex-d))))
      (define (select-vertex rect n)
        (cond ((= n 1) (car rect))
              ((= n 2) (car (cdr rect)))
              ((= n 3) (car (cdr (cdr rect))))
              ((= n 4) (cdr (cdr rect))))))
     Let's define a procedure is-rectangle? to make sure that the things
     we're creating are actually rectangles:
      (define (is-rectangle? rect)
        define)
      (define a (make-point 0 0))
      (define b (make-point 0 1))
      (define c (make-point 1 1))
      (define d (make-point 1 0))
      (define rect (make-rectangle a b c d))
      (select-vertex rect 1)
      ; Value: (0 . 0)
      (select-vertex rect 2)
      ; Value: (0 . 1)
      (select-vertex rect 3)
      ; Value: (1 . 1)
      (select-vertex rect 4)
      ; Value: (1 . 0)
```

; Value: (3 . 4)

- 2.1.3 What is Meant by Data? (122-126)
- 2.1.4 Extended Exercise: Interval Arithmetic (126-132)
- 2.2 Hierarchical Data and the Closure Property (pp. 132-192)
- 2.3 Symbolic Data (pp. 192-229)
- 2.4 Multiple Representations for Abstract Data (pp. 229-254)
- 2.5 Systems with Generic Operations (pp. 254-293)