Where Scheme Fits In

- Derived from Lisp around 1975 by Sussman and Steele.
- One of the major changes was replacement of Lisp's dynamic scoping by static scoping.
- Small, elegant and simple language.
- Both functional and imperative features. To start with, we ignore imperative features.

Where Scheme Fits In Continued

- Prefix notation.
- Used in practical projects. For example, it is used in implementing GnuCash, the Guile extension language, and as the basis for DSSSL stylesheet language.

Functional Programming Essentials

- All computation is done by evaluating functions.
- Functions are first-class ... i.e., they may be passed to and from other functions, stored in data-structures, etc.
- No destructive assignment, i.e., something like
 a = a + 1 impossible. Similar to Mathematics, a variable can have only a single value. Consequently, no loops!

Functional Programming Essentials Continued

- The lack of destructive assignment results in referential transparency. This means that each expression denotes a single value which cannot be changed by evaluating the expression or by allowing different parts of a program to share the expression.
- Referential transparency makes it possible to reason about programs using simple equality reasoning.

Non-Referentially Transparent C Code

```
int a = 1;
int f(x) {
 a = !a;
  return (a) ? x + 1 : x + 4;
f(3) => 7
f(3) => 4
f(3) => 7
f(3) => 4
```

Scheme: Lexical Issues

- Whitespace used to separate tokens, otherwise ignored.
- Comments extend from ; to end-of-line.
- All whitespace chars are delimiters, as are:

- An identifier is a maximal sequence of non-delimiter chars that does not start with # or ,. Examples: x, symbol?, set!, <=>.
- Case-insensitive: if and IF are equivalent.

Scheme: Syntactic Issues

- Scheme uses prefix expressions of the form: (function arg1 arg2 . . . argn).
- Each argi can be a primitive or a prefix expression.
- Basically a linearization of the AST.

Example: in programs/fact.scm:

Scheme Data: Overview

- Primitive data referred to as atom's. Primitives include boolean literals, number literals, character literals, string literals and symbols. The rest of this presentation largely ignores non-basic numbers, characters, strings.
- Constructed data using type constructors. The most basic constructor is the pair constructor using cons; can also have vector's. This presentation concentrates on pair's.

Naming Conventions

A predicate is a procedure that always returns a boolean value. By convention, predicates usually have names that end in ?. Example: (number? x) which returns #t (representing *true*) if its argument x is a number.

A mutation procedure is a procedure that alters a data structure. By convention, mutation procedures usually have names that end in !. Example: (set! a 22) destructively changes the value of a to 22. This presentation ignores mutation except to illustrate the power of closures to encapsulate state.

Simple Scheme Data — Booleans

Constants #t for *true* and #f for *false*. Boolean contexts treat any value not equal to #f as *true*. That is, Scheme has a single falsey value, namely #f.

```
(boolean? #f) ; type-testing predicate.
#t
> (boolean? #t)
#t.
> (boolean? 123)
#f
> (not #f)
#t.
> (not 123)
#f
```

Simple Scheme Data — Numbers

Unlimited precision integers, rationals, reals, complex. Predicates number?, complex?, real?, integer?, rational?. Usual arith. operations; = for testing number equality, eqv? for general equality.

```
> (number? 2+3i)
#t
> (integer? 22/7)
#f
> (rational? 22/7)
#t
> (+ 1 2 3)
6
> (* 1 2 3)
```

Simple Scheme Data — Numbers Continued

```
> (/ 1 2 3)
1/6
> (/ 3)
1/3
> (max 22/7 3 0.6)
3.142857142857143
> (abs -1)
> (= 1 0)
#f
> (<= 3 3)
#t
```

Simple Scheme Data — Symbols

Normally, identifiers are used as *variable* names. However, if identifiers are quoted, then it is a literal representing a *symbol*.

```
> a
reference to undefined identifier: a
> (quote a)
a
> 'a
a
> '<=>
<=>
```

Simple Scheme Data — Symbols Continued

```
> (symbol? '!@#$)
#t
> (symbol? 12)
#f
> (symbol? '12)
#f
> (symbol? 'e+2)
#t
>
```

Compound Scheme Data – Dotted Pairs

- A dotted pair is a record structure with two fields called the car and cdr (for historical reasons), aka head and tail respectively.
- The pair with field car equal to x and field cdr equal to y
 is denoted as (x . y).
- Pairs are constructed using the constructor cons.
- The two fields are accessed using the accessor functions car and cdr respectively.

Compound Scheme Data – Dotted Pairs Continued

```
> (cons 'a 'b)
(a . b)
> (pair? '(a . b))
#t
> (pair? 'a)
#f
> (car '(a . b))
а
> (cdr '(a . b))
b
>
```

S-Expressions

Dotted pairs along with primitives constitute S-expressions. Specifically, a S-expression (symbolic expression) is the smallest set of expressions such that:

- All Scheme primitives like booleans, numbers, characters, symbols, strings and () are S-expressions.
- If x and y are S-expressions, then so is the pair (cons x y) denoted also as (x.y).

Basically, denotes binary trees with internal nodes . or cons. Can be used to denote any tree-like data-structure.

Compound Scheme Data – Lists

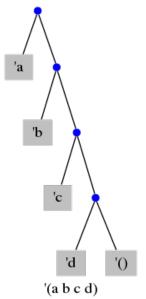
- The set of Scheme lists is defined as the smallest set L such that:
 - The empty list (denoted as ()) is in *L*.
 - Any pair whose cdr field contains an element of L is also in L.
- Examples of lists:

```
()
(a . ())
(a . (b . ()))
```

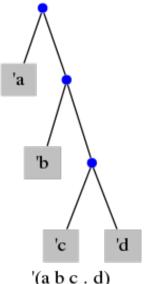
Compound Scheme Data – Lists

- A simpler notation uses (a b c d) to denote the list
 (a . (b . (c . (d . ())))).
- A chain of pairs not ending in the empty list is called an improper list (it really is not a list). For example, the improper list (a . (b . (c . d))) can be simplified to (a b (c . d)) but no further.
- Arbitrary Scheme programs can be represented as lists;
 i.e., a Scheme program is a Scheme datum! This means
 Scheme is a homoiconic language: the primary
 representation of a program is a data-structure within the
 language.

List Structure

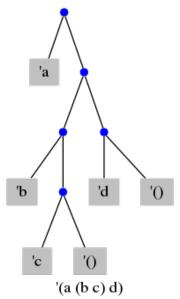


Improper List Structure



'(a b c . d)

Nested List Structure



Lists Functions

- Lists can be constructed using the constructor list. Example: (list 1 2 3) results in (1 2 3).
- The predicate list? returns #t iff applied to a argument which is a proper list. Examples: (list? '(1 2 3)) results in #t, whereas (list? '(1 2 . 3)) results in #f.
- List elements can be accessed by index (starting at 0)
 using list-ref. Example: (list-ref ' (a b c) 1)
 results in b.
- list-tail returns the tail of a list starting at a specified index. Example: (list-tail '(a b c) 1) returns (b c).
- The predicate null? recognizes the empty list. Examples: (null? '()) returns #t whereas (null? '(1)) returns #f.

Lists Functions Continued

- length returns the length of a list. Example: (length '(a b)) returns 2.
- append can be used to append multiple lists. Example:
 (append '(a b) '(1 2) '() '(c)) returns
 (a b 1 2 c)
- member can be used to check whether an element is a member of a list. Examples: (member 'b ' (a b c)) returns (b c), which is interpreted as true within a boolean context; (member 1 ' (a b c)) returns #f.
- assoc is used for searching association lists which are lists of pairs, where the car of each pair is regarded as a key. If found, then the return value is the first pair with matching key, else #f. Example:

```
(assoc 'b '((a 1) (b 2) (c 3))) returns (b 2).
```



List Examples

```
> '(a . (b . (c . d)))
(a b c . d)
> (list? '(a b))
#t.
> (list? '(a (b . c)))
#t
> (list? '(a . (b . c)))
#f
> (length '(a (b . c)))
2
> (length '(a . (b . c)))
length: expects argument of type  proper list>;
```

List Examples Continued

```
> (append '(a b c) '(1 2 3) '(x y z))
(a b c 1 2 3 x y z)
> (member 'b '(a b c))
(b c)
> (member 'x '(a b c))
#f
>
```

Contractions for Repeated car/cdr's

- Can use a fixed-size list to implement a record by using a particular element as a particular field.
- An example employee record would be (NAME SSN GENDER POSITION).
- Could have accessor functions: NAME: (car EMPLOYEE) and POSITION: (car (cdr (cdr EMPLOYEE)))).
- Can abbreviate *POSITION*: (cadddr *EMPLOYEE*).
- Most Lisp's allow reasonable number of combinations of a's and d's like cadr, cddr, cadar, etc.

Functions

- A function is specified by a lambda expression of the form
 (lambda Params Body)
 where Params is usually a list of identifiers specifying the
 formal parameters of the function and Body is a
 S-expression (which will typically contain free occurrences
 of the formal parameters) giving the body of the function.
- A function is given a name by assigning it to a global variable using define.

```
(define add1 (lambda (x) (+ x 1)))
```

 Function definition can also be abbreviated to not use an explicit lambda:

```
(define (add1 x) (+ x 1))
```

Function Calls

 When a function is called, all its actual parameters are first evaluated, then its body is evaluated with each free occurrence of a formal in the body replaced by the actual.

```
(add1 (* 3 2)) =>
((lambda (x) (+ x 1)) (* 3 2)) =>
((lambda (x) (+ x 1)) 6) =>
(+ 6 1) =>
7
```

Special Forms

- A lambda expression looks like a function application of the function lambda, as does define.
- However, when a lambda or define expression is evaluated, the parameters are not evaluated.
- Such forms with different evaluation rules are referred to as special forms.
- Other built-in special forms include if, when, unless, cond, and, or, etc.

Condition Checking

- (if Cond TrueExp FalseExp): A special form which first evaluates only Cond. If Cond evaluates to #f, the result is the evaluation of FalseExp; otherwise it is the evaluation of TrueExp.
- (when Cond Exp), (unless Cond Exp): Use if one of the branches of the if is empty.
- A multi-way if written as (cond [Cond1 Exp1] [Cond2 Exp2] ... [else ElseExp]). Each condition-expression pair is referred to as a cond-clause.
- Syntactically, multiple expressions are allowed within when and unless expressions and within a cond-clause; this is useful when the expressions have side-effects.

Condition Checking Examples

```
> (if '() 'a 'b)
а
> (if #f 'a 'b)
b
> (if (> 2 1) 'a 'b)
а
> (if (> 2 1) 'a (/ 1 0))
а
> (if (> 1 2) 'a (/ 1 0))
/: division by zero
> (unless (> 1 2) 'a)
а
 (when (> 1 2) 'a)
  (cond ((> 1 2) 'a) ((< 2 1) 'b) (else 'c))
C
>
```

Example — Factorial

In programs/fact.scm:

Factorial Log

```
> (load "fact.scm")
> (fact 4)
2.4
> (fact -4)
1
> (fact 20)
2432902008176640000
> (fact 100)
933262154439441526816992388562667
004907159682643816214685929638952
175999932299156089414639761565182
862536979208272237582511852109168
>
```

Example — List Length

In programs/my-length.scm:

List Length Log

```
> (load "my-length.scm")
 (my-length '())
0
  (my-length '(a b (1 2) (a b c) d))
5
  (my-length 'a)
0
 (my-length '(a . b))
1
  (my-length '(a b (1 2) (a b c) d . e))
>
5
>
```

Structural Recursion

Structural recursion is related to the proof-method of structural induction. When a data-structure is defined recursively, related functions can be written using cases corresponding to the cases in the recursive definition.

- A list is either empty or is a pair consisting of some head and some tail which is a list. Hence define function with two cases for empty and pair. In the former case, return function value for empty list; in the latter case, make recursive call for tail and combine returned result with head as return value of function.
- Recall that a non-negative integer is either 0 or the successor of a non-negative integer.

Structural Recursion Continued

- A non-empty array is either a 1-element array or it is a 1-element array followed by a non-empty array; basing a search function on this recursive definition leads to linear search.
- A non-empty array is either a 1-element array or it is a sequence of two arrays of length that differ at most by 1; basing a search function on this recursive definition leads to binary search.

Example — List Length with Error Checking

In programs/err-length.scm:

List Length with Error Checking Log

```
> (load "err-length.scm")
> (err-length '())
0
> (err-length '(a (b c) d))
3
> (err-length '(a (b c) . d))
"error"
> (err-length 'a)
"error"
>
```

Using let

- Allows naming of intermediate results and avoid repeated evaluation.
- Not destructive assignment: just names some value for scope consisting of body of let.
- Example:

Sequential let

let* allows values of variables previously defined within the same let* to be used in subsequent definitions.

```
> (let ((x 1) (y x)) (+ x y))
reference to undefined identifier: x
> (let* ((x 1) (y x)) (+ x y))
2
>
```

Recursive let

letrec allows values of variables previously defined within the same letrec to be used in earlier definitions.

```
> (let* ([even
          (lambda (x)
            (or (equal? x 0) (odd (- x 1))))
         [odd
           (lambda (x)
             (and (not (equal? x 0))
                  (even (- x 1)))))
    (even 2))
odd: undefined;
 cannot reference undefined identifier
```

Recursive let Continued

Example — List Length with Error Checking Revisited

In programs/let-length.scm:

```
(define (let-length list)
(cond ((null? list) 0)
((pair? list)
(let ((cdr-length
(let-length (cdr list))))
(if (integer? cdr-length)
(+ 1 cdr-length)
(cdr-length)))
(else "error")))
```

List Length with Error Checking Revisited Log

```
> (load "let-length.scm")
> (let-length '())
0
> (let-length '(a (b . c) d))
3
> (let-length '(a (b c) . d))
"error"
> (let-length 0)
"error"
>
```

Example — Appending Two Lists

In programs/my-append.scm:

```
(define (my-append list1 list2)
(if (null? list1)
list2
(cons (car list1)
(my-append (cdr list1) list2))))
```

Appending Two Lists Log

```
> (load "my-append.scm")
> (my-append '(a b c) '(1 2 3))
(a b c 1 2 3)
> (my-append () ())
()
> (my-append () '(1 2))
(1 \ 2)
> (my-append () '(1 2 . 3))
(1 \ 2 \ . \ 3)
> (my-append '(a . b) '(1 2 . 3))
car: expects argument of type <pair>; given b
>
```

Example — Reversing a List

In programs/my-reverse.scm:

Reversing a List Log

```
> (load "my-reverse.scm")
> (my-reverse '(1 2 3))
(3 2 1)
> (my-reverse '(a))
(a)
> (my-reverse '())
()
> (my-reverse 'a)
cdr: expects argument of type <pair>; given a
> (my-reverse '(a . b))
cdr: expects argument of type <pair>; given b
>
```

Example — Reversing a List Revisited

Above my-reverse is $O(n^2)$ where n is the number of elements in the list. Can avoid $O(n^2)$ behavior by using an accumulator: In programs/lin-reverse.scm

```
(define (lin-reverse list)
(aux-reverse '() list))

(define (aux-reverse acc ls)
(if (null? ls)
acc
(aux-reverse (cons (car ls) acc)
(cdr ls))))
```

Reversing a List Revisited Log

```
> (load "lin-reverse.scm")
> (lin-reverse '(1 2 3))
(3 2 1)
> (lin-reverse '())
()
> (lin-reverse '(1))
(1)
> (lin-reverse '(1 (2 3 4) 5))
(5 (2 3 4) 1)
>
```

Accumulating Parameters

- A primary function is often implemented as a wrapper which simply calls an auxiliary function with additional accumulating parameters. For example, reverse is a wrapper around the auxiliary function aux-reverse.
- The accumulating parameter is given some initial value when the wrapper calls the auxiliary function. For example, when reverse calls aux-reverse, it is called with 2 parameters: an accumulating parameter initialized to () and the original list.

Accumulating Parameters Continued

 As the auxiliary function recurses, the accumulating parameter for the recursive call is updated (non-destructively, since the parameter for the recursive call is different from the incoming parameter). For example, the recursive call to aux-reverse is made with the accumulating parameter set to the cons of the car of the incoming list being reversed and the incoming accumulating parameter.

Accumulating Parameters Continued

- When the auxiliary function recurses, it's return value is simply the return value of the recursive call. For example, the recursive case for aux-reverse simply returns the return value of the recursive call.
- When the auxiliary function terminates its recursion, the value of the accumulating parameter is returned as the result. For example, the base case for aux-reverse simply returns the value of the accumulating parameter acc.

Fibonacci Function

Recursive function from programs/rec-fib.scm:

Fibonacci Function Log

```
> (load "rec-fib.scm")
> (rec-fib 5)
5
> (rec-fib 10)
55
> (rec-fib 20)
6765
>
```

Fibonacci Function in C

Recursive and iterative functions from fib.c:

Fibonacci Function in C Continued

```
static int iter_fib(int n)
  if (n < 2) {
    return n;
 else {
    int acc0 = 0;
    int acc1 = 1;
    int i;
    for (i = 2; i <= n; i++) {
      int t = acc0; acc0 = acc1; acc1 += t;
    return acc1;
```

Accumulator Fibonacci in Scheme

Use additional arguments acc0, acc1 and i as in C function. In programs/iter-fib.scm:

```
(define (iter-fib n)
     (letrec
        ([iter-fib-aux
3
          (lambda (acc0 acc1 i n)
4
            (if (> i n)
5
                acc1
6
                (iter-fib-aux acc1 (+ acc0 acc1)
7
                                (+ i 1) n))))
       (if (< n 2)
10
            (iter-fib-aux 0 1 2 n))))
11
```

Accumulator Fibonacci in Scheme: Log

```
> (load "iter-fib.scm")
> (iter-fib 5)
5
> (iter-fib 10)
55
> (iter-fib 20)
6765
>
```

Counting All Occurrences of Non-Pairs in a List

programs/count-non-pairs.scm:

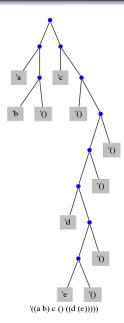
```
(define (count-non-pairs ls)
(if (not (pair? ls))

(+ (count-non-pairs (car ls))
(count-non-pairs (cdr ls)))))
```

Counting All Occurrences of Non-Pairs in a List Log

```
> (load "count-non-pairs.scm")
 (count-non-pairs 'a)
1
  (count-non-pairs '())
  (count-non-pairs '(() () () ()))
5
  (count-non-pairs '(1 (2 . 3) 4))
5
  (count-non-pairs '((a b) c () ((d (e)))))
11
```

List Structure for Last Example



Flattening a List

programs/my-flatten.scm:

```
(define (my-flatten ls)
(cond
((null? ls) '())
((pair? (car ls))
(append (my-flatten (car ls))
(my-flatten (cdr ls))))
(else (cons (car ls)
(my-flatten (cdr ls))))))
```

Flattening a List Log

```
> (load "my-flatten.scm")
> (my-flatten '(a (b) (c d ()) e ((f) g)))
(a b c d () e f g)
> (my-flatten '( () ((())) ((()) ())))
((() () () ())
> (my-flatten 'a)
car: expects argument of type <pair>; given a
> (my-flatten '(a . b))
car: expects argument of type <pair>; given b
>
```

Tail Recursion

A function is tail-recursive if the **absolutely** last thing it does before returning is calling itself.

- In conventional programming languages, recursion leads to heavy use of stack space.
- Scheme guarantees that if a function is tail-recursive, then the recursive call does not use additional stack space. This is referred to as tail-recursion optimization.

Note: fact is not tail-recursive, because recursive-call return value must be multiplied by n before return. iter-fib-aux is tail-recursive.

Tail Recursion in C

A tail-recursive function

```
int f(params) {
   if (baseCase(params)) {
     return g(params); /* non-recursive */
   }
   else {
     return f(newParams);
   }
}
```

Tail Recursion in C Continued

Tail recursive function is replaced by

```
int f(params) {
loop:
   if (baseCase(params)) {
      return g(params); /* non-recursive */
   }
   else {
      params = newParams;
      goto loop;
   }
}
```

Tail Recursion in C Continued

Previous function is equivalent to:

```
int f(params) {
  while (!baseCase(params)) {
    params = newParams;
  }
  return g(params); /* non-recursive */
}
```

Tail-Recursive Factorial in C

Consider iterative C factorial from programs/fact.c:

```
int fact(int n) { //
  int acc = 1;
  while (n > 1) {
    acc = acc * n;
    n = n - 1;
  }
  return acc;
}
```

Tail-Recursive Factorial in Scheme

Equivalent Scheme function in programs/iter-fact.scm. Note that aux-fact is tail-recursive, hence it is guaranteed to run in constant stack-space.

DFA Simulation

- A Deterministic Finite Automaton (DFA) consists of a set of states, a set of inputs and transitions from state to state based on the input.
- A distinguished state is the initial state.
- Some set of states are final states.
- A sequence of input symbols is accepted if starting in the initial state, the machine makes transitions on the input symbols and lands up in a final state.

Scheme: DFA Representation

Represent DFA as a 3-element list (*Initial Transitions Finals*).

Initial The initial state of the DFA.

Transitions A list of transitions, where each transition is represented as a 2-element list ((FromState Input) ToState) representing the transition from state FromState on input symbol Input to state ToState.

Finals A list of final states.

Scheme: DFA Representation Continued



```
(define zero-one-even-dfa ; start state ((q0 0) q2) ((q0 1) q1) ((q1 0) q3) ((q1 1) q0) ; transition fn ((q2 0) q0) ((q2 1) q3) ((q3 0) q1) ((q3 1) q2)) ((q0))) ; final states
```

Figure 10.2 DFA to accept all strings of zeros and ones containing an even number of each. At the bottom of the figure is a representation of the machine as a Scheme data structure, using the conventions of Figure 10.1.

DFA Example

DFA Simulation: Code

```
(define (simulate dfa input)
     (cons (car dfa)
                                             ; start state
            (if (null? input)
3
                (if (infinal? dfa) '(accept)
4
                    '(reject))
5
                (simulate (move dfa (car input))
6
                           (cdr input)))))
7
8
   (define (infinal? dfa)
9
       (memg (car dfa) (caddr dfa)))
10
```

DFA Simulation Code: Continued

```
(define (move dfa symbol)
13
     (let ((curstate (car dfa))
14
            (trans (cadr dfa))
15
            (finals (caddr dfa)))
16
        (list
17
         (if (eq? curstate 'error)
18
             'error
19
             (let
20
                  ((pair (assoc (list curstate symbol)
21
                                  trans)))
22
                (if pair (cadr pair) 'error)))
23
        trans
24
        finals)))
25
```

DFA Simulation: Log

```
(simulate
27
    ' (q0
                                             ; start state
28
       (((q0 \ 0) \ q2) \ ((q0 \ 1) \ q1); transitions
29
         ((q1 \ 0) \ q3) \ ((q1 \ 1) \ q0)
30
         ((q2 \ 0) \ q0) \ ((q2 \ 1) \ q3)
31
         ((q3 \ 0) \ q1) \ ((q3 \ 1) \ q2))
32
       (q0)
                                             ; final state
33
    '(0 1 1 0 1))
34
    => (q0 q2 q3 q2 q0 q1 reject)
```

First Class Functions

- Scheme allows functions as arguments to other functions.
- Scheme allows functions to return functions.
- We often want to map each element of a list via some function.
- We also often want to reduce all the elements of a list to a single element via some function.

Mapping a List

Map function in programs/my-map.scm:

```
(define (my-map f ls)
(if (null? ls)
)
(cons (f (car ls)) (my-map f (cdr ls)))))
```

Mapping a List Log

```
> (load "my-map.scm")
> (my-map add1 '(1 2 3))
(2 3 4)
> (my-map add1 ())
()
> (my-map (lambda (x) (* 3 x)) '(1 2 3))
(3 6 9)
> (my-map length '(() (a) (a b c (d e) f)))
(0 1 5)
>
```

Anonymous Mapping Functions

 Previous transparency illustrated the use of a anonymous function.

```
> (my-map (lambda (x) (* 3 x)) '(1 2 3)) (3 6 9)
```

 Anonymous functions avoid cluttering up global namespace with functions used only within some other function.

Local Mapping Functions

Alternatively, could use let to give a temporary name to the function.

Recursive Local Functions

What if function is recursive? Consider mapping factorial as in programs/map-fact-let.scm:

map-fact-let Log

```
> (load "map-fact-let.scm")
> (map-fact-let '(3 4 5))
fact1: undefined;
  cannot reference undefined identifier
>
```

Recursive let

Use letrec as in map-fact-letrec.scm:

```
(define (map-fact-letrec ls)
(letrec
((fact
(lambda (n))
(if (< n 1)
(* n (fact (- n 1))))))
(map fact ls)))</pre>
```

Recursive let Log

```
> (load "map-fact-letrec.scm")
> (map-fact-letrec '(-1 0 1 2 3 5 6))
(1 1 1 2 6 120 720)
>
```

Reducing a List

- Consider summing the elements of a list. We can do that by accumulating a sum by applying + to each successive element and a accumulator.
- Consider multiplying the elements of a list. We can do that by accumulating a product by applying * to each successive element and a accumulator.
- Define (reduce '(a1 a2 ... aN) z f) to be
 (f a1 (f a2 ... (f aN z)))

Scheme Reduce

Scheme definition in programs/reduce.scm:

```
(define (reduce ls z f)
(if (null? ls)

z
(f (car ls) (reduce (cdr ls) z f))))

> (load "reduce.scm")
> (reduce '(1 2 3 4 5) 0 +)
15
> (reduce '(1 2 3 4 5) 1 *)
120
```

Functions Which Return Functions

```
> (define add-n (lambda (n) (lambda (x) (+ n x))))
> ((add-n 4) 5)
9
> (define add-5 (add-n 5))
> add-5
##cedure:STDIN::27>
> (add-5 6)
11
> ((add-n -4) 3)
-1
>
```

Destructive Assignment

(set! v e) sets the value of variable ${\tt v}$ to expression e. For example:

```
> (let ((f (lambda (x) (+ x 5))))
          (display (f 10)) (newline)
          (set! f (lambda (x) (* x 10)))
           (f 10))
15
100
>
```

Closures: Bank Account

A bank account:

```
(define (account init-balance)
     (let ((balance init-balance))
       (let ((deposit
               (lambda (amount)
                 (set! balance (+ amount balance))
                 balance))
              (withdraw
               (lambda (amount)
8
                 (when (>= balance amount)
                        (set! balance
10
                              (- balance amount)))
11
                 balance)))
12
         (list deposit withdraw))))
13
```

Closures: Bank Account Continued

```
(define (deposit account);
(car account))
(define (withdraw account)
(cadr account))
```

Bank Account Log

```
> (load "balance.scm")
> (define a1 (account 100))
> (define a2 (account 50))
> ((deposit a1) 20)
120
> ((withdraw a1) 40)
80
> ((deposit a2) 80)
130
> ((withdraw a2) 20)
110
> ((deposit a1) 100)
180
>
```

References

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