Programming Abstractions

Week 2: Environments and Closures

Using variables

Recall that when Racket evaluates a variable, the result is the value that the variable is bound to

- If we have (define x 10), then evaluating x gives us the value 10
- If we have (define (foo x) (- x y)), then evaluating foo gives us the procedure (λ (x) (- x y)) along with a way to get the value of y

Racket needs a way to look up values that correspond to variables: an environment

Environments

Environments are mappings from identifiers to values

There's a top-level environment containing many default mappings

- ▶ list → #<procedure:list>
 (→ is read as "maps to", #<procedure:xxx> is how DrRacket displays procedures)
- ▶ + → #procedure:+>

Each file in Racket (technically, a module) has an environment that extends the top-level environment that contains all of the defines in the file

Basic operations on environments

Lookup an identifier in an environment

Bind an identifier to a value in an environment

Extend an environment

- This creates a new environment with mappings from identifiers to values as well as a reference to the environment being extended
- The extended and original environment may both contain mappings for the same identifier

Modify the binding of an identifier in an environment (we will avoid doing this in this course)

Looking up an identifier in an environment

If an identifier has been bound in the current environment, its value is returned

Otherwise, if the current environment extends another environment, the identifier is (recursively) looked up in the other environment.

Otherwise, there's no binding for the identifier and an error is reported

Adding a new mapping to an environment

(define identifier s-exp)

define will add identifier to the current environment and bind the value that results from evaluating s-exp to it

In any environment, an identifier may only be defined once

except in the interpreter which lets you redefine identifiers

Adding a new mapping to an environment

(define (identifier params) body)

```
Recall that (define (foo x y) body) is the same as (define foo (\lambda (x y) body)) in that it binds the value of the \lambda-expression, namely a closure, to foo
```

A closure keeps a reference to the current environment in which the λ -expression was evaluated

Extending an environment

Calling a closure

Calling a closure extends the environment of the closure with the values of the arguments bound to the procedure's parameters

Calling (average '(1 2 3)) extends the environment of average (namely the module's environment which contains mappings for sum and average) with the mapping lst \mapsto '(1 2 3) and runs average with that environment

Shadowing a binding

Shadowing a binding

```
(define (sum lst)
  (cond [(empty? lst) 0]
        [else (+ (first lst) (sum (rest lst)))]))
(define (foo sum x y)
  (average (list sum x y)))
(define (average lst)
  (/ (sum lst) (length lst)))
```

Shadowing a binding

Shadowing a binding

Extending an environment

```
(let ([id1 s-exp1] [id2 s-exp2]...) body)
```

let enables us to create some new bindings that are visible only inside body

x and y are only bound inside the body of the let expression

That is, the scope of the identifiers bound by let is body

Modifying a binding

(set! identifier s-exp)

set! (read "set bang") can modify an existing binding in an environment

```
(define (bar)
  (define x 10); We can use define inside procedures
  (writeln x); Output the value of x
  (set! x 25)
  (writeln x))
```

This outputs 10 on one line and then 25 on another

This type of side-effect makes reasoning about code much harder

Except for one time later in the semester, we're not going to be using set!

(We won't actually need set!, it just makes things easier)

Variations on let

A common problem

When writing programs, it's not uncommon to define some local variables in terms of other local variables

Example: Return the elements of a list of numbers that are at least as large as the first element (the head) of the list, in reverse order

This doesn't work; we can't use head in the definition of bigger

The issue

The issue is the scope of the binding for head: just the body of the let

One (bad) work around would be to use multiple lets

Sequential let

Another problem: recursion

Often, we're going to want to define a recursive procedure but we can't do that with let or let*

We can't use fact in the definition of fact

Recursive let

```
(letrec ([id1 s-exp1] [id2 s-exp2]...) body)
```

All of the s-exps can refer to all of the ids

This is used to make recursive procedures

Recursive let drawback

The values of the identifiers we're binding can't be used in the bindings

Invalid (the value of x is used to define y)

Valid (the value of x isn't used to define y, only when y is called)

We can use define inside procedures

Avoiding defining sq each time

See also: premature optimization

The environment of sum-of-squares 2 contains sq whereas the environment for sum-of-squares is the module-level environment and sq is defined each time

Is this worth doing? Probably not. It's much harder to read

Accumulator-passing style

Loops and efficiency

Compare a C (or Java) function to compute the factorial

```
int fact(int n) {
  int product = 1;
  while (n > 0) {
    product *= n;
    n -= 1;
  }
  return product;
}
```

to our recursive Racket implementation

How do these differ?

Loops and efficiency

To be efficient, Racket internally converts all tail-recursions into loops

A function is tail-recursive if the last thing to does is to recurse and return the result of that recursion

```
Example:
  (define (foo x y)
     (if (some-condition? x y)
        some-value
        (foo (f x y) (g x y))))
```

When the condition is satisfied, some-value is returned, otherwise foo is called again with some different parameters and that value is returned

Our factorial is not tail recursive

The last thing fact does is perform a multiplication; the recursion happens before the multiplication

Our factorial is not tail recursive

```
Given (fact 4), we end up with

(fact 4) => (* 4 (fact 3))

=> (* 4 (* 3 (fact 2)))

=> (* 4 (* 3 (* 2 (fact 1))))

=> (* 4 (* 3 (* 2 1)))

=> (* 4 (* 3 2))

=> (* 4 6)

=> 24
```

We can see this in DrRacket

Solution: Use an accumulator

(Accumulator-passing style isn't the real name of this technique)

```
(define (fact2 n)
  (define (fact-a n acc)
    (if (<= n 1)
        acc; return the accumulator
        (fact-a (sub1 n) (* n acc))))
  (fact-a n 1))</pre>
```

Three things to notice

- We defined a recursive helper function that takes an additional param
- We provide an appropriate initial value for the accumulator in fact2's call to fact-a
- fact-a is tail-recursive

fact2 is tail-recursive

So how does this become a loop?

n, acc = n - 1, n * acc

```
Use variables for the parameters and update them each time through the loop
(define (fact-a n acc)
  (if (<= n 1)
      acc; return the accumulator
       (fact-a (sub1 n) (* n acc))))
becomes (pseudocode)
def fact-a(n, acc):
  loop:
    if n <= 1:
      return acc
```

Two strategies for tail recursive procedures

Accumulator-passing style with one or more accumulator parameters

- Usually, the procedure we really want doesn't have these parameters
- Use helper functions

Continuation-passing style

 This uses something called continuations which we'll talk about later in the semester

Let's write some tail-recursion procedures

```
(sum lst) - Add all the numbers in the lst
(maximum lst) - Find the maximum value in a nonempty list
(reverse lst) - Reverses the list lst
(remove* x lst) - Remove all instances of x from lst
(remove x lst) - Remove the first instance of x from lst
```

Map and apply

Map: the simple case

(map proc 1st)

map applies the procedure proc to every element in list 1st

```
(map f'(1 2 3 4)) => (list (f 1) (f 2) (f 3) (f 4))
(map sub1 '(10 15 20)) => '(9 14 19)
(map (\lambda (x) (list x x)) '(a b c)) => '((a a) (b b) (c c))
(map first '((a 5) (b 6) (c 7))) => '(a b c)
(map rest '((a 5) (b 6) (c 7))) => '((5) (6) (7))
(map (\lambda (x) (cons (first x) x)) '((1 2) (3 4))) =>
 '((1 1 2) (3 3 4))
```

How would we implement map?

Non-tail-recursive

Simple, clear

Tail-recursive

Use an accumulator to hold the reversed results, then reverse

General map

(map proc 1st1 1st2 ... 1stn)

If proc is a procedure of n arguments, then map will apply proc to corresponding elements n lists (which all have the same length)

```
(map f '(a b c) '(1 2 3)) => (list (f a 1) (f b 2) (f c 3))
(map cons '(a b c) '(x y z)) => '((a . x) (b . y) (c . z))
(map list '(a b) '(c d) '(e f)) => '((a c e) (b d f))
(map * '(0 1 2) '(3 4 5) '(6 7 8)) => '(0 28 80)
```

How would we implement the general map?

Two issues

- How do we write a procedure that takes a variable number of arguments?
- How do we apply a procedure to a variable number of arguments?

Variable argument procedure

```
(define foo (\lambda params body))
```

When params is a list of identifiers, the identifiers are bound to the values of the procedure's arguments

When params is an identifier (i.e., not a list), then the identifier is bound to a list of the procedure's arguments

Required parameters + variable parameters

```
(define foo (\lambda (x y z . params)) body)
```

Separate the required parameters from the list of variable parameters with a period

```
(define drop-2 (λ (x y . lst) lst))
```

(drop-2 1 2 3 4)

- x is bound to 1
- y is bound to 2
- Ist is bound to '(3 4)

Aside: The period syntax make some sense

```
Recall that '(x . y) is a pair (i.e., (cons 'x 'y))
A list is either empty or it's a pair (x . lst) where lst is a list
The list '(x y z) is the shorthand notation for '(x . (y z))
(y z) is shorthand for '(y . (z)) and (z) is shorthand for '(z . ())
Lots of equivalent ways to write '(x y z)
'(x . (y z))
'(x y . (z))
'(x y z . ())
'(x . (y . (z . ())))
```

'(x y . (z . ()))

Variable argument procedure with define

```
(define (foo . params) body)
(define (count-args . args)
  (length args))
```

```
With some required parameters (define (drop-2 x y . others) others)
```

Applying a procedure to a list of arguments (apply proc lst)

Applies proc to the arguments in Ist

```
(apply max '(1 3 4 2)) => (max 1 3 4 2) => 4
(define (sum lst)
  (apply + lst))
(sum '(1 2 3)) => (apply + '(1 2 3)) => (+ 1 2 3) => 6
```

Applying with some fixed arguments

(apply proc v... lst)

apply takes a variable number of arguments where the final one is a list and applies proc to all of those arguments

```
(apply proc 1 2 3 '(4 5 6)) => (proc 1 2 3 4 5 6)
```

Simplifying sum and maximum

Let's rewrite sum and maximum using apply with + and max

Distance of a 3-d point from the origin

```
Recall that a point (x, y) lies \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} from the origin
Let's make a procedure to compute this
```

```
(define (distance-from-origin x y)
  (sqrt (+ (* x x) (* y y))))
(distance-from-origin 3 4) => 5
```

Distance of a 3-d point from the origin

```
(define (distance-from-origin x y)
    (sqrt (+ (* x x) (* y y))))

If we have a point
  (define p '(5 -8))
how we can't use (distance-from-origin p)

We can use apply
  (apply distance-from-origin p)
```

Using map and apply together

Let's sum up all numbers in a structured (i.e., non-flat) list

```
(define (sum-all lst)
 (cond [(number? lst) lst]
        [(list? lst) (apply + (map sum-all lst))]
        [else
         (error 'sum-all
                "~v isn't a number or list"
                lst)]))
(sum-all '(1 2 (3 4 (5) () 6) 8)) => 29
(sum-all '(1 2 (x))) => error
```

General map implementation

Give this a try on your own!

Hints

- Start with (define (map proc . lsts) ...)
- Define a helper function (map1 proc lst) that applies a single-argument proc to the elements of lst
- ▶ Define a helper function (define (map-a lsts acc) ...)
- Use map1 to get the heads and tails of elements in 1sts
- Use apply to apply proc to the heads and cons the result onto acc

```
(define (map proc . lsts)
  (define (map1 proc lst) ...)
  (define (map-a lsts acc)
        ... (apply proc heads) ...)
  (map-a lsts empty))
```