

DATA STRUCTURES IN SCHEME

In Scheme, lists and S-expressions are basic. Arrays can be simulated using lists, but access to elements “deep” in the list can be slow (since a list is a linked structure).

To access an element deep within a list we can use:

- **(list-tail L k)**
This returns list **L** after removing the first **k** elements. For example,
(list-tail '(1 2 3 4 5) 2) ⇒ (3 4 5)
- **(list-ref L k)**
This returns the **k**-th element in **L** (counting from 0). For example,
(list-ref '(1 2 3 4 5) 2) ⇒ 3

VECTORS IN SCHEME

Scheme provides a vector type that directly implements one dimensional arrays.

Literals are of the form `#(...)`

For example, `#(1 2 3)` or `#(1 2.0 "three")`

The function `(vector? val)` tests whether `val` is a vector or not.

`(vector? 'abc) ⇒ #f`

`(vector? '(a b c)) ⇒ #f`

`(vector? #(a b c)) ⇒ #t`

The function `(vector v1 v2 ...)` evaluates `v1`, `v2`, ... and puts them into a vector.

`(vector 1 2 3) ⇒ #(1 2 3)`

The function `(make-vector k val)` creates a vector composed of `k` copies of `val`. Thus

```
(make-vector 4 (/ 1 2)) ⇒  
  #(1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2)
```

The function `(vector-ref vect k)` returns the `k`-th element of `vect`, starting at position 0. It is essentially the same as `vect[k]` in C or Java. For example,

```
(vector-ref #(2 4 6 8 10) 3) ⇒ 8
```

The function

`(vector-set! vect k val)` sets the `k`-th element of `vect`, starting at position 0, to be `val`. It is essentially the same as `vect[k]=val` in C or Java. The value returned by the function is unspecified. The suffix “!” in `set!` indicates that the function has a side-effect.

For example,

```
(define v #(1 2 3 4 5))
```

```
(vector-set! v 2 0)
```

```
v ⇒ #(1 2 0 4 5)
```

Vectors *aren't* lists (and lists *aren't* vectors).

Thus `(car #(1 2 3))` doesn't work.

There are conversion routines:

- `(vector->list v)` converts vector `v` to a list containing the same values as `v`. For example,
`(vector->list #(1 2 3)) ⇒ (1 2 3)`
- `(list->vector l)` converts list `l` to a vector containing the same values as `l`. For example,
`(list->vector '(1 2 3)) ⇒ #(1 2 3)`

- In general Scheme names a conversion function from type **T** to type **Q** as **T->Q**. For example, **string->list** converts a **string** into a **list** containing the characters in the string.

RECORDS AND STRUCTS

In Scheme we can represent a record, struct, or class object as an *association list* of the form

```
((obj1 val1) (obj2 val2) ...)
```

In the association list, which is a list of (**object value**) sublists, **object** serves as a “key” to locate the desired sublist.

For example, the association list

```
( (A 10) (B 20) (C 30) )
```

serves the same role as

```
struct
```

```
{ int a = 10;  
  int b = 20;  
  int c = 30; }
```

The predefined Scheme function `(assoc obj alist)` checks `alist` (an association list) to see if it contains a sublist with `obj` as its head. If it does, the list starting with `obj` is returned; otherwise `#f` (indicating failure) is returned.

For example,

```
(define L
  '( (a 10) (b 20) (c 30) ) )
(assoc 'a L) ⇒ (a 10)
(assoc 'b L) ⇒ (b 20)
(assoc 'x L) ⇒ #f
```

We can use non-atomic objects as keys too!

```
(define price-list
  '( ( (bmw m5)      71095)
      ( (bmw z4)    40495)
      ( (jag  xj8)   56975)
      ( (mb  s1500)  86655)
    )
)

(assoc '(bmw z4) price-list)
⇒ ( (bmw z4) 40495)
```


Using **assoc**, we can easily define a **structure** function:

(structure key alist) will return the value associated with **key** in **alist**; in C or Java notation, it returns **alist.key**.

```
(define
  (structure key alist)
  (if (assoc key alist)
      (car (cdr (assoc key alist)))
      #f)
)
```

We can improve this function in two ways:

- The same call to **assoc** is made twice; we can save the value computed by using a **let** expression.
- Often combinations of **car** and **cdr** are needed to extract a value.

Scheme has a number of predefined functions that combine several calls to `car` and `cdr` into one function. For example,

```
(caar x) ≡ (car (car x))
```

```
(cadr x) ≡ (car (cdr x))
```

```
(cdar x) ≡ (cdr (car x))
```

```
(cddr x) ≡ (cdr (cdr x))
```

Using these two insights we can now define a better version of **structure**

```
(define  
  (structure key alist)  
  (let ((p (assoc key alist)))  
    (if p  
      (cadr p)  
      #f  
    )  
  )  
)
```

What does **assoc** do if more than one sublist with the same key exists?

It returns the first sublist with a matching key. In fact, this property can be used to make a simple and fast function that updates association lists:

```
(define
  (set-structure key alist val)
  (cons (list key val) alist)
)
```

If we want to be more space-efficient, we can create a version that updates the internal structure of an association list, using **set-cdr!** which changes the **cdr** value of a list:

```
(define
  (set-structure! key alist val)
  (let ( (p (assoc key alist)))
    (if p
        (begin
          (set-cdr! p (list val))
          alist
        )
        (cons (list key val) alist)
    )
  )
)
```

FUNCTIONS ARE FIRST-CLASS OBJECTS

Functions may be passed as parameters, returned as the value of a function call, stored in data objects, etc.

This is a consequence of the fact that

(lambda (args) (body))
evaluates to a function just as
(+ 1 1)
evaluates to an integer.

Scoping

In Scheme scoping is static (lexical). This means that non-local identifiers are bound to containing lambda parameters, or let values, or globally defined values. For example,

```
(define (f x)
      (lambda (y) (+ x y)))
```

Function **f** takes one parameter, **x**. It returns a function (of **y**), with **x** in the returned function bound to the value of **x** used when **f** was called.

Thus

$$(f\ 10) \equiv (lambda\ (y)\ (+\ 10\ y))$$
$$((f\ 10)\ 12) \Rightarrow 22$$

Unbound symbols are assumed to be globals; there is a run-time error if an unbound global is referenced. For example,

```
(define (p y) (+ x y))  
(p 20) ; error -- x is unbound  
(define x 10)  
(p 20) ⇒ 30
```

We can use let bindings to create private local variables for functions:

```
(define F  
  (let ( (x 1) )  
    (lambda () x)  
  )  
)
```

F is a function (of no arguments).

(F) calls **F**.

```
(define x 22)
```

```
(F) ⇒ 1; x used in F is private
```

We can *encapsulate* internal state with a function by using `private`, `let-bound` variables:

```
(define cnt
  (let ( (I 0) )
    (lambda ()
      (set! I (+ I 1)) I)
    )
  )
```

Now,

`(cnt)` \Rightarrow 1

`(cnt)` \Rightarrow 2

`(cnt)` \Rightarrow 3

etc.

LET BINDINGS CAN BE SUBTLE

You must check to see if the let-bound value is created when the function is *created* or when it is *called*.

Compare

```
(define cnt
  (let ( (I 0) )
    (lambda ()
      (set! I (+ I 1)) I)
    )
  )
```

VS.

```
(define reset
  (lambda ()
    (let ( (I 0) )
      (set! I (+ I 1)) I)
    )
  )
(reset) ⇒ 1, (reset) ⇒ 1, etc.
```

SIMULATING CLASS OBJECTS

Using association lists and private bound values, we can *encapsulate* data and functions. This gives us the effect of class objects.

```
(define (point x y)
  (list
    (list 'rect
          (lambda () (list x y)))
    (list 'polar
          (lambda ()
            (list
              (sqrt (+ (* x x) (* y y)))
              (atan (/ x y))
            )
          )
    )
  )
)
```

A call `(point 1 1)` creates an association list of the form

```
( (rect funct) (polar funct) )
```

We can use **structure** to access components:

```
(define p (point 1 1) )
```

```
( (structure 'rect p) )  $\Rightarrow$  (1 1)
```

```
( (structure 'polar p) )  $\Rightarrow$ 
```

$$\left(\sqrt{2} \frac{\pi}{4} \right)$$

We can add new functionality by just adding new (**id function**) pairs to the association list.

```
(define (point x y)
  (list
    (list 'rect
          (lambda () (list x y)))
    (list 'polar
          (lambda ()
            (list
              (sqrt (+ (* x x) (* y y)))
              (atan (/ x y)))
            ))
  ))
  (list 'set-rect!
        (lambda (newx newy)
          (set! x newx)
          (set! y newy)
          (list x y)
        ))
  (list 'set-polar!
        (lambda (r theta)
          (set! x (* r (sin theta)))
          (set! y (* r (cos theta)))
          (list r theta)
        ))
  ))
```

Now we have

```
(define p (point 1 1) )
```

```
( (structure 'rect p) ) ⇒ (1 1)
```

```
( (structure 'polar p) ) ⇒
```

$$\left(\sqrt{2} \frac{\pi}{4} \right)$$

```
((structure 'set-polar! p) 1 π/4)
```

```
⇒ (1 π/4)
```

```
( (structure 'rect p) ) ⇒
```

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

Limiting Access to Internal Structure

We can improve upon our association list approach by returning a single function (similar to a C++ or Java object) rather than an explicit list of (id function) pairs.

The function will take the name of the desired operation as one of its arguments.

First, let's differentiate between

```
(define def1
  (let ( (I 0) )
    (lambda () (set! I (+ I 1)) I)
  )
)
```

and

```
(define (def2)
  (let ( (I 0) )
    (lambda () (set! I (+ I 1)) I)
  )
)
```

def1 is a zero argument function that increments a local variable and returns its updated value.

def2 is a a zero argument function that *generates* a function of zero arguments (that increments a local variable and returns its updated value). Each call to **def2** creates a *different* function.

Stack Implemented As A Function

```
(define ( stack )
  (let ( ( s ( ) ) )
    (lambda (op . args) ; var # args
      (cond
        ((equal? op 'push!)
         (set! s (cons (car args) s))
         (car s))
        ((equal? op 'pop!)
         (if (null? s)
             #f
             (let ( (top (car s)) )
                 (set! s (cdr s))
                 top )))
        ((equal? op 'empty?)
         (null? s))
        (else #f)
      )
    )
  )
)
```



```
(define stk (stack)) ;new empty stack
(stk 'push! 1) ⇒ 1 ;s = (1)
(stk 'push! 3) ⇒ 3 ;s = (3 1)
(stk 'push! 'x) ⇒ x ;s = (x 3 1)
(stk 'pop!) ⇒ x ;s = (3 1)
(stk 'empty?) ⇒ #f ;s = (3 1)
(stk 'dump) ⇒ #f ;s = (3 1)
```