

## Announcements

- Test on Wednesday starting at 8PM. Room assignments on Piazza.
- No lecture on Wednesday.
- No discussion section this week.
- There are labs this week (and office hours).

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## Lecture 28: Interpreting Scheme

A Scheme is essentially an extension of the calculator:

- A component known as the *reader* reads Scheme values (atoms and pairs).
- Since Scheme expressions and programs are a subset of Scheme values, no further parsing is necessary.
- A function `eval` evaluates Scheme expressions.
  - Atoms are its base cases.
  - For function calls, it uses a function `apply`, as for the calculator.

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## Apply

- The interpreter function `apply(func, args)` has the effect of allowing one to construct and evaluate function calls.
- **Aside:** In Python, we've been writing `func(*args)` to get the effect of `apply(func, args)` in ordinary programs.
- **Aside:** it is made available to Scheme programmers as the built-in function `apply`:

```
(define L '(1 2 3))
(apply + L) ==> (+ 1 2 3) ==> 6
```
- The `apply` function itself has two cases:
  - Either `func` is a primitive, built-in function, in which case, its code is part of the interpreter, or
  - `func` is a user-defined function, in which case its code is stored in it as a Scheme expression, and is evaluated by `eval`.
- So there is a "recursive dance" back and forth between `eval`, and `apply`.

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## Evaluation for Scheme

- Simple expressions are evaluated as for the calculator.
- A Scheme expression consisting of a number simply evaluates to that number.
- A function call  $(E_0 E_1 \dots E_n)$  is evaluated by recursively evaluating the  $E_i$  and then using `apply`.
- But Scheme has a number of other cases to handle.
- **Aside:** As for `apply`, the evaluation function for Scheme is also available to Scheme programmers, in the form of a function `eval`.
- E.g., `(eval (list + 1 2))` and `(eval '(+ 1 2))` produce 3.

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## Evaluation of Symbols

- In Scheme expressions, most symbols represent identifiers, which we did not encounter in the calculator.
- Obviously, we need more information to evaluate a symbol than just the symbol itself.
- Fortunately, we've already seen exactly what is needed: an *environment*.
- Thus, to evaluate a Scheme expression, we will need both the expression itself and the environment in which to evaluate it.
- As it happens, exactly the same kind of structure as in Python—environment frames linked by parent pointers—is what we need to interpret Scheme.
- This is because Scheme uses nearly the same *scope rules* as Python does.
- Earlier dialects of Lisp, however, used a different kind of scope rule.

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## Static and Dynamic Scoping

- The *scope rules* of a language are the rules governing what names (identifiers) mean at each point in a program.
- We call the scope rules of Scheme (and Python)—those that are described by environment diagrams as we've been using them—*static* or *lexical* scoping.
- But in original Lisp, scoping was *dynamic*.

- Example (using classic Lisp notation):

```
(defun f (x) ;; Like (define (f x) ...) in Scheme
  (g))
(defun g ()
  (* x 2))
(setq x 3) ;; Like set! and also defines x at outer level.
(g) ;; ==> 6
(f 2) ;; ==> 4
(g) ;; ==> 6
```

- That is, the meaning of `x` depends on the most recent and still active definition of `x`, even where the reference to `x` is not nested inside the defining function.

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## Eval and Scoping

- Dynamic scoping made `eval` easy to define: interpret any variables according to their "current binding."
- But `eval` in pure Scheme behaves like normal functions; it would not have access to the current binding at the place it is called.
- To make it definable (without tricks) in Scheme, one must add a parameter to `eval` to convey the desired environment.
- In the fifth revision of Scheme, one had the choice of indicating an empty environment and the standard, builtin environment.
- Our STk interpreter goes its own way:
  - `(eval E)` evaluates in the global environment.
  - `(eval E (the-environment))` evaluates in the current environment.
  - `(eval E (procedure-environment f))` evaluates in the environment pointed to by function `f`: what we've been calling the *parent pointer* of a function value.

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## Remaining Cases

- We've dealt with function calls, numbers, and symbols.
- This leaves only the *special forms*.
- All special forms lists indicated by their first symbols:
  - `(quote EXPR)` ; Easy: return `EXPR` unchanged
  - `(lambda (ARGS) EXPR)`
  - `(define ID EXPR)`
  - `(define (ID ARGS) EXPR)`
    - ; Same as `(define ID (lambda (ARGS) EXPR))`
  - `(if EXPR EXPR-IF-TRUE EXPR-IF-FALSE)`
  - `(begin EXPR1 ... EXPRn)` ; Evaluate `EXPRi`, return last
  - `(cond ( (COND-EXPR1 VAL-EXPR1)`
    - `(COND-EXPR2 VAL-EXPR2) ...`
  - `(and EXPR1 EXPR2 ...)`
  - `(or EXPR1 EXPR2 ...)`

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## Lambda and Functions

- In the interpreter, evaluating the lambda special form returns a value of some type for representing functions.
- Its content is dictated by what `apply` will need:
  - `(lambda (ARGS) EXPR)`
    - The list `ARGS`.
    - The body `EXPR`.
    - The parent environment: The environment in which it is evaluated.

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## Other Special Forms

- Handling the other special forms is pretty straightforward:
- The `if` form is typical: to evaluate `(if EXPR EXPR-IF-TRUE EXPR-IF-FALSE)`
  - Evaluate `EXPR`.
  - If returned value is false (`#f`), evaluate `EXPR-IF-FALSE` and return its value.
  - Otherwise, evaluate `EXPR-IF-TRUE` and return its value.

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