This manual documents MIT/GNU Scheme 9.0.1.


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1 Overview

This manual is a detailed description of the MIT/GNU Scheme runtime system. It is intended to be a reference document for programmers. It does not describe how to run Scheme or how to interact with it — that is the subject of the MIT/GNU Scheme User’s Manual.

This chapter summarizes the semantics of Scheme, briefly describes the MIT/GNU Scheme programming environment, and explains the syntactic and lexical conventions of the language. Subsequent chapters describe special forms, numerous data abstractions, and facilities for input and output.

Throughout this manual, we will make frequent references to standard Scheme, which is the language defined by the document Revised*4 Report on the Algorithmic Language Scheme, by William Clinger, Jonathan Rees, et al., or by IEEE Std. 1178-1990, IEEE Standard for the Scheme Programming Language (in fact, several parts of this document are copied from the Revised Report). MIT/GNU Scheme is an extension of standard Scheme.

These are the significant semantic characteristics of the Scheme language:

Variables are statically scoped
- Scheme is a statically scoped programming language, which means that each use of a variable is associated with a lexically apparent binding of that variable. Algol is another statically scoped language.

Types are latent
- Scheme has latent types as opposed to manifest types, which means that Scheme associates types with values (or objects) rather than with variables. Other languages with latent types (also referred to as weakly typed or dynamically typed languages) include APL, Snobol, and other dialects of Lisp. Languages with manifest types (sometimes referred to as strongly typed or statically typed languages) include Algol 60, Pascal, and C.

Objects have unlimited extent
- All objects created during a Scheme computation, including procedures and continuations, have unlimited extent; no Scheme object is ever destroyed. The system doesn’t run out of memory because the garbage collector reclaims the storage occupied by an object when the object cannot possibly be needed by a future computation. Other languages in which most objects have unlimited extent include APL and other Lisp dialects.

Proper tail recursion
- Scheme is properly tail-recursive, which means that iterative computation can occur in constant space, even if the iterative computation is described by a syntactically recursive procedure. With a tail-recursive implementation, you can express iteration using the ordinary procedure-call mechanics; special iteration expressions are provided only for syntactic convenience.

Procedures are objects
- Scheme procedures are objects, which means that you can create them dynamically, store them in data structures, return them as the results of other procedures, and so on. Other languages with such procedure objects include Common Lisp and ML.
Continuations are explicit
In most other languages, continuations operate behind the scenes. In Scheme, continuations are objects; you can use continuations for implementing a variety of advanced control constructs, including non-local exits, backtracking, and coroutines.

Arguments are passed by value
Arguments to Scheme procedures are passed by value, which means that Scheme evaluates the argument expressions before the procedure gains control, whether or not the procedure needs the result of the evaluations. ML, C, and APL are three other languages that pass arguments by value. In languages such as SASL and Algol 60, argument expressions are not evaluated unless the values are needed by the procedure.

Scheme uses a parenthesized-list Polish notation to describe programs and (other) data. The syntax of Scheme, like that of most Lisp dialects, provides for great expressive power, largely due to its simplicity. An important consequence of this simplicity is the susceptibility of Scheme programs and data to uniform treatment by other Scheme programs. As with other Lisp dialects, the read primitive parses its input; that is, it performs syntactic as well as lexical decomposition of what it reads.

1.1 Notational Conventions
This section details the notational conventions used throughout the rest of this document.

1.1.1 Errors
When this manual uses the phrase “an error will be signalled,” it means that Scheme will call error, which normally halts execution of the program and prints an error message.

When this manual uses the phrase “it is an error,” it means that the specified action is not valid in Scheme, but the system may or may not signal the error. When this manual says that something “must be,” it means that violating the requirement is an error.

1.1.2 Examples
This manual gives many examples showing the evaluation of expressions. The examples have a common format that shows the expression being evaluated on the left hand side, an “arrow” in the middle, and the value of the expression written on the right. For example:

\[(+ 1 2) \Rightarrow 3\]

Sometimes the arrow and value will be moved under the expression, due to lack of space. Occasionally we will not care what the value is, in which case both the arrow and the value are omitted.

If an example shows an evaluation that results in an error, an error message is shown, prefaced by ‘\[\texttt{error}\]’:

\[(+ 1 \texttt{foo}) \texttt{error} \text{ Illegal datum}\]

An example that shows printed output marks it with ‘\[-\]’:

\[(\text{begin (write 'foo) 'bar})\]
\[-\texttt{foo}\]
\[\Rightarrow \texttt{bar}\]
When this manual indicates that the value returned by some expression is unspecified, it means that the expression will evaluate to some object without signalling an error, but that programs should not depend on the value in any way.

### 1.1.3 Entry Format

Each description of an MIT/GNU Scheme variable, special form, or procedure begins with one or more header lines in this format:

```template
[category]
```

where category specifies the kind of item ("variable", "special form", or "procedure"). The form of template is interpreted depending on category.

**Variable**  
Template consists of the variable's name.

**Special Form**  
*Template* starts with the syntactic keyword of the special form, followed by a description of the special form's syntax. The description is written using the following conventions.

Named components are italicized in the printed manual, and uppercase in the Info file. “Noise” keywords, such as the `else` keyword in the `cond` special form, are set in a fixed width font in the printed manual; in the Info file they are not distinguished. Parentheses indicate themselves.

A horizontal ellipsis (\ldots \, . . .) is describes repeated components. Specifically,

- **thing \ldots** indicates zero \ldots more occurrences of thing, while
  - **thing \ldots thing** indicates one \ldots more occurrences of thing.

Brackets, [ ], enclose optional components.

Several special forms (e.g. `lambda`) have an internal component consisting of a series of expressions; usually these expressions are evaluated sequentially under conditions that are specified in the description of the special form. This sequence of expressions is commonly referred to as the body of the special form.

**Procedure**  
*Template* starts with the name of the variable to which the procedure is bound, followed by a description of the procedure’s arguments. The arguments are described using “lambda list” notation (see Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15), except that brackets are used to denote optional arguments, and ellipses are used to denote “rest” arguments.

The names of the procedure’s arguments are italicized in the printed manual, and uppercase in the Info file.

When an argument names a Scheme data type, it indicates that the argument must be that type of data object. For example,

```cdr pair
```

indicates that the standard Scheme procedure `cdr` takes one argument, which must be a pair.
Many procedures signal an error when an argument is of the wrong type; usually this error is a condition of type `condition-type:wrong-type-argument`.

In addition to the standard data-type names (pair, list, boolean, string, etc.), the following names as arguments also imply type restrictions:

- `object`: any object
- `thunk`: a procedure of no arguments
- `x, y`: real numbers
- `q, n`: integers
- `k`: an exact non-negative integer

Some examples:

```scheme
list object ... [procedure]
```
indicates that the standard Scheme procedure `list` takes zero or more arguments, each of which may be any Scheme object.

```scheme
write-char char [output-port] [procedure]
```
indicates that the standard Scheme procedure `write-char` must be called with a character, `char`, and may also be called with a character and an output port.

### 1.2 Scheme Concepts

#### 1.2.1 Variable Bindings

Any identifier that is not a syntactic keyword may be used as a variable (see Section 1.3.3 [Identifiers], page 10). A variable may name a location where a value can be stored. A variable that does so is said to be **bound** to the location. The value stored in the location to which a variable is bound is called the variable’s **value**. (The variable is sometimes said to name the value or to be bound to the value.)

A variable may be bound but still not have a value; such a variable is said to be **unassigned**. Referencing an unassigned variable is an error. When this error is signalled, it is a condition of type `condition-type:unassigned-variable`; sometimes the compiler does not generate code to signal the error. Unassigned variables are useful only in combination with side effects (see Section 2.5 [Assignments], page 22).

#### 1.2.2 Environment Concepts

An **environment** is a set of variable bindings. If an environment has no binding for a variable, that variable is said to be **unbound** in that environment. Referencing an unbound variable signals a condition of type `condition-type:unbound-variable`.

A new environment can be created by **extending** an existing environment with a set of new bindings. Note that “extending an environment” does **not** modify the environment; rather, it creates a new environment that contains the new bindings and the old ones. The new bindings **shadow** the old ones; that is, if an environment that contains a binding for `x` is extended with a new binding for `x`, then only the new binding is seen when `x` is looked up in the extended environment. Sometimes we say that the original environment is the **parent** of the new one, or that the new environment is a **child** of the old one, or that the new environment **inherits** the bindings in the old one.
Procedure calls extend an environment, as do let, let*, letrec, and do expressions. Internal definitions (see Section 2.4.2 [Internal Definitions], page 21) also extend an environment. (Actually, all the constructs that extend environments can be expressed in terms of procedure calls, so there is really just one fundamental mechanism for environment extension.) A top-level definition (see Section 2.4.1 [Top-Level Definitions], page 21) may add a binding to an existing environment.

1.2.3 Initial and Current Environments

MIT/GNU Scheme provides an initial environment that contains all of the variable bindings described in this manual. Most environments are ultimately extensions of this initial environment. In Scheme, the environment in which your programs execute is actually a child (extension) of the environment containing the system’s bindings. Thus, system names are visible to your programs, but your names do not interfere with system programs.

The environment in effect at some point in a program is called the current environment at that point. In particular, every REP loop has a current environment. (REP stands for “read-eval-print”; the REP loop is the Scheme program that reads your input, evaluates it, and prints the result.) The environment of the top-level REP loop (the one you are in when Scheme starts up) starts as user-initial-environment, although it can be changed by the ge procedure. When a new REP loop is created, its environment is determined by the program that creates it.

1.2.4 Static Scoping

Scheme is a statically scoped language with block structure. In this respect, it is like Algol and Pascal, and unlike most other dialects of Lisp except for Common Lisp.

The fact that Scheme is statically scoped (rather than dynamically bound) means that the environment that is extended (and becomes current) when a procedure is called is the environment in which the procedure was created (i.e. in which the procedure’s defining lambda expression was evaluated), not the environment in which the procedure is called. Because all the other Scheme binding expressions can be expressed in terms of procedures, this determines how all bindings behave.

Consider the following definitions, made at the top-level REP loop (in the initial environment):

```
(define x 1)
(define (f x) (g 2))
(define (g y) (+ x y))
(f 5) ⇒ 3 ; not 7
```

Here f and g are bound to procedures created in the initial environment. Because Scheme is statically scoped, the call to g from f extends the initial environment (the one in which g was created) with a binding of y to 2. In this extended environment, y is 2 and x is 1. (In a dynamically bound Lisp, the call to g would extend the environment in effect during the call to f, in which x is bound to 5 by the call to f, and the answer would be 7.)

Note that with static scoping, you can tell what binding a variable reference refers to just from looking at the text of the program; the referenced binding cannot depend on how the program is used. That is, the nesting of environments (their parent-child relationship) corresponds to the nesting of binding expressions in program text. (Because
of this connection to the text of the program, static scoping is also called *lexical* scoping.)

For each place where a variable is bound in a program there is a corresponding *region* of the program text within which the binding is effective. For example, the region of a binding established by a `lambda` expression is the entire body of the `lambda` expression. The documentation of each binding expression explains what the region of the bindings it makes is. A use of a variable (that is, a reference to or assignment of a variable) refers to the innermost binding of that variable whose region contains the variable use. If there is no such region, the use refers to the binding of the variable in the global environment (which is an ancestor of all other environments, and can be thought of as a region in which all your programs are contained).

### 1.2.5 True and False

In Scheme, the boolean values true and false are denoted by `#t` and `#f`. However, any Scheme value can be treated as a boolean for the purpose of a conditional test. This manual uses the word *true* to refer to any Scheme value that counts as true, and the word *false* to refer to any Scheme value that counts as false. In conditional tests, all values count as true except for `#f`, which counts as false (see Section 2.7 [Conditionals], page 24).

### 1.2.6 External Representations

An important concept in Scheme is that of the *external representation* of an object as a sequence of characters. For example, an external representation of the integer 28 is the sequence of characters ‘28’, and an external representation of a list consisting of the integers 8 and 13 is the sequence of characters ‘(8 13)’.

The external representation of an object is not necessarily unique. The integer 28 also has representations ‘#e28.000’ and ‘#x1c’, and the list in the previous paragraph also has the representations ‘( 08 13 )’ and ‘(8 . (13 . ( )))’.

Many objects have standard external representations, but some, such as procedures and circular data structures, do not have standard representations (although particular implementations may define representations for them).

An external representation may be written in a program to obtain the corresponding object (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22).

External representations can also be used for input and output. The procedure `read` parses external representations, and the procedure `write` generates them. Together, they provide an elegant and powerful input/output facility.

Note that the sequence of characters ‘(+ 2 6)’ is not an external representation of the integer 8, even though it is an expression that evaluates to the integer 8; rather, it is an external representation of a three-element list, the elements of which are the symbol `+` and the integers 2 and 6. Scheme’s syntax has the property that any sequence of characters that is an expression is also the external representation of some object. This can lead to confusion, since it may not be obvious out of context whether a given sequence of characters is intended to denote data or program, but it is also a source of power, since it facilitates writing programs such as interpreters and compilers that treat programs as data or data as programs.
1.2.7 Disjointness of Types

Every object satisfies at most one of the following predicates (but see Section 1.2.5 [True and False], page 8, for an exception):

- `bit-string?`
- `environment?`
- `port?`
- `symbol?`
- `boolean?`
- `null?`
- `procedure?`
- `vector?`
- `cell?`
- `number?`
- `promise?`
- `weak-pair?`
- `char?`
- `pair?`
- `string?`
- `condition?`

1.2.8 Storage Model

This section describes a model that can be used to understand Scheme’s use of storage.

Variables and objects such as pairs, vectors, and strings implicitly denote locations or sequences of locations. A string, for example, denotes as many locations as there are characters in the string. (These locations need not correspond to a full machine word.) A new value may be stored into one of these locations using the `string-set!` procedure, but the string continues to denote the same locations as before.

An object fetched from a location, by a variable reference or by a procedure such as `car`, `vector-ref`, or `string-ref`, is equivalent in the sense of `eqv?` to the object last stored in the location before the fetch.

Every location is marked to show whether it is in use. No variable or object ever refers to a location that is not in use. Whenever this document speaks of storage being allocated for a variable or object, what is meant is that an appropriate number of locations are chosen from the set of locations that are not in use, and the chosen locations are marked to indicate that they are now in use before the variable or object is made to denote them.

In many systems it is desirable for constants (i.e. the values of literal expressions) to reside in read-only memory. To express this, it is convenient to imagine that every object that denotes locations is associated with a flag telling whether that object is mutable or immutable. The constants and the strings returned by `symbol->string` are then the immutable objects, while all objects created by other procedures are mutable. It is an error to attempt to store a new value into a location that is denoted by an immutable object. Note that the MIT/GNU Scheme compiler takes advantage of this property to share constants, but that these constants are not immutable. Instead, two constants that are `equal?` may be `eq?` in compiled code.

1.3 Lexical Conventions

This section describes Scheme’s lexical conventions.

1.3.1 Whitespace

Whitespace characters are spaces, newlines, tabs, and page breaks. Whitespace is used to improve the readability of your programs and to separate tokens from each other, when necessary. (A token is an indivisible lexical unit such as an identifier or number.) Whitespace is otherwise insignificant. Whitespace may occur between any two tokens, but not within a token. Whitespace may also occur inside a string, where it is significant.
1.3.2 Delimiters

All whitespace characters are delimiters. In addition, the following characters act as delimiters:

( ) ; " ' ' |

Finally, these next characters act as delimiters, despite the fact that Scheme does not define any special meaning for them:

[ ] { }

For example, if the value of the variable name is "max":

(list"Hi"name(+ 1 2)) ⇒ ("Hi" "max" 3)

1.3.3 Identifiers

An identifier is a sequence of one or more non-delimiter characters. Identifiers are used in several ways in Scheme programs:

- An identifier can be used as a variable or as a syntactic keyword.
- When an identifier appears as a literal or within a literal, it denotes a symbol.

Scheme accepts most of the identifiers that other programming languages allow. MIT/GNU Scheme allows all of the identifiers that standard Scheme does, plus many more.

MIT/GNU Scheme defines a potential identifier to be a sequence of non-delimiter characters that does not begin with either of the characters ‘#’ or ‘,’. Any such sequence of characters that is not a syntactically valid number (see Chapter 4 [Numbers], page 61) is considered to be a valid identifier. Note that, although it is legal for ‘#’ and ‘,’ to appear in an identifier (other than in the first character position), it is poor programming practice.

Here are some examples of identifiers:

lambda q
list->vector soup
+ V17a
<=? a34kTMNs
the-word-recursion-has-many-meanings

1.3.4 Uppercase and Lowercase

Scheme doesn’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase forms of a letter except within character and string constants; in other words, Scheme is case-insensitive. For example, ‘Foo’ is the same identifier as ‘FOO’, and ‘#x1AB’ is the same number as ‘#X1ab’. But ‘#\a’ and ‘#\A’ are different characters.

1.3.5 Naming Conventions

A predicate is a procedure that always returns a boolean value (#t or #f). By convention, predicates usually have names that end in ‘?’.

A mutation procedure is a procedure that alters a data structure. By convention, mutation procedures usually have names that end in ‘!’.
1.3.6 Comments

The beginning of a comment is indicated with a semicolon (;). Scheme ignores everything on a line in which a semicolon appears, from the semicolon until the end of the line. The entire comment, including the newline character that terminates it, is treated as whitespace.

An alternative form of comment (sometimes called an extended comment) begins with the characters ‘#|’ and ends with the characters ‘|#’. This alternative form is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension. As with ordinary comments, all of the characters in an extended comment, including the leading ‘#|’ and trailing ‘|#’, are treated as whitespace. Comments of this form may extend over multiple lines, and additionally may be nested (unlike the comments of the programming language C, which have a similar syntax).

;;; This is a comment about the FACT procedure. Scheme
;;; ignores all of this comment. The FACT procedure computes
;;; the factorial of a non-negative integer.

#|
This is an extended comment.
Such comments are useful for commenting out code fragments.
|

(define fact
 (lambda (n)
   (if (= n 0) ;This is another comment:
     1 ;Base case: return 1
     (* n (fact (- n 1)))))

1.3.7 Additional Notations

The following list describes additional notations used in Scheme. See Chapter 4 [Numbers], page 61, for a description of the notations used for numbers.

+ - . The plus sign, minus sign, and period are used in numbers, and may also occur in an identifier. A delimited period (not occurring within a number or identifier) is used in the notation for pairs and to indicate a “rest” parameter in a formal parameter list (see Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15).

( ) Parentheses are used for grouping and to notate lists (see Chapter 7 [Lists], page 109).

"" The double quote delimits strings (see Chapter 6 [Strings], page 91).

\ The backslash is used in the syntax for character constants (see Chapter 5 [Characters], page 79) and as an escape character within string constants (see Chapter 6 [Strings], page 91).

; The semicolon starts a comment.

' The single quote indicates literal data; it suppresses evaluation (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22).

` The backquote indicates almost-constant data (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22).
The comma is used in conjunction with the backquote (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22).

A comma followed by an at-sign is used in conjunction with the backquote (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22).

The sharp (or pound) sign has different uses, depending on the character that immediately follows it:

These character sequences denote the boolean constants (see Section 10.1 [Booleans], page 133).

This character sequence introduces a character constant (see Chapter 5 [Characters], page 79).

This character sequence introduces a vector constant (see Chapter 8 [Vectors], page 125). A close parenthesis, ’)’, terminates a vector constant.

These character sequences are used in the notation for numbers (see Chapter 4 [Numbers], page 61).

This character sequence introduces an extended comment. The comment is terminated by the sequence ‘|#’. This notation is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

This character sequence is used to denote a small set of named constants. Currently there are only two of these, #'optional and #'rest, both of which are used in the lambda special form to mark certain parameters as being “optional” or “rest” parameters. This notation is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

This character sequence introduces a bit string (see Chapter 9 [Bit Strings], page 129). This notation is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

This character sequence is used to denote objects that do not have a readable external representation (see Section 14.7 [Custom Output], page 196). A close bracket, ’]’, terminates the object’s notation. This notation is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

This character sequence is a convenient shorthand used to refer to objects by their hash number (see Section 14.7 [Custom Output], page 196). This notation is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

These character sequences introduce a notation used to show circular structures in printed output, or to denote them in input. The notation works much like that in Common Lisp, and is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension.

### 1.4 Expressions

A Scheme expression is a construct that returns a value. An expression may be a literal, a variable reference, a special form, or a procedure call.
1.4.1 Literal Expressions

Literal constants may be written by using an external representation of the data. In general, the external representation must be quoted (see Section 2.6 [Quoting], page 22); but some external representations can be used without quotation.

"abc" ⇒ "abc"
145932 ⇒ 145932
#t ⇒ #t
#\a ⇒ #\a

The external representation of numeric constants, string constants, character constants, and boolean constants evaluate to the constants themselves. Symbols, pairs, lists, and vectors require quoting.

1.4.2 Variable References

An expression consisting of an identifier (see Section 1.3.3 [Identifiers], page 10) is a variable reference; the identifier is the name of the variable being referenced. The value of the variable reference is the value stored in the location to which the variable is bound. An error is signalled if the referenced variable is unbound or unassigned.

(define x 28)
x ⇒ 28

1.4.3 Special Form Syntax

(keyword component ...)

A parenthesized expression that starts with a syntactic keyword is a special form. Each special form has its own syntax, which is described later in the manual.

Note that syntactic keywords and variable bindings share the same namespace. A local variable binding may shadow a syntactic keyword, and a local syntactic-keyword definition may shadow a variable binding.

The following list contains all of the syntactic keywords that are defined when MIT/GNU Scheme is initialized:

access and begin
case cond cons-stream
declare define define-integrable define-structure define-syntax
delay do er-macro-transformer
fluid-let if lambda
let let* let*-syntax
let-syntax letrec letrec-syntax
local-declare named-lambda non-hygienic-macro-transformer
or quasiquote quote
rsc-macro-transformer sc-macro-transformer set!
syntax-rules the-environment

1.4.4 Procedure Call Syntax

(operator operand ...)

A *procedure call* is written by simply enclosing in parentheses expressions for the procedure to be called (the *operator*) and the arguments to be passed to it (the *operands*). The *operator* and *operand* expressions are evaluated and the resulting procedure is passed the resulting arguments. See Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15, for a more complete description of this.

Another name for the procedure call expression is *combination*. This word is more specific in that it always refers to the expression; “procedure call” sometimes refers to the *process* of calling a procedure.

Unlike some other dialects of Lisp, Scheme always evaluates the operator expression and the operand expressions with the same evaluation rules, and the order of evaluation is unspecified.

\[
(+ \ 3 \ 4) \quad \Rightarrow \quad 7
\]

\[
((\text{if} \ \#f = *) \ 3 \ 4) \quad \Rightarrow \quad 12
\]

A number of procedures are available as the values of variables in the initial environment; for example, the addition and multiplication procedures in the above examples are the values of the variables `+` and `*`. New procedures are created by evaluating *lambda* expressions.

If the *operator* is a syntactic keyword, then the expression is not treated as a procedure call: it is a special form.
2 Special Forms

A special form is an expression that follows special evaluation rules. This chapter describes the basic Scheme special forms.

2.1 Lambda Expressions

\texttt{lambda formals expression expression \ldots \ [special form]}

A \texttt{lambda} expression evaluates to a procedure. The environment in effect when the \texttt{lambda} expression is evaluated is remembered as part of the procedure; it is called the \textit{closing environment}. When the procedure is later called with some arguments, the closing environment is extended by binding the variables in the formal parameter list to fresh locations, and the locations are filled with the arguments according to rules about to be given. The new environment created by this process is referred to as the \textit{invocation environment}.

Once the invocation environment has been constructed, the \textit{expressions} in the body of the \texttt{lambda} expression are evaluated sequentially in it. This means that the region of the variables bound by the \texttt{lambda} expression is all of the \textit{expressions} in the body. The result of evaluating the last expression in the body is returned as the result of the procedure call.

\textit{Formals}, the formal parameter list, is often referred to as a \textit{lambda list}.

The process of matching up formal parameters with arguments is somewhat involved. There are three types of parameters, and the matching treats each in sequence:

- **Required** All of the \textit{required} parameters are matched against the arguments first. If there are fewer arguments than required parameters, an error of type \texttt{condition-type:wrong-number-of-arguments} is signalled; this error is also signalled if there are more arguments than required parameters and there are no further parameters.

- **Optional** Once the required parameters have all been matched, the \textit{optional} parameters are matched against the remaining arguments. If there are fewer arguments than optional parameters, the unmatched parameters are bound to special objects called \textit{default objects}. If there are more arguments than optional parameters, and there are no further parameters, an error of type \texttt{condition-type:wrong-number-of-arguments} is signalled.

  The predicate \texttt{default-object?}, which is true only of default objects, can be used to determine which optional parameters were supplied, and which were defaulted.

- **Rest** Finally, if there is a rest parameter (there can only be one), any remaining arguments are made into a list, and the list is bound to the rest parameter. (If there are no remaining arguments, the rest parameter is bound to the empty list.)

  In Scheme, unlike some other Lisp implementations, the list to which a rest parameter is bound is always freshly allocated. It has infinite extent and may be modified without affecting the procedure’s caller.
Specially recognized keywords divide the formals parameters into these three classes. The keywords used here are ‘#!optional’, ‘.’, and ‘#!rest’. Note that only ‘.’ is defined by standard Scheme — the other keywords are MIT/GNU Scheme extensions. ‘#!rest’ has the same meaning as ‘.’ in formals.

The use of these keywords is best explained by means of examples. The following are typical lambda lists, followed by descriptions of which parameters are required, optional, and rest. We will use ‘#!rest’ in these examples, but anywhere it appears ‘.’ could be used instead.

(a b c) a, b, and c are all required. The procedure must be passed exactly three arguments.

(a b #!optional c) a and b are required, c is optional. The procedure may be passed either two or three arguments.

(#!optional a b c) a, b, and c are all optional. The procedure may be passed any number of arguments between zero and three, inclusive.

a

(#!rest a) These two examples are equivalent. a is a rest parameter. The procedure may be passed any number of arguments. Note: this is the only case in which ‘.’ cannot be used in place of ‘#!rest’.

(a b #!optional c d #!rest e) a and b are required, c and d are optional, and e is rest. The procedure may be passed two or more arguments.

Some examples of lambda expressions:

(lambda (x) (+ x x)) ⇒ #[compound-procedure 53]

((lambda (x) (+ x x)) 4) ⇒ 8

(define reverse-subtract
 (lambda (x y)
   (- y x)))

(reverse-subtract 7 10) ⇒ 3

(define foo
 (let ((x 4))
   (lambda (y) (+ x y))))

(foo 6) ⇒ 10

named-lambda formals expression expression . . . [special form]

The named-lambda special form is similar to lambda, except that the first “required parameter” in formals is not a parameter but the name of the resulting procedure; thus formals must have at least one required parameter. This name has no semantic meaning, but is included in the external representation of the procedure, making
it useful for debugging. In MIT/GNU Scheme, \texttt{lambda} is implemented as \texttt{named-lambda}, with a special name that means “unnamed”.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(named-lambda} \ (f \ x) \ (+ \ x \ x)) & \Rightarrow \ [\text{compound-procedure} \ 53 \ f] \\
((\text{named-lambda} \ (f \ x) \ (+ \ x \ x)) \ 4) & \Rightarrow \ 8
\end{align*}
\]

### 2.2 Lexical Binding

The three binding constructs \texttt{let}, \texttt{let*}, and \texttt{letrec}, give Scheme block structure. The syntax of the three constructs is identical, but they differ in the regions they establish for their variable bindings. In a \texttt{let} expression, the initial values are computed before any of the variables become bound. In a \texttt{let*} expression, the evaluations and bindings are sequentially interleaved. And in a \texttt{letrec} expression, all the bindings are in effect while the initial values are being computed (thus allowing mutually recursive definitions).

**let** \((\text{variable init}) \ldots)\ expression expression \ldots \ [\text{special form}]

- The \texttt{init}s are evaluated in the current environment (in some unspecified order), the \texttt{variables} are bound to fresh locations holding the results, the \texttt{expressions} are evaluated sequentially in the extended environment, and the value of the last \texttt{expression} is returned. Each binding of a \texttt{variable} has the \texttt{expressions} as its region.

- MIT/GNU Scheme allows any of the \texttt{init}s to be omitted, in which case the corresponding \texttt{variables} are unassigned.

- Note that the following are equivalent:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(let} \ ((\text{variable init}) \ldots)\ expression \ expression \ldots) \\
((\text{lambda} \ (\text{variable} \ldots)\ expression \ expression \ldots) \ \text{init} \ \ldots)
\end{align*}
\]

Some examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(let} \ ((x \ 2) \ (y \ 3)) \\
(* \ x \ y)) & \Rightarrow \ 6 \\
\text{(let} \ ((x \ 2) \ (y \ 3)) \\
(\text{let} \ ((\text{foo} \ (\text{lambda} \ (z) \ (+ \ x \ y \ z))) \\
(x \ 7)) \\
(\text{foo} \ 4))) & \Rightarrow \ 9
\end{align*}
\]

- See Section 2.9 [Iteration], page 27, for information on “named \texttt{let}”.

**let*** \((\text{variable init}) \ldots)\ expression expression \ldots \ [\text{special form}]

- \texttt{let*} is similar to \texttt{let}, but the bindings are performed sequentially from left to right, and the region of a binding is that part of the \texttt{let*} expression to the right of the binding. Thus the second binding is done in an environment in which the first binding is visible, and so on.

- Note that the following are equivalent:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(let*} \ ((\text{variable1 init1}) \\
(\text{variable2 init2}) \\
\ldots \\
(\text{variableN initN})) \\
expression \\
expression \ \ldots)
\end{align*}
\]
(let ((variable1 init1))
  (let ((variable2 init2))
    ...
    (let ((variableN initN))
      expression
      expression ...
    ...
  )
)

An example:
  (let ((x 2) (y 3))
    (let* ((x 7)
           (z (+ x y)))
      (* z x)))
⇒ 70

letrec ((variable init) ...) expression expression ... [special form]
The variables are bound to fresh locations holding unassigned values, the inits are evaluated in the extended environment (in some unspecified order), each variable is assigned to the result of the corresponding init, the expressions are evaluated sequentially in the extended environment, and the value of the last expression is returned. Each binding of a variable has the entire letrec expression as its region, making it possible to define mutually recursive procedures.

MIT/GNU Scheme allows any of the inits to be omitted, in which case the corresponding variables are unassigned.

(letrec ((even? (lambda (n)
                  (if (zero? n)
                    #t
                    (odd? (- n 1)))))
         (odd? (lambda (n)
                  (if (zero? n)
                    #f
                    (even? (- n 1)))))
         (even? 88))
⇒ #t

One restriction on letrec is very important: it shall be possible to evaluated each init without assigning or referring to the value of any variable. If this restriction is violated, then it is an error. The restriction is necessary because Scheme passes arguments by value rather than by name. In the most common uses of letrec, all the inits are lambda or delay expressions and the restriction is satisfied automatically.

2.3 Dynamic Binding

fluid-let ((variable init) ...) expression expression ... [special form]
The inits are evaluated in the current environment (in some unspecified order), the current values of the variables are saved, the results are assigned to the variables, the
expressions are evaluated sequentially in the current environment, the variables are restored to their original values, and the value of the last expression is returned.

The syntax of this special form is similar to that of let, but fluid-let temporarily rebinds existing variables. Unlike let, fluid-let creates no new bindings; instead it assigns the value of each init to the binding (determined by the rules of lexical scoping) of its corresponding variable.

MIT/GNU Scheme allows any of the inits to be omitted, in which case the corresponding variables are temporarily unassigned.

An error of type condition-type:unbound-variable is signalled if any of the variables are unbound. However, because fluid-let operates by means of side effects, it is valid for any variable to be unassigned when the form is entered.

Here is an example showing the difference between fluid-let and let. First see how let affects the binding of a variable:

```scheme
(define variable #t)
(define (access-variable) variable)
variable ⇒ #t
(let ((variable #f))
  (access-variable)) ⇒ #t
variable ⇒ #t
```

access-variable returns #t in this case because it is defined in an environment with variable bound to #t. fluid-let, on the other hand, temporarily reuses an existing variable:

```scheme
variable ⇒ #t
(fluid-let ((variable #f)) ;reuses old binding
  (access-variable)) ⇒ #f
variable ⇒ #t
```

The extent of a dynamic binding is defined to be the time period during which the variable contains the new value. Normally this time period begins when the body is entered and ends when it is exited; on a sequential machine it is normally a contiguous time period. However, because Scheme has first-class continuations, it is possible to leave the body and then reenter it, as many times as desired. In this situation, the extent becomes non-contiguous.

When the body is exited by invoking a continuation, the new value is saved, and the variable is set to the old value. Then, if the body is reentered by invoking a continuation, the old value is saved, and the variable is set to the new value. In addition, side effects to the variable that occur both inside and outside of body are preserved, even if continuations are used to jump in and out of body repeatedly.

Here is a complicated example that shows the interaction between dynamic binding and continuations:
(define (complicated-dynamic-binding)
  (let ((variable 1)
         (inside-continuation))
    (write-line variable)
    (call-with-current-continuation
     (lambda (outside-continuation)
      (fluid-let ((variable 2))
        (write-line variable)
        (set! variable 3)
        (call-with-current-continuation
         (lambda (k)
          (set! inside-continuation k)
          (outside-continuation #t)))
        (write-line variable)
        (set! inside-continuation #f))))
    (write-line variable)
    (if inside-continuation
        (begin
         (set! variable 4)
         (inside-continuation #f)))))
Evaluating `(complicated-dynamic-binding)` writes the following on the console:

```
1
2
1
3
4
```

Commentary: the first two values written are the initial binding of `variable` and its new binding after the `fluid-let`’s body is entered. Immediately after they are written, `variable` is set to ‘3’, and then `outside-continuation` is invoked, causing us to exit the body. At this point, ‘1’ is written, demonstrating that the original value of `variable` has been restored, because we have left the body. Then we set `variable` to ‘4’ and reenter the body by invoking `inside-continuation`. At this point, ‘3’ is written, indicating that the side effect that previously occurred within the body has been preserved. Finally, we exit body normally, and write ‘4’, demonstrating that the side effect that occurred outside of the body was also preserved.

### 2.4 Definitions

**define** `variable` `expression` \[special form\]

**define** `formals` `expression` `expression` ... \[special form\]

Definitions are valid in some but not all contexts where expressions are allowed. Definitions may only occur at the top level of a program and at the beginning of a lambda body (that is, the body of a `lambda`, `let`, `let*`, `letrec`, `fluid-let`, or “procedure define” `expression`). A definition that occurs at the top level of a program is called a top-level definition, and a definition that occurs at the beginning of a body is called an internal definition.
In the second form of define (called “procedure define”), the component formals is identical to the component of the same name in a named-lambda expression. In fact, these two expressions are equivalent:

```
(define (name1 name2 ...)  
  expression  
  expression ...)
```

```
(define name1  
  (named-lambda (name1 name2 ...)  
    expression  
    expression ...))
```

### 2.4.1 Top-Level Definitions

A top-level definition,

```
(define variable expression)
```

has essentially the same effect as this assignment expression, if variable is bound:

```
(set! variable expression)
```

If variable is not bound, however, define binds variable to a new location in the current environment before performing the assignment (it is an error to perform a set! on an unbound variable). If you omit expression, the variable becomes unassigned; an attempt to reference such a variable is an error.

```
(define add3 (lambda (x) (+ x 3)))  
⇒ unspecified

(add3 3)  
⇒ 6
```

```
(define first car)  
⇒ unspecified

(first '(1 2))  
⇒ 1
```

```
(define bar)  
⇒ unspecified

bar  
error Unassigned variable
```

### 2.4.2 Internal Definitions

An internal definition is a definition that occurs at the beginning of a body (that is, the body of a lambda, let, let*, letrec, fluid-let, or “procedure define” expression), rather than at the top level of a program. The variable defined by an internal definition is local to the body. That is, variable is bound rather than assigned, and the region of the binding is the entire body. For example,

```
(let ((x 5))  
  (define foo (lambda (y) (bar x y)))  
  (define bar (lambda (a b) (+ (* a b) a)))  
  (foo (+ x 3)))  
⇒ 45
```

A body containing internal definitions can always be converted into a completely equivalent letrec expression. For example, the let expression in the above example is equivalent to
(let ((x 5))
  (letrec ((foo (lambda (y) (bar x y)))
           (bar (lambda (a b) (+ (* a b) a))))
    (foo (+ x 3))))

2.5 Assignments

\[\text{set!} \ \text{variable} \ [\text{expression}] \ \text{[special form]}\]

If \text{expression} is specified, evaluates \text{expression} and stores the resulting value in the
location to which \text{variable} is bound. If \text{expression} is omitted, \text{variable} is altered to be
unassigned; a subsequent reference to such a \text{variable} is an error. In either case, the
value of the \text{set!} expression is unspecified.

\text{Variable} must be bound either in some region enclosing the \text{set!} expression, or at
the top level. However, \text{variable} is permitted to be unassigned when the \text{set!} form
is entered.

\begin{align*}
\text{(define x 2)} & \Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
\text{(+ x 1)} & \Rightarrow 3 \\
\text{(set! x 4)} & \Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
\text{(+ x 1)} & \Rightarrow 5
\end{align*}

\text{Variable} may be an \text{access} expression (see Chapter 13 [Environments], page 179).
This allows you to assign variables in an arbitrary environment. For example,

\begin{align*}
\text{(define x (let ((y 0)) (the-environment)))} \\
\text{(define y 'a)} \\
\text{y} & \Rightarrow \text{a} \\
\text{(access y x)} & \Rightarrow 0 \\
\text{(set! (access y x) 1)} & \Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
\text{y} & \Rightarrow \text{a} \\
\text{(access y x)} & \Rightarrow 1
\end{align*}

2.6 Quoting

This section describes the expressions that are used to modify or prevent the evaluation of
objects.

\[\text{quote} \ \text{datum} \ \text{[special form]}\]

(quote \text{datum}) evaluates to \text{datum}. \text{Datum} may be any external representation of a
Scheme object (see Section 1.2.6 [External Representations], page 8). Use \text{quote} to
include literal constants in Scheme code.

\begin{align*}
\text{(quote a)} & \Rightarrow \text{a} \\
\text{(quote #(a b c))} & \Rightarrow \text{#(a b c)} \\
\text{(quote (+ 1 2))} & \Rightarrow (+ 1 2)
\end{align*}

(quote \text{datum}) may be abbreviated as \text{'datum}. The two notations are equivalent in
all respects.
Chapter 2: Special Forms

Numeric constants, string constants, character constants, and boolean constants evaluate to themselves, so they don’t need to be quoted.

```
'\a'  ⇒  a
'(#(a b c))'  ⇒  #(a b c)
'(+ 1 2)'  ⇒  (+ 1 2)
'(quote a)'  ⇒  (quote a)
''\a'  ⇒  (quote a)
```

Quasiquote `template`

“Backquote” or “quasiquote” expressions are useful for constructing a list or vector structure when most but not all of the desired structure is known in advance. If no commas appear within the `template`, the result of evaluating `template` is equivalent (in the sense of `equal?`) to the result of evaluating `template`. If a comma appears within the `template`, however, the expression following the comma is evaluated (“unquoted”) and its result is inserted into the structure instead of the comma and the expression. If a comma appears followed immediately by an at-sign (@), then the following expression shall evaluate to a list; the opening and closing parentheses of the list are then “stripped away” and the elements of the list are inserted in place of the comma at-sign expression sequence.

```
'(list ,(+ 1 2) 4)  ⇒  (list 3 4)
(let ((name 'a)) '(list ,name ',name))  ⇒  (list a 'a)
'(a ,(+ 1 2) ,@(map abs '(4 -5 6)) b)  ⇒  (a 3 4 5 6 b)
'((foo ,(- 10 3)) ,@(cdr '(c)) ,,(car '(cons)))  ⇒  ((foo 7) . cons)
'(#(10 5 ,(sqrt 4) ,@(map sqrt '(16 9)) 8)  ⇒  #(10 5 2 4 3 8)
',(+ 2 3)  ⇒  5
```

Quasiquote forms may be nested. Substitutions are made only for unquoted components appearing at the same nesting level as the outermost backquote. The nesting level increases by one inside each successive quasiquote, and decreases by one inside each unquotation.
'(a '(b ,(+ 1 2) ,foo ,(+ 1 3) d) e) f)  
⇒ (a '(b ,(+ 1 2) ,foo 4 d) e) f)

(let ((name1 'x)  
       (name2 'y))  
  '(a '(b ,,name1 ,',name2 d) e))  
⇒ (a '(b ,x ,'y d) e)

The notations ‘template and (quasiquote template) are identical in all respects.
,expression is identical to (unquote expression) and ,@expression is identical to (unquote-splicing expression).

(quasiquote (list (unquote (+ 1 2)) 4))  
⇒ (list 3 4)

'(quasiquote (list (unquote (+ 1 2)) 4))  
⇒ '(list ,(+ 1 2) 4)  
i.e., (quasiquote (list (unquote (+ 1 2)) 4))

Unpredictable behavior can result if any of the symbols quasiquote, unquote, or unquote-splicing appear in a template in ways otherwise than as described above.

2.7 Conditionals

The behavior of the conditional expressions is determined by whether objects are true or false. The conditional expressions count only #f as false. They count everything else, including #t, pairs, symbols, numbers, strings, vectors, and procedures as true (but see Section 1.2.5 [True and False], page 8).

In the descriptions that follow, we say that an object has “a true value” or “is true” when the conditional expressions treat it as true, and we say that an object has “a false value” or “is false” when the conditional expressions treat it as false.

if predicate consequent [alternative]  
[special form]

Predicate, consequent, and alternative are expressions. An if expression is evaluated as follows: first, predicate is evaluated. If it yields a true value, then consequent is evaluated and its value is returned. Otherwise alternative is evaluated and its value is returned. If predicate yields a false value and no alternative is specified, then the result of the expression is unspecified.

An if expression evaluates either consequent or alternative, never both. Programs should not depend on the value of an if expression that has no alternative.

(if (> 3 2) 'yes 'no)  ⇒ yes  
(if (> 2 3) 'yes 'no)  ⇒ no  
(if (> 3 2)  
  (- 3 2)  
  (+ 3 2))  ⇒ 1

cond clause clause ...  
[special form]

Each clause has this form:

  (predicate expression ...)

where \textit{predicate} is any expression. The last \textit{clause} may be an \texttt{else} clause, which has the form:

\begin{verbatim}
(else expression expression ...)
\end{verbatim}

A \texttt{cond} expression does the following:

1. Evaluates the \textit{predicate} expressions of successive \textit{clauses} in order, until one of the \textit{predicates} evaluates to a true value.

2. When a \textit{predicate} evaluates to a true value, \texttt{cond} evaluates the \textit{expressions} in the associated \textit{clause} in left to right order, and returns the result of evaluating the last \textit{expression} in the \textit{clause} as the result of the entire \texttt{cond} expression.

If the selected \textit{clause} contains only the \textit{predicate} and no \textit{expressions}, \texttt{cond} returns the value of the \textit{predicate} as the result.

3. If all \textit{predicates} evaluate to false values, and there is no \texttt{else} clause, the result of the conditional expression is unspecified; if there is an \texttt{else} clause, \texttt{cond} evaluates its \textit{expressions} (left to right) and returns the value of the last one.

\begin{verbatim}
(cond ((> 3 2) 'greater)
     ((< 3 2) 'less)) ⇒ greater
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
(cond ((> 3 3) 'greater)
     ((< 3 3) 'less)
     (else 'equal)) ⇒ equal
\end{verbatim}

Normally, programs should not depend on the value of a \texttt{cond} expression that has no \texttt{else} clause. However, some Scheme programmers prefer to write \texttt{cond} expressions in which at least one of the \textit{predicates} is always true. In this style, the final \textit{clause} is equivalent to an \texttt{else} clause.

Scheme supports an alternative \texttt{clause} syntax:

\begin{verbatim}
(predicate => recipient)
\end{verbatim}

where \textit{recipient} is an expression. If \textit{predicate} evaluates to a true value, then \textit{recipient} is evaluated. Its value must be a procedure of one argument; this procedure is then invoked on the value of the \textit{predicate}.

\begin{verbatim}
(cond ((assv 'b '((a 1) (b 2))) => cadr)
     (else #f)) ⇒ 2
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{case} \textit{key} \textit{clause} \textit{clause} ... [special form]

\textit{Key} may be any expression. Each \textit{clause} has this form:

\begin{verbatim}
((object ...) expression expression ...)
\end{verbatim}

No \textit{object} is evaluated, and all the \textit{objects} must be distinct. The last \textit{clause} may be an \texttt{else} \textit{clause}, which has the form:

\begin{verbatim}
(else expression expression ...)
\end{verbatim}

A \texttt{case} expression does the following:

1. Evaluates \textit{key} and compares the result with each \textit{object}.

2. If the result of evaluating \textit{key} is equivalent (in the sense of \texttt{eqv?}; see Chapter 3 \textit{[Equivalence Predicates], page 55}) to an \textit{object}, \texttt{case} evaluates the \textit{expressions} in the corresponding \textit{clause} from left to right and returns the result of evaluating the last \textit{expression} in the \textit{clause} as the result of the \texttt{case} expression.
3. If the result of evaluating key is different from every object, and if there’s an else clause, case evaluates its expressions and returns the result of the last one as the result of the case expression. If there’s no else clause, case returns an unspecified result. Programs should not depend on the value of a case expression that has no else clause.

For example,

\[
\text{(case (* 2 3)}
\begin{array}{l}
\text{((2 3 5 7) ’prime)}
\text{((1 4 6 8 9) ’composite))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{composite}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\text{(case (car ’(c d))}
\begin{array}{l}
\text{((a) ’a)}
\text{((b) ’b))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{unspecified}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\text{(case (car ’(c d))}
\begin{array}{l}
\text{((a e i o u) ’vowel)}
\text{((w y) ’semivowel)}
\text{(else ’consonant))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{consonant}
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{and expression . . . [special form]}\]

The expressions are evaluated from left to right, and the value of the first expression that evaluates to a false value is returned. Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all the expressions evaluate to true values, the value of the last expression is returned. If there are no expressions then #t is returned.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(and (= 2 2) (> 2 1))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#t}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(and (= 2 2) (< 2 1))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#f}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(and 1 2 ’c ’(f g))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{(f g)}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(and)} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#t}
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{or expression . . . [special form]}\]

The expressions are evaluated from left to right, and the value of the first expression that evaluates to a true value is returned. Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all expressions evaluate to false values, the value of the last expression is returned. If there are no expressions then #f is returned.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(or (= 2 2) (> 2 1))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#t}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(or (= 2 2) (< 2 1))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#t}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(or #f #f #f)} \\
\Rightarrow \text{#f}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(or (memq ’b ’(a b c)) (/ 3 0))} \\
\Rightarrow \text{(b c)}
\end{array}
\]

2.8 Sequencing

The begin special form is used to evaluate expressions in a particular order.

\[\text{begin expression expression . . . [special form]}\]

The expressions are evaluated sequentially from left to right, and the value of the last expression is returned. This expression type is used to sequence side effects such as input and output.
(define x 0)
(begin (set! x 5)
  (+ x 1)) ⇒ 6

(begin (display "4 plus 1 equals "))
(display (+ 4 1))) ⊨ 4 plus 1 equals 5
⇒ unspecified

Often the use of begin is unnecessary, because many special forms already support sequences of expressions (that is, they have an implicit begin). Some of these special forms are:

- case
- cond
- define ;"procedure define" only
- do
- fluid-let
- lambda
- let
- let*
- letrec
- named-lambda

The obsolete special form sequence is identical to begin. It should not be used in new code.

2.9 Iteration

The iteration expressions are: “named let” and do. They are also binding expressions, but are more commonly referred to as iteration expressions. Because Scheme is properly tail-recursive, you don’t need to use these special forms to express iteration; you can simply use appropriately written “recursive” procedure calls.

let name ((variable init) ...) expression expression ... [special form]

MIT/GNU Scheme permits a variant on the syntax of let called “named let” which provides a more general looping construct than do, and may also be used to express recursions.

Named let has the same syntax and semantics as ordinary let except that name is bound within the expressions to a procedure whose formal arguments are the variables and whose body is the expressions. Thus the execution of the expressions may be repeated by invoking the procedure named by name.

MIT/GNU Scheme allows any of the inits to be omitted, in which case the corresponding variables are unassigned.

Note: the following expressions are equivalent:
(let name (((variable init) ...) 
  expression 
  expression ...)) 

((letrec ((name 
  (named-lambda (name variable ...) 
    expression 
    expression ...))) 
  name) 
  init ...) 

Here is an example:

(let loop 
  ((numbers '(3 -2 1 6 -5)) 
   (nonneg '()) 
   (neg '())) 
  (cond ((null? numbers) 
    (list nonneg neg)) 
    ((>= (car numbers) 0) 
     (loop (cdr numbers) 
     (cons (car numbers) nonneg) 
     neg)) 
    (else 
     (loop (cdr numbers) 
     nonneg 
     (cons (car numbers) neg))))))) 
⇒ ((6 1 3) (-5 -2)) 

**do** ((variable init step)...) *(test expression ...)* command [special form] 

... 

do is an iteration construct. It specifies a set of variables to be bound, how they are to be initialized at the start, and how they are to be updated on each iteration. When a termination condition is met, the loop exits with a specified result value.

do expressions are evaluated as follows: The init expressions are evaluated (in some unspecified order), the variables are bound to fresh locations, the results of the init expressions are stored in the bindings of the variables, and then the iteration phase begins.

Each iteration begins by evaluating test; if the result is false, then the command expressions are evaluated in order for effect, the step expressions are evaluated in some unspecified order, the variables are bound to fresh locations, the results of the steps are stored in the bindings of the variables, and the next iteration begins.

If test evaluates to a true value, then the expressions are evaluated from left to right and the value of the last expression is returned as the value of the do expression. If no expressions are present, then the value of the do expression is unspecified in standard Scheme; in MIT/GNU Scheme, the value of test is returned.
The region of the binding of a variable consists of the entire do expression except for the inits. It is an error for a variable to appear more than once in the list of do variables.

A step may be omitted, in which case the effect is the same as if (variable init variable) had been written instead of (variable init).

```
(do ((vec (make-vector 5))
    (i 0 (+ i 1)))
   (= i 5 vec)
   (vector-set! vec i i))  ⇒  #(0 1 2 3 4)
```

```
(let ((x '(1 3 5 7 9)))
 (do ((x x (cdr x))
      (sum 0 (+ sum (car x))))
    ((null? x) sum)))  ⇒  25
```

### 2.10 Structure Definitions

This section provides examples and describes the options and syntax of `define-structure`, an MIT/GNU Scheme macro that is very similar to `defstruct` in Common Lisp. The differences between them are summarized at the end of this section. For more information, see Steele’s Common Lisp book.

**define-structure** (name structure-option ...) slot-description ... [special form]

Each slot-description takes one of the following forms:

```
slot-name
(slot-name default-init [slot-option value]*)
```

The fields name and slot-name must both be symbols. The field default-init is an expression for the initial value of the slot. It is evaluated each time a new instance is constructed. If it is not specified, the initial content of the slot is undefined. Default values are only useful with a BOA constructor with argument list or a keyword constructor (see below).

Evaluation of a `define-structure` expression defines a structure descriptor and a set of procedures to manipulate instances of the structure. These instances are represented as records by default (see Section 10.4 [Records], page 138) but may alternately be lists or vectors. The accessors and modifiers are marked with compiler declarations so that calls to them are automatically transformed into appropriate references. Often, no options are required, so a simple call to `define-structure` looks like:

```
(define-structure foo a b c)
```

This defines a type descriptor `rtd:foo`, a constructor `make-foo`, a predicate `foo?`, accessors `foo-a`, `foo-b`, and `foo-c`, and modifiers `set-foo-a!`, `set-foo-b!`, and `set-foo-c!`.

In general, if no options are specified, `define-structure` defines the following (using the simple call above as an example):
type descriptor

The name of the type descriptor is "rtd:" followed by the name of the structure, e.g. 'rtd:foo'. The type descriptor satisfies the predicate record-type?.

constructor

The name of the constructor is "make-" followed by the name of the structure, e.g. 'make-foo'. The number of arguments accepted by the constructor is the same as the number of slots; the arguments are the initial values for the slots, and the order of the arguments matches the order of the slot definitions.

predicate

The name of the predicate is the name of the structure followed by "?", e.g. 'foo?'. The predicate is a procedure of one argument, which returns #t if its argument is a record of the type defined by this structure definition, and #f otherwise.

accessors

For each slot, an accessor is defined. The name of the accessor is formed by appending the name of the structure, a hyphen, and the name of the slot, e.g. 'foo-a'. The accessor is a procedure of one argument, which must be a record of the type defined by this structure definition. The accessor extracts the contents of the corresponding slot in that record and returns it.

modifiers

For each slot, a modifier is defined. The name of the modifier is formed by appending "set-", the name of the accessor, and "!", e.g. 'set-foo-a!'. The modifier is a procedure of two arguments, the first of which must be a record of the type defined by this structure definition, and the second of which may be any object. The modifier modifies the contents of the corresponding slot in that record to be that object, and returns an unspecified value.

When options are not supplied, (name) may be abbreviated to name. This convention holds equally for structure-options and slot-options. Hence, these are equivalent:

```
(define-structure foo a b c)
(define-structure (foo) (a) b (c))
```
as are

```
(define-structure (foo keyword-constructor) a b c)
(define-structure (foo (keyword-constructor)) a b c)
```

When specified as option values, false and nil are equivalent to #f, and true and t are equivalent to #t.

Possible slot-options are:

**read-only** value [slot option]

When given a value other than #f, this specifies that no modifier should be created for the slot.

**type** type-descriptor [slot option]

This is accepted but not presently used.
Possible structure-options are:

**predicate [name]**

This option controls the definition of a predicate procedure for the structure. If *name* is not given, the predicate is defined with the default name (see above). If *name* is #f, the predicate is not defined at all. Otherwise, *name* must be a symbol, and the predicate is defined with that symbol as its name.

**copier [name]**

This option controls the definition of a procedure to copy instances of the structure. This is a procedure of one argument, a structure instance, that makes a newly allocated copy of the structure and returns it. If *name* is not given, the copier is defined, and the name of the copier is "copy-" followed by the structure name (e.g. ‘copy-foo’). If *name* is #f, the copier is not defined. Otherwise, *name* must be a symbol, and the copier is defined with that symbol as its name.

**print-procedure expression**

Evaluating *expression* must yield a procedure of two arguments, which is used to print instances of the structure. The procedure is an unparsers method (see Section 14.7 [Custom Output], page 196). If the structure instances are records, this option has the same effect as calling set-record-type-unparser-method!.

**constructor [name [argument-list]]**

This option controls the definition of constructor procedures. These constructor procedures are called “BOA constructors”, for “By Order of Arguments”, because the arguments to the constructor specify the initial contents of the structure’s slots by the order in which they are given. This is as opposed to “keyword constructors”, which specify the initial contents using keywords, and in which the order of arguments is irrelevant.

If *name* is not given, a constructor is defined with the default name and arguments (see above). If *name* is #f, no constructor is defined; *argument-list* may not be specified in this case. Otherwise, *name* must be a symbol, and a constructor is defined with that symbol as its name. If *name* is a symbol, *argument-list* is optionally allowed; if it is omitted, the constructor accepts one argument for each slot in the structure definition, in the same order in which the slots appear in the definition. Otherwise, *argument-list* must be a lambda list (see Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15), and each of the parameters of the lambda list must be the name of a slot in the structure. The arguments accepted by the constructor are defined by this lambda list. Any slot that is not specified by the lambda list is initialized to the default-init as specified above; likewise for any slot specified as an optional parameter when the corresponding argument is not supplied.

If the constructor option is specified, the default constructor is not defined. Additionally, the constructor option may be specified multiple times to define multiple constructors with different names and argument lists.

```
(define-structure (foo
  (constructor make-foo (#!optional a b)))
  (a 6 read-only #t)
  (b 9))
```
keyword-constructor [name]  [structure option]
This option controls the definition of keyword constructor procedures. A keyword constructor is a procedure that accepts arguments that are alternating slot names and values. If name is omitted, a keyword constructor is defined, and the name of the constructor is "make-" followed by the name of the structure (e.g. 'make-foo'). Otherwise, name must be a symbol, and a keyword constructor is defined with this symbol as its name.

If the keyword-constructor option is specified, the default constructor is not defined. Additionally, the keyword-constructor option may be specified multiple times to define multiple keyword constructors; this is usually not done since such constructors would all be equivalent.

   (define-structure (foo (keyword-constructor make-bar)) a b)
   (foo-a (make-bar 'b 20 'a 19)) \to 19

type-descriptor name  [structure option]
This option cannot be used with the type or named options.

By default, structures are implemented as records. The name of the structure is defined to hold the type descriptor of the record defined by the structure. The type-descriptor option specifies a different name to hold the type descriptor.

   (define-structure foo a b)
   foo \to #\record-type 18

   (define-structure (bar (type-descriptor <bar>)) a b)
   bar \error Unbound variable: bar
   <bar> \to #\record-type 19

conc-name [name]  [structure option]
By default, the prefix for naming accessors and modifiers is the name of the structure followed by a hyphen. The conc-name option can be used to specify an alternative. If name is not given, the prefix is the name of the structure followed by a hyphen (the default). If name is #f, the slot names are used directly, without prefix. Otherwise, name must a symbol, and that symbol is used as the prefix.

   (define-structure (foo (conc-name moby/)) a b)
   defines accessors moby/a and moby/b, and modifiers set-moby/a! and set-moby/b!.

   (define-structure (foo (conc-name #f)) a b)
   defines accessors a and b, and modifiers set-a! and set-b!.

type representation-type  [structure option]
This option cannot be used with the type-descriptor option.

By default, structures are implemented as records. The type option overrides this default, allowing the programmer to specify that the structure be implemented using another data type. The option value representation-type specifies the alternate data type; it is allowed to be one of the symbols vector or list, and the data type used is the one corresponding to the symbol.

If this option is given, and the named option is not specified, the representation will not be tagged, and neither a predicate nor a type descriptor will be defined; also, the print-procedure option may not be given.
(define-structure (foo (type list)) a b)
(make-foo 1 2) ⇒ (1 2)

named [expression] [structure option]
This is valid only in conjunction with the type option and specifies that the structure instances be tagged to make them identifiable as instances of this structure type. This option cannot be used with the type-descriptor option.

In the usual case, where expression is not given, the named option causes a type descriptor and predicate to be defined for the structure (recall that the type option without named suppresses their definition), and also defines a default unparsers method for the structure instances (which can be overridden by the print-procedure option). If the default unparsers method is not wanted then the print-procedure option should be specified as #F. This causes the structure to be printed in its native representation, as a list or vector, which includes the type descriptor. The type descriptor is a unique object, not a record type, that describes the structure instances and is additionally stored in the structure instances to identify them: if the representation type is vector, the type descriptor is stored in the zero-th slot of the vector, and if the representation type is list, it is stored as the first element of the list.

(define-structure (foo (type vector) named) a b c)
(vector-ref (make-foo 1 2 3) 0) ⇒ #[structure-type 52]

If expression is specified, it is an expression that is evaluated to yield a tag object. The expression is evaluated once when the structure definition is evaluated (to specify the unparsers method), and again whenever a predicate or constructor is called. Because of this, expression is normally a variable reference or a constant. The value yielded by expression may be any object at all. That object is stored in the structure instances in the same place that the type descriptor is normally stored, as described above. If expression is specified, no type descriptor is defined, only a predicate.

(define-structure (foo (type vector) (named 'foo)) a b c)
(vector-ref (make-foo 1 2 3) 0) ⇒ foo

safe-accessors [boolean] [structure option]
This option allows the programmer to have some control over the safety of the slot accessors (and modifiers) generated by define-structure. If safe-accessors is not specified, or if boolean is #f, then the accessors are optimized for speed at the expense of safety; when compiled, the accessors will turn into very fast inline sequences, usually one to three machine instructions in length. However, if safe-accessors is specified and boolean is either omitted or #t, then the accessors are optimized for safety, will check the type and structure of their argument, and will be close-coded.

(define-structure (foo safe-accessors) a b c)

initial-offset offset [structure option]
This is valid only in conjunction with the type option. Offset must be an exact non-negative integer and specifies the number of slots to leave open at the beginning of the structure instance before the specified slots are allocated. Specifying an offset of zero is equivalent to omitting the initial-offset option.
If the named option is specified, the structure tag appears in the first slot, followed by the “offset” slots, and then the regular slots. Otherwise, the “offset” slots come first, followed by the regular slots.

```scheme
(define-structure (foo (type vector) (initial-offset 3))
  a b c)
(make-foo 1 2 3) ⇒ #(() () () 1 2 3)
```

The essential differences between MIT/GNU Scheme’s `define-structure` and Common Lisp’s `defstruct` are:

- The default constructor procedure takes positional arguments, in the same order as specified in the definition of the structure. A keyword constructor may be specified by giving the option `keyword-constructor`.
- BOA constructors are described using Scheme lambda lists. Since there is nothing corresponding to `&aux` in Scheme lambda lists, this functionality is not implemented.
- By default, no `copier` procedure is defined.
- The side-effect procedure corresponding to the accessor `foo` is given the name `set-foo`!
- Keywords are ordinary symbols – use `foo` instead of `:foo`.
- The option values `false`, `nil`, `true`, and `t` are treated as if the appropriate boolean constant had been specified instead.
- The `print-function` option is named `print-procedure`. Its argument is a procedure of two arguments (the unparser state and the structure instance) rather than three as in Common Lisp.
- By default, named structures are tagged with a unique object of some kind. In Common Lisp, the structures are tagged with symbols. This depends on the Common Lisp package system to help generate unique tags; MIT/GNU Scheme has no such way to generate unique symbols.
- The named option may optionally take an argument, which is normally the name of a variable (any expression may be used, but it is evaluated whenever the tag name is needed). If used, structure instances will be tagged with that variable’s value. The variable must be defined when `define-structure` is evaluated.
- The type option is restricted to the values `vector` and `list`.
- The include option is not implemented.

### 2.11 Macros

(This section is largely taken from the Revised^4 Report on the Algorithmic Language Scheme. The section on Syntactic Closures is derived from a document written by Chris Hanson. The section on Explicit Renaming is derived from a document written by William Clinger.)

Scheme programs can define and use new derived expression types, called macros. Program-defined expression types have the syntax

```scheme
(keyword datum ...)
```
where *keyword* is an identifier that uniquely determines the expression type. This identifier is called the *syntactic keyword*, or simply *keyword*, of the macro. The number of the *datums*, and their syntax, depends on the expression type.

Each instance of a macro is called a *use* of the macro. The set of rules that specifies how a use of a macro is transcribed into a more primitive expression is called the *transformer* of the macro.

MIT/GNU Scheme also supports *anonymous syntactic keywords*. This means that it’s not necessary to bind a macro transformer to a syntactic keyword before it is used. Instead, any macro-transformer expression can appear as the first element of a form, and the form will be expanded by the transformer.

The macro definition facility consists of these parts:

- A set of expressions used to establish that certain identifiers are macro keywords, associate them with macro transformers, and control the scope within which a macro is defined.
- A standard high-level pattern language for specifying macro transformers, introduced by the *syntax-rules* special form.
- Two non-standard low-level languages for specifying macro transformers, *syntactic closures* and *explicit renaming*.

The syntactic keyword of a macro may shadow variable bindings, and local variable bindings may shadow keyword bindings. All macros defined using the pattern language are “hygienic” and “referentially transparent” and thus preserve Scheme’s lexical scoping:

- If a macro transformer inserts a binding for an identifier (variable or keyword), the identifier will in effect be renamed throughout its scope to avoid conflicts with other identifiers.
- If a macro transformer inserts a free reference to an identifier, the reference refers to the binding that was visible where the transformer was specified, regardless of any local bindings that may surround the use of the macro.

### 2.11.1 Binding Constructs for Syntactic Keywords

*let-syntax*, *letrec-syntax*, *let*-syntax and *define-syntax* are analogous to *let*, *letrec*, *let* and *define*, but they bind syntactic keywords to macro transformers instead of binding variables to locations that contain values.

Any argument named *transformer-spec* must be a macro-transformer expression, which is one of the following:

- A macro transformer defined by the pattern language and denoted by the syntactic keyword *syntax-rules*.
- A macro transformer defined by one of the low-level mechanisms and denoted by one of the syntactic keywords *sc-macro-transformer*, *rsc-macro-transformer*, or *er-macro-transformer*.
- A syntactic keyword bound in the enclosing environment. This is used to bind another name to an existing macro transformer.

```scheme
let-syntax bindings expression expression ... [special form]

Bindings should have the form
```
(((keyword transformer-spec) ...))

Each keyword is an identifier, each transformer-spec is a macro-transformer expression, and the body is a sequence of one or more expressions. It is an error for a keyword to appear more than once in the list of keywords being bound.

The expressions are expanded in the syntactic environment obtained by extending the syntactic environment of the let-syntax expression with macros whose keywords are the keywords, bound to the specified transformers. Each binding of a keyword has the expressions as its region.

(let-syntax (((when (syntax-rules ()
((when test stmt1 stmt2 ...)
 (if test
 (begin stmt1
    stmt2 ...)))))))

(let ((if #t))
 (when if (set! if 'now))
  if)) ⇒ now

(let ((x 'outer))
 (let-syntax ((m (syntax-rules () ((m) x))))
 (let ((x 'inner))
    (m))) ⇒ outer

[letrec-syntax bindings expression expression ...] [special form]

The syntax of letrec-syntax is the same as for let-syntax.

The expressions are expanded in the syntactic environment obtained by extending the syntactic environment of the letrec-syntax expression with macros whose keywords are the keywords, bound to the specified transformers. Each binding of a keyword has the bindings as well as the expressions within its region, so the transformers can transcribe expressions into uses of the macros introduced by the letrec-syntax expression.
```scheme
(letrec-syntax
  ((my-or (syntax-rules ()
            ((my-or) #f)
            ((my-or e) e)
            ((my-or e1 e2 ...)
              (let ((temp e1))
                (if temp
                    temp
                    (my-or e2 ...)))))))

(let ((x #f)
      (y 7)
      (temp 8)
      (let odd?)
      (if even?)
      (my-or x
          (let temp)
          (if y)
          y))
⇒ 7

(let*-syntax bindings expression expression ...
  [special form]

  The syntax of let*-syntax is the same as for let-syntax.

  The expressions are expanded in the syntactic environment obtained by extending the
  syntactic environment of the letrec-syntax expression with macros whose keywords
  are the keywords, bound to the specified transformers. Each binding of a keyword
  has the subsequent bindings as well as the expressions within its region. Thus

  (let*-syntax
    ((a (syntax-rules ...))
    (b (syntax-rules ...)))
    ...)

  is equivalent to

  (let-syntax ((a (syntax-rules ...)))
    (let-syntax ((b (syntax-rules ...)))
      ...))

(define-syntax keyword transformer-spec
  [special form]

  Keyword is an identifier, and transformer-spec is a macro transformer expression.

  The syntactic environment is extended by binding the keyword to the specified trans-
  former.

  The region of the binding introduced by define-syntax is the entire block in which
  it appears. However, the keyword may only be used after it has been defined.

  MIT/GNU Scheme permits define-syntax to appear both at top level and within
  lambda bodies. The Revised^4 Report permits only top-level uses of define-syntax.

  When compiling a program, a top-level instance of define-syntax both defines the
  syntactic keyword and generates code that will redefine the keyword when the program
  is loaded. This means that the same syntax can be used for defining macros that will
  be used during compilation and for defining macros to be used at run time.
```
Although macros may expand into definitions and syntax definitions in any context that permits them, it is an error for a definition or syntax definition to shadow a syntactic keyword whose meaning is needed to determine whether some form in the group of forms that contains the shadowing definition is in fact a definition, or, for internal definitions, is needed to determine the boundary between the group and the expressions that follow the group. For example, the following are errors:

```
(define define 3)
```

```
(begin (define begin list))
```

```
(let-syntax
  ((foo (syntax-rules ()
      ((foo (proc args ...) body ...)
       (define proc
        (lambda (args ...)
          body ...))))))
  (let ((x 3))
    (foo (plus x y) (+ x y))
    (define foo x)
    (plus foo x)))
```

### 2.11.2 Pattern Language

MIT/GNU Scheme supports a high-level pattern language for specifying macro transformers. This pattern language is defined by the Revised^4 Report and is portable to other conforming Scheme implementations. To use the pattern language, specify a transformer-spec as a `syntax-rules` form:

```
syntax-rules literals syntax-rule ... [special form]
```

`Literals` is a list of identifiers and each `syntax-rule` should be of the form

```
(pattern template)
```

The `pattern` in a `syntax-rule` is a list `pattern` that begins with the keyword for the macro.

A `pattern` is either an identifier, a constant, or one of the following

```
(pattern ...)
(pattern pattern ... pattern)
(pattern ... pattern ellipsis)
```

and a template is either an identifier, a constant, or one of the following

```
element ...
element element ... template
```

where an `element` is a `template` optionally followed by an `ellipsis` and an `ellipsis` is the identifier ‘...’ (which cannot be used as an identifier in either a template or a pattern).

An instance of `syntax-rules` produces a new macro transformer by specifying a sequence of hygienic rewrite rules. A use of a macro whose keyword is associated with a transformer specified by `syntax-rules` is matched against the patterns contained
in the syntax-rules, beginning with the leftmost syntax-rule. When a match is found, the macro use is transcribed hygienically according to the template.

An identifier that appears in the pattern of a syntax-rule is a pattern-variable, unless it is the keyword that begins the pattern, is listed in literals, or is the identifier ‘\ldots’. Pattern variables match arbitrary input elements and are used to refer to elements of the input in the template. It is an error for the same pattern variable to appear more than once in a pattern.

The keyword at the beginning of the pattern in a syntax-rule is not involved in the matching and is not considered a pattern variable or literal identifier.

Identifiers that appear in literals are interpreted as literal identifiers to be matched against corresponding subforms of the input. A subform in the input matches a literal identifier if and only if it is an identifier and either both its occurrence in the macro expression and its occurrence in the macro definition have the same lexical binding, or the two identifiers are equal and both have no lexical binding.

A subpattern followed by ‘\ldots’ can match zero or more elements of the input. It is an error for ‘\ldots’ to appear in literals. Within a pattern the identifier ‘\ldots’ must follow the last element of a nonempty sequence of subpatterns.

More formally, an input form \( F \) matches a pattern \( P \) if and only if:

- \( P \) is a non-literal identifier; or
- \( P \) is a literal identifier and \( F \) is an identifier with the same binding; or
- \( P \) is a list \((P_1 \ldots P_n)\) and \( F \) is a list of \( n \) forms that match \( P_1 \) through \( P_n \), respectively; or
- \( P \) is an improper list \((P_1 P_2 \ldots P_n . P_{n+1})\) and \( F \) is a list or improper list of \( n \) or more forms that match \( P_1 \) through \( P_n \), respectively, and whose \( n \)th “cdr” matches \( P_{n+1} \); or
- \( P \) is of the form \((P_1 \ldots P_n P_{n+1} \ldots)\) where ellipsis is the identifier ‘\ldots’ and \( F \) is a proper list of at least \( n \) forms, the first \( n \) of which match \( P_1 \) through \( P_n \), respectively, and each remaining element of \( F \) matches \( P_{n+1} \); or
- \( P \) is a datum and \( F \) is equal to \( P \) in the sense of the equal? procedure.

It is an error to use a macro keyword, within the scope of its binding, in an expression that does not match any of the patterns.

When a macro use is transcribed according to the template of the matching syntax rule, pattern variables that occur in the template are replaced by the subforms they match in the input. Pattern variables that occur in subpatterns followed by one or more instances of the identifier ‘\ldots’ are allowed only in subtemplates that are followed by as many instances of ‘\ldots’. They are replaced in the output by all of the subforms they match in the input, distributed as indicated. It is an error if the output cannot be built up as specified.

Identifiers that appear in the template but are not pattern variables or the identifier ‘\ldots’ are inserted into the output as literal identifiers. If a literal identifier is inserted as a free identifier then it refers to the binding of that identifier within whose scope the instance of syntax-rules appears. If a literal identifier is inserted as a bound identifier then it is in effect renamed to prevent inadvertent captures of free identifiers.
(let ((=> #f))
  (cond (#t => 'ok))) ⇒ ok

The macro transformer for cond recognizes => as a local variable, and hence an expression, and not as the top-level identifier =>, which the macro transformer treats as a syntactic keyword. Thus the example expands into

   (let ((=> #f))
      (if #t (begin => 'ok)))

instead of

   (let ((=> #f))
      (let ((temp #t))
        (if temp
            ('ok temp))))

which would result in an invalid procedure call.

2.11.3 Syntactic Closures

MIT/GNU Scheme’s syntax-transformation engine is an implementation of syntactic closures, a mechanism invented by Alan Bawden and Jonathan Rees. The main feature of the syntactic-closures mechanism is its simplicity and its close relationship to the environment models commonly used with Scheme. Using the mechanism to write macro transformers is somewhat cumbersome and can be confusing for the newly initiated, but it is easily mastered.

2.11.3.1 Syntax Terminology

This section defines the concepts and data types used by the syntactic closures facility.

- **Forms** are the syntactic entities out of which programs are recursively constructed. A form is any expression, any definition, any syntactic keyword, or any syntactic closure. The variable name that appears in a set! special form is also a form. Examples of forms:

  17
  #t
  car
  (+ x 4)
  (lambda (x) x)
  (define pi 3.14159)
  if
  define

- An **alias** is an alternate name for a given symbol. It can appear anywhere in a form that the symbol could be used, and when quoted it is replaced by the symbol; however, it does not satisfy the predicate symbol?. Macro transformers rarely distinguish symbols from aliases, referring to both as identifiers. Another name for an alias is synthetic identifier; this document uses both names.

- A **syntactic environment** maps identifiers to their meanings. More precisely, it determines whether an identifier is a syntactic keyword or a variable. If it is a keyword, the meaning is an interpretation for the form in which that keyword appears. If it is a variable, the meaning identifies which binding of that variable is referenced. In
short, syntactic environments contain all of the contextual information necessary for interpreting the meaning of a particular form.

- A syntactic closure consists of a form, a syntactic environment, and a list of identifiers. All identifiers in the form take their meaning from the syntactic environment, except those in the given list. The identifiers in the list are to have their meanings determined later.

A syntactic closure may be used in any context in which its form could have been used. Since a syntactic closure is also a form, it may not be used in contexts where a form would be illegal. For example, a form may not appear as a clause in the cond special form.

A syntactic closure appearing in a quoted structure is replaced by its form.

2.11.3.2 Transformer Definition

This section describes the special forms for defining syntactic-closures macro transformers, and the associated procedures for manipulating syntactic closures and syntactic environments.

**sc-macro-transformer expression** [special form]

The expression is expanded in the syntactic environment of the sc-macro-transformer expression, and the expanded expression is evaluated in the transformer environment to yield a macro transformer as described below. This macro transformer is bound to a macro keyword by the special form in which the transformer expression appears (for example, let-syntax).

In the syntactic closures facility, a macro transformer is a procedure that takes two arguments, a form and a syntactic environment, and returns a new form. The first argument, the input form, is the form in which the macro keyword occurred. The second argument, the usage environment, is the syntactic environment in which the input form occurred. The result of the transformer, the output form, is automatically closed in the transformer environment, which is the syntactic environment in which the transformer expression occurred.

For example, here is a definition of a push macro using syntax-rules:

```scheme
(define-syntax push
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((push item list)
      (set! list (cons item list)))))
```

Here is an equivalent definition using sc-macro-transformer:

```scheme
(define-syntax push
  (sc-macro-transformer
    (lambda (exp env)
      (let ((item (make-syntactic-closure env '() (cadr exp)))
        (list (make-syntactic-closure env '() (caddr exp)))
        (set! ,list (cons ,item ,list)))))))
```

In this example, the identifiers set! and cons are closed in the transformer environment, and thus will not be affected by the meanings of those identifiers in the usage environment env.
Some macros may be non-hygienic by design. For example, the following defines a `loop` macro that implicitly binds `exit` to an escape procedure. The binding of `exit` is intended to capture free references to `exit` in the body of the loop, so `exit` must be left free when the body is closed:

```
(define-syntax loop
  (sc-macro-transformer
    (lambda (exp env)
      (let ((body (cdr exp)))
        `(call-with-current-continuation
          (lambda (exit)
            (let f ()
              ,@(map (lambda (exp)
                        (make-syntactic-closure env '(exit) exp))
                  body)
              (f))))))))
```

`rsc-macro-transformer` expression  
[special form]

This form is an alternative way to define a syntactic-closures macro transformer. Its syntax and usage are identical to `sc-macro-transformer`, except that the roles of the usage environment and transformer environment are reversed. (Hence RSC stands for Reversed Syntactic Closures.) In other words, the procedure specified by `expression` still accepts two arguments, but its second argument will be the transformer environment rather than the usage environment, and the returned expression is closed in the usage environment rather than the transformer environment.

The advantage of this arrangement is that it allows a simpler definition style in some situations. For example, here is the `push` macro from above, rewritten in this style:

```
(define-syntax push
  (rsc-macro-transformer
    (lambda (exp env)
      `((make-syntactic-closure env '() 'SET!)
       ,caddr exp)
      ((make-syntactic-closure env '() 'CONS)
       ,cadr exp)
       ,caddr exp)))))))
```

In this style only the introduced keywords are closed, while everything else remains open.

Note that `rsc-macro-transformer` and `sc-macro-transformer` are easily interchangeable. Here is how to emulate `rsc-macro-transformer` using `sc-macro-transformer`. (This technique can be used to effect the opposite emulation as well.)
(define-syntax push
  (sc-macro-transformer
   (lambda (exp usage-env)
     (capture-syntactic-environment
      (lambda (env)
        (make-syntactic-closure usage-env '()
          '(',(make-syntactic-closure env '() 'SET!)
            ,(caddr exp)
             ,(make-syntactic-closure env '() 'CONS)
                ,(cadr exp)
                   ,(caddr exp))))))
)

To assign meanings to the identifiers in a form, use `make-syntactic-closure` to close the form in a syntactic environment.

`make-syntactic-closure environment free-names form`  [procedure]

*Environment* must be a syntactic environment, *free-names* must be a list of identifiers, and *form* must be a form. `make-syntactic-closure` constructs and returns a syntactic closure of *form* in *environment*, which can be used anywhere that *form* could have been used. All the identifiers used in *form*, except those explicitly excepted by *free-names*, obtain their meanings from *environment*.

Here is an example where *free-names* is something other than the empty list. It is instructive to compare the use of *free-names* in this example with its use in the `loop` example above: the examples are similar except for the source of the identifier being left free.

```
(make-syntactic-closure
  environment
  free-names
  form)
```

`let1` is a simplified version of `let` that only binds a single identifier, and whose body consists of a single expression. When the body expression is syntactically closed in its original syntactic environment, the identifier that is to be bound by `let1` must be left free, so that it can be properly captured by the `lambda` in the output form.

```
(define-syntax let1
  (sc-macro-transformer
   (lambda (exp env)
     (let ((id (cadr exp))
            (init (caddr exp))
            (exp (cadddr exp)))
       '((lambda (,id)
             ,(make-syntactic-closure env (list id) exp))
               ,(make-syntactic-closure env '() init))))))
```

In most situations, the *free-names* argument to `make-syntactic-closure` is the empty list. In those cases, the more succinct `close-syntactic` can be used:

`close-syntactic form environment`  [procedure]

*Environment* must be a syntactic environment and *form* must be a form. Returns a new syntactic closure of *form* in *environment*, with no free names. Entirely equivalent to

```
(make-syntactic-closure environment '() form)
```
To obtain a syntactic environment other than the usage environment, use `capture-syntactic-environment`.

`capture-syntactic-environment` procedure

`capture-syntactic-environment` returns a form that will, when transformed, call `procedure` on the current syntactic environment. `Procedure` should compute and return a new form to be transformed, in that same syntactic environment, in place of the form.

An example will make this clear. Suppose we wanted to define a simple `loop-until` keyword equivalent to:

```
(define-syntax loop-until
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((loop-until id init test return step)
      (letrec ((loop
        (lambda (id)
          (if test return (loop step))))
        (loop init))))))
```

The following attempt at defining `loop-until` has a subtle bug:

```
(define-syntax loop-until
  (sc-macro-transformer
    (lambda (exp env)
      (let ((id (cadr exp))
            (init (caddr exp))
            (test (cadddr exp))
            (return (cadddr (cdr exp)))
            (step (cadddr (cddr exp)))
            (close
              (lambda (exp free)
                (make-syntactic-closure env free exp))))
        `'(letrec ((loop
          (lambda ,(id)
            (if ,(close test (list id))
              ,(close return (list id))
              (loop ,(close step (list id)))))))
          (loop ,(close init '()))))))
```

This definition appears to take all of the proper precautions to prevent unintended captures. It carefully closes the subexpressions in their original syntactic environment and it leaves the `id` identifier free in the `test`, `return`, and `step` expressions, so that it will be captured by the binding introduced by the `lambda` expression. Unfortunately it uses the identifiers `if` and `loop` within that `lambda` expression, so if the user of `loop-until` just happens to use, say, `if` for the identifier, it will be inadvertently captured.

The syntactic environment that `if` and `loop` want to be exposed to is the one just outside the `lambda` expression: before the user’s identifier is added to the syntactic environment, but after the identifier `loop` has been added. `capture-syntactic-environment` captures exactly that environment as follows:
(define-syntax loop-until
  (sc-macro-transformer
   (lambda (exp env)
     (let (((id (cadr exp))
             (init (caddr exp))
             (test (cadddr exp))
             (return (cadddr (cdr exp)))
             (step (cadddr (cddr exp)))
             (close
              (lambda (exp free)
                (make-syntactic-closure env free exp))))
       '(letrec ((loop
                   ,(capture-syntactic-environment
                     (lambda (env)
                       '(lambda (,id)
                         ,(make-syntactic-closure env '() 'if)
                         ,(close test (list id))
                         ,(close return (list id))
                         ,(make-syntactic-closure env '() 'loop)
                         ,(close step (list id)))))
                       (loop ,close init '())))))))))

In this case, having captured the desired syntactic environment, it is convenient to construct syntactic closures of the identifiers if and the loop and use them in the body of the lambda.

A common use of capture-syntactic-environment is to get the transformer environment of a macro transformer:

(sc-macro-transformer
  (lambda (exp env)
    (capture-syntactic-environment
     (lambda (transformer-env)
      ...)))))

2.11.3.3 Identifiers

This section describes the procedures that create and manipulate identifiers. The identifier data type extends the syntactic closures facility to be compatible with the high-level syntax-rules facility.

As discussed earlier, an identifier is either a symbol or an alias. An alias is implemented as a syntactic closure whose form is an identifier:

(make-syntactic-closure env '() 'a) ⇒ an alias

Aliases are implemented as syntactic closures because they behave just like syntactic closures most of the time. The difference is that an alias may be bound to a new value (for example by lambda or let-syntax); other syntactic closures may not be used this way. If an alias is bound, then within the scope of that binding it is looked up in the syntactic environment just like any other identifier.
Aliases are used in the implementation of the high-level facility `syntax-rules`. A macro transformer created by `syntax-rules` uses a template to generate its output form, substituting subforms of the input form into the template. In a syntactic closures implementation, all of the symbols in the template are replaced by aliases closed in the transformer environment, while the output form itself is closed in the usage environment. This guarantees that the macro transformation is hygienic, without requiring the transformer to know the syntactic roles of the substituted input subforms.

**identifier?** *object*  
Returns `#t` if *object* is an identifier, otherwise returns `#f`. Examples:

```
  (identifier? 'a)       ⇒ #t
  (identifier? (make-syntactic-closure env '() 'a)) ⇒ #t
  (identifier? "a")     ⇒ #f
  (identifier? #\a)      ⇒ #f
  (identifier? 97)       ⇒ #f
  (identifier? #f)       ⇒ #f
  (identifier? '(a))     ⇒ #f
  (identifier? '#(a))    ⇒ #f
```

The predicate `eq?` is used to determine if two identifiers are “the same”. Thus `eq?` can be used to compare identifiers exactly as it would be used to compare symbols. Often, though, it is useful to know whether two identifiers “mean the same thing”. For example, the `cond` macro uses the symbol `else` to identify the final clause in the conditional. A macro transformer for `cond` cannot just look for the symbol `else`, because the `cond` form might be the output of another macro transformer that replaced the symbol `else` with an alias. Instead the transformer must look for an identifier that “means the same thing” in the usage environment as the symbol `else` means in the transformer environment.

**identifier=?** *environment1* *identifier1* *environment2* *identifier2*  
Environments1 and environments2 must be syntactic environments, and identifier1 and identifier2 must be identifiers. `identifier=?` returns `#t` if the meaning of identifier1 in environment1 is the same as that of identifier2 in environment2, otherwise it returns `#f`. Examples:

```
(let-syntax
  ((foo
     (sc-macro-transformer
      (lambda (form env)
        (capture-syntactic-environment
         (lambda (transformer-env)
           (identifier=? transformer-env 'x env 'x))))))))
  (list (foo)
     (let ((x 3))
       (foo))))) ⇒ (#t #f)
(let-syntax ((bar foo))
  (let-syntax
    ((foo
       (sc-macro-transformer
        (lambda (form env)
          (capture-syntactic-environment
           (lambda (transformer-env)
             (identifier=? transformer-env 'foo
              env (cadr form)))))))))
  (list (foo foo)
        (foo bar)))
⇒ (#f #t)

Sometimes it is useful to be able to introduce a new identifier that is guaranteed to
be different from any existing identifier, similarly to the way that \texttt{generate-uninterned-symbol} is used.

\textbf{make-synthetic-identifier \textit{identifier}} \texttt{[procedure]}

Creates and returns and new synthetic identifier (alias) that is guaranteed to be
different from all existing identifiers. \textit{Identifier} is any existing identifier, which is
used in deriving the name of the new identifier.

This is implemented by syntactically closing \textit{identifier} in a special empty environment.

\subsection*{2.11.4 Explicit Renaming}

\textit{Explicit renaming} is an alternative facility for defining macro transformers. In the
MIT/GNU Scheme implementation, explicit-renaming transformers are implemented as an
abstraction layer on top of syntactic closures. An explicit-renaming macro transformer is
declared by an instance of the \texttt{er-macro-transformer} keyword:

\textbf{er-macro-transformer \textit{expression}} \texttt{[special form]}

The \textit{expression} is expanded in the syntactic environment of the \texttt{er-macro-transformer} expression, and the expanded expression is evaluated in the
transformer environment to yield a macro transformer as described below. This
macro transformer is bound to a macro keyword by the special form in which the
\texttt{transformer} expression appears (for example, \texttt{let-syntax}).

In the explicit-renaming facility, a \textit{macro transformer} is a procedure that takes three
arguments, a form, a renaming procedure, and a comparison predicate, and returns
a new form. The first argument, the \textit{input form}, is the form in which the macro
keyword occurred.

The second argument to a transformation procedure is a \textit{renaming procedure} that
takes the representation of an identifier as its argument and returns the representation
of a fresh identifier that occurs nowhere else in the program. For example, the
transformation procedure for a simplified version of the \texttt{let} macro might be written as
(lambda (exp rename compare)
  (let ((vars (map car (cadr exp))))
    (inits (map cadr (cadr exp)))
    (body (cddr exp)))
  "((lambda ,vars ,@body)
   ,@inits"))

This would not be hygienic, however. A hygienic let macro must rename the identifier lambda to protect it from being captured by a local binding. The renaming effectively creates an fresh alias for lambda, one that cannot be captured by any subsequent binding:

(lambda (exp rename compare)
  (let ((vars (map car (cadr exp))))
    (inits (map cadr (cadr exp)))
    (body (cddr exp)))
  "((,(rename 'lambda) ,vars ,@body)
   ,@inits"))

The expression returned by the transformation procedure will be expanded in the syntactic environment obtained from the syntactic environment of the macro application by binding any fresh identifiers generated by the renaming procedure to the denotations of the original identifiers in the syntactic environment in which the macro was defined. This means that a renamed identifier will denote the same thing as the original identifier unless the transformation procedure that renamed the identifier placed an occurrence of it in a binding position.

The renaming procedure acts as a mathematical function in the sense that the identifiers obtained from any two calls with the same argument will be the same in the sense of eqv?. It is an error if the renaming procedure is called after the transformation procedure has returned.

The third argument to a transformation procedure is a comparison predicate that takes the representations of two identifiers as its arguments and returns true if and only if they denote the same thing in the syntactic environment that will be used to expand the transformed macro application. For example, the transformation procedure for a simplified version of the cond macro can be written as

(lambda (exp rename compare)
  (let ((clauses (cdr exp)))
    (if (null? clauses)
      '(,(rename 'quote) unspecified)
      (let* ((first (car clauses))
        (rest (cdr clauses))
        (test (car first))
        (cond ((and (identifier? test)
          (compare test (rename 'else)))
          '',(rename 'begin) ,(cdr first)))
        (else '',(rename 'if)
          ,test
          '',(rename 'begin) ,(cdr first))
        (cond ,@rest)))))
In this example the identifier else is renamed before being passed to the comparison predicate, so the comparison will be true if and only if the test expression is an identifier that denotes the same thing in the syntactic environment of the expression being transformed as else denotes in the syntactic environment in which the cond macro was defined. If else were not renamed before being passed to the comparison predicate, then it would match a local variable that happened to be named else, and the macro would not be hygienic.

Some macros are non-hygienic by design. For example, the following defines a loop macro that implicitly binds exit to an escape procedure. The binding of exit is intended to capture free references to exit in the body of the loop, so exit is not renamed.

```
(define-syntax loop
  (er-macro-transformer
   (lambda (x r c)
     (let ((body (cdr x)))
       '(,(r 'call-with-current-continuation)
      ,,(r 'lambda) (exit)
       ,,(r 'let) ,(r 'f) () ,@body ,(r 'f))))))
```

Suppose a while macro is implemented using loop, with the intent that exit may be used to escape from the while loop. The while macro cannot be written as

```
(define-syntax while
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((while test body ...)
     (loop (if (not test) (exit #f))
           body ...))))
```

because the reference to exit that is inserted by the while macro is intended to be captured by the binding of exit that will be inserted by the loop macro. In other words, this while macro is not hygienic. Like loop, it must be written using the er-macro-transformer syntax:

```
(define-syntax while
  (er-macro-transformer
   (lambda (x r c)
     (let ((test (cadr x))
           (body (cddr x)))
       '(,(r 'loop)
       ,,(r 'if) ,(r 'f) () ,@body ()))))
```

### 2.12 SRFI syntax

Several special forms have been introduced to support some of the Scheme Requests for Implementation (SRFI). Note that MIT/GNU Scheme has for some time supported SRFI 23 (error-reporting mechanism) and SRFI 30 (nested multi-line comments), since these SRFIs reflect existing practice rather than introducing new functionality.
2.12.1 cond-expand (SRFI 0)

SRFI 0 is a mechanism for portably determining the availability of SRFI features. The cond-expand special form conditionally expands according to the features available.

**cond-expand clause clause dots**

Each clause has the form

```
(feature-requirement expression ...)
```

where feature-requirement can have one of the following forms:

- feature-identifier
- (and feature-requirement ...)
- (or feature-requirement ...)
- (not feature-requirement)
- else

(Note that at most one else clause may be present, and it must always be the last clause.)

The cond-expand special form tests for the existence of features at macro-expansion time. It either expands into the body of one of its clauses or signals an error during syntactic processing. cond-expand expands into the body of the first clause whose feature-requirement is currently satisfied (an else clause, if present, is selected if none of the previous clauses is selected).

A feature-requirement has an obvious interpretation as a logical formula, where the feature-identifier variables have meaning true if the feature corresponding to the feature-identifier, as specified in the SRFI registry, is in effect at the location of the cond-expand form, and false otherwise. A feature-requirement is satisfied if its formula is true under this interpretation.

```
(cond-expand
  ((and srfi-1 srfi-10)
   (write 1))
  ((or srfi-1 srfi-10)
   (write 2))
  (else))
```

```
(cond-expand
  (command-line
   (define (program-name) (car (argv)))))
```

The second example assumes that command-line is an alias for some feature which gives access to command line arguments. Note that an error will be signaled at macro-expansion time if this feature is not present.

Note that MIT/GNU Scheme allows cond-expand in any context where a special form is allowed. This is an extension of the semantics defined by SRFI 0, which only allows cond-expand at top level.
2.12.2 receive (SRFI 8)

SRFI 8 defines a convenient syntax to bind an identifier to each of the values of a multiple-valued expression and then evaluate an expression in the scope of the bindings. As an instance of this pattern, consider the following excerpt from a ‘quicksort’ procedure:

```
(call-with-values
  (lambda ()
    (partition (precedes pivot) others))
  (lambda (fore aft)
    (append (qsort fore) (cons pivot (qsort aft))))
)
```

Here ‘partition’ is a multiple-valued procedure that takes two arguments, a predicate and a list, and returns two lists, one comprising the list elements that satisfy the predicate, the other those that do not. The purpose of the expression shown is to partition the list ‘others’, sort each of the sublists, and recombine the results into a sorted list.

For our purposes, the important step is the binding of the identifiers ‘fore’ and ‘aft’ to the values returned by ‘partition’. Expressing the construction and use of these bindings with the call-by-values primitive is cumbersome: One must explicitly embed the expression that provides the values for the bindings in a parameterless procedure, and one must explicitly embed the expression to be evaluated in the scope of those bindings in another procedure, writing as its parameters the identifiers that are to be bound to the values received.

These embeddings are boilerplate, exposing the underlying binding mechanism but not revealing anything relevant to the particular program in which it occurs. So the use of a syntactic abstraction that exposes only the interesting parts – the identifiers to be bound, the multiple-valued expression that supplies the values, and the body of the receiving procedure – makes the code more concise and more readable:

```
(receive (fore aft) (partition (precedes pivot) others)
  (append (qsort fore) (cons pivot (qsort aft))))
```

The advantages are similar to those of a ‘let’ expression over a procedure call with a ‘lambda’ expression as its operator. In both cases, cleanly separating a “header” in which the bindings are established from a “body” in which they are used makes it easier to follow the code.

```
receive formals expression body [special form]
Formals and body are defined as for ‘lambda’ (see Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15). Specifically, formals can have the following forms (the use of ‘#!optional’ and ‘#!rest’ is also allowed in formals but is omitted for brevity):

‘(ident1 ... identN)’
The environment in which the ‘receive’ expression is evaluated is extended by binding ‘ident1, ... , identN’ to fresh locations. The expression is evaluated, and its values are stored into those locations. (It is an error if expression does not have exactly N values.)

‘ident’
The environment in which the ‘receive’ expression is evaluated is extended by binding ‘ident’ to a fresh location. The expression is evaluated, its values are converted into a newly allocated list, and the list is stored in the location bound to ‘ident’.
```
‘(ident1 ... identN . identN+1)’
The environment in which the ‘receive’ expression is evaluated is extended by binding ident1, ..., identN+1 to fresh locations. The expression is evaluated. Its first N values are stored into the locations bound to ident1 ... identN. Any remaining values are converted into a newly allocated list, which is stored into the location bound to identN+1. (It is an error if expression does not have at least N values.)

In any case, the expressions in body are evaluated sequentially in the extended environment. The results of the last expression in the body are the values of the ‘receive’ expression.

2.12.3 and-let* (SRFI 2)
SRFI 2 provides a form that combines ‘and’ and ‘let*’ for a logically short-circuiting sequential binding operator.

and-let* (clause ...) body [special form]
Runs through each of the clauses left-to-right, short-circuiting like ‘and’ in that the first false clause will result in the whole ‘and-let*’ form returning false. If a body is supplied, and all of the clauses evaluate true, then the body is evaluated sequentially as if in a ‘begin’ form, and the value of the ‘and-let*’ expression is the value of the last body form, evaluated in a tail position with respect to the ‘and-let*’ expression. If no body is supplied, the value of the last clause, also evaluated in a tail position with respect to the ‘and-let*’ expression, is used instead.

Each clause should have one of the following forms:
‘identifier’
in which case identifier’s value is tested.

‘(expression)’
in which case the value of expression is tested.

‘(identifier expression)’
in which case expression is evaluated, and, if its value is not false, identifier is bound to that value for the remainder of the clauses and the optional body.

Example:

(and-let* (((list (compute-list)))
 (pair? list))
 (item (car list))
 ((integer? item)))
 (sqrt item))

2.12.4 define-record-type (SRFI 9)
The ‘define-record-type’ syntax described in SRFI 9 is a slight simplification of one written for Scheme 48 by Jonathan Rees. Unlike many record-defining special forms, it does not create any new identifiers. Instead, the names of the record type, predicate, constructor, and so on are all listed explicitly in the source. This has the following advantages:
• It can be defined using a simple macro in Scheme implementations that provide a procedural interface for creating record types.
• It does not restrict users to a particular naming convention.
• Tools like grep and the GNU Emacs tag facility will see the defining occurrence of each identifier.

define-record-type type-name (constructor-name field-tag ...) [special form]
  predicate-name field-spec ...

Type-name, constructor-name, field-tag, and predicate-name are identifiers. Field-spec has one of these two forms:
  (field-tag accessor-name)
  (field-tag accessor-name modifier-name)

where field-tag, accessor-name, and modifier-name are each identifiers.

define-record-type is generative: each use creates a new record type that is distinct from all existing types, including other record types and Scheme’s predefined types. Record-type definitions may only occur at top-level (there are two possible semantics for “internal” record-type definitions, generative and nongenerative, and no consensus as to which is better).

An instance of define-record-type is equivalent to the following definitions:
• Type-name is bound to a representation of the record type itself. Operations on record types, such as defining print methods, reflection, etc. are left to other SRFIs.
• constructor-name is bound to a procedure that takes as many arguments as there are field-tags in the (constructor-name ...) subform and returns a new type-name record. Fields whose tags are listed with constructor-name have the corresponding argument as their initial value. The initial values of all other fields are unspecified.
• predicate-name is a predicate that returns #t when given a value returned by constructor-name and #f for everything else.
• Each accessor-name is a procedure that takes a record of type type-name and returns the current value of the corresponding field. It is an error to pass an accessor a value which is not a record of the appropriate type.
• Each modifier-name is a procedure that takes a record of type type-name and a value which becomes the new value of the corresponding field; an unspecified value is returned. It is an error to pass a modifier a first argument which is not a record of the appropriate type.

Assigning the value of any of these identifiers has no effect on the behavior of any of their original values.

The following
(define-record-type :pare
  (kons x y)
  pare?
  (x kar set-kar!)
  (y kdr))
defines ‘kons’ to be a constructor, ‘kar’ and ‘kdr’ to be accessors, ‘set-kar!’ to be a modifier, and ‘pare?’ to be a predicate for objects of type ‘:pare’.

\[
\begin{align*}
(pare? (kons 1 2)) & \Rightarrow \texttt{#t} \\
(pare? (cons 1 2)) & \Rightarrow \texttt{#f} \\
(kar (kons 1 2)) & \Rightarrow 1 \\
(kdr (kons 1 2)) & \Rightarrow 2 \\
(let ((k (kons 1 2)))
  (set-kar! k 3)) & \\
  (kar k)) & \Rightarrow 3
\end{align*}
\]
3 Equivalence Predicates

A *predicate* is a procedure that always returns a boolean value (\(#t\) or \(#f\)). An *equivalence predicate* is the computational analogue of a mathematical equivalence relation (it is symmetric, reflexive, and transitive). Of the equivalence predicates described in this section, `eq?` is the finest or most discriminating, and `equal?` is the coarsest. `eqv?` is slightly less discriminating than `eq?`.

```plaintext
eqv? obj1 obj2
```

The `eqv?` procedure defines a useful equivalence relation on objects. Briefly, it returns \(#t\) if `obj1` and `obj2` should normally be regarded as the same object.

The `eqv?` procedure returns \(#t\) if:
- `obj1` and `obj2` are both \(#t\) or both \(#f\).
- `obj1` and `obj2` are both interned symbols and
  
  \[
  \text{\(\text{string=? (symbol->string obj1)}\)}
  \text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{\(\text{(symbol->string obj2)})}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\)}}\adastro
```
(eqv? 'a 'a)  ⇒  #t
(eqv? 'a 'b)  ⇒  #f
(eqv? 2 2)  ⇒  #t
(eqv? () ())  ⇒  #t
(eqv? 100000000 100000000)  ⇒  #t
(eqv? (cons 1 2) (cons 1 2))  ⇒  #f
(eqv? (lambda () 1)
     (lambda () 2))  ⇒  #f
(eqv? #f 'nil)  ⇒  #f
(let ((p (lambda (x) x)))
   (eqv? p p))  ⇒  #t

The following examples illustrate cases in which the above rules do not fully specify
the behavior of eqv?. All that can be said about such cases is that the value returned
by eqv? must be a boolean.

(eqv? "" "")  ⇒  unspecified
(eqv? '() '())  ⇒  unspecified
(eqv? (lambda (x) x)
     (lambda (x) x))  ⇒  unspecified
(eqv? (lambda (x) x)
     (lambda (y) y))  ⇒  unspecified

The next set of examples shows the use of eqv? with procedures that have local state.
gen-counter must return a distinct procedure every time, since each procedure has
its own internal counter. gen-loser, however, returns equivalent procedures each
time, since the local state does not affect the value or side effects of the procedures.

(define gen-counter
  (lambda ()
    (let ((n 0))
      (lambda () (set! n (+ n 1)) n)))
(let ((g (gen-counter)))
  (eqv? g g))  ⇒  #t
(eqv? (gen-counter) (gen-counter))
  ⇒  #f

(define gen-loser
  (lambda ()
    (let ((n 0))
      (lambda () (set! n (+ n 1)) 27)))
(let ((g (gen-loser)))
  (eqv? g g))  ⇒  #t
(eqv? (gen-loser) (gen-loser))
  ⇒  unspecified
(letrec ((f (lambda () (if (eqv? f g) 'both 'f)))
  (g (lambda () (if (eqv? f g) 'both 'g))))
  (eqv? f g))
⇒ unspecified

(letrec ((f (lambda () (if (eqv? f g) 'f 'both)))
  (g (lambda () (if (eqv? f g) 'g 'both))))
  (eqv? f g))
⇒ #f

Objects of distinct types must never be regarded as the same object.

Since it is an error to modify constant objects (those returned by literal expressions),
the implementation may share structure between constants where appropriate. Thus
the value of eqv? on constants is sometimes unspecified.

(let ((x '(a)))
  (eqv? x x))
⇒ #t

(eqv? '(a) '(a))
⇒ unspecified

(eqv? "a" "a")
⇒ unspecified

(eqv? '(b) (cdr '(a b)))
⇒ unspecified

Rationale: The above definition of eqv? allows implementations latitude in their
treatment of procedures and literals: implementations are free either to detect or to
fail to detect that two procedures or two literals are equivalent to each other, and
can decide whether or not to merge representations of equivalent objects by using the
same pointer or bit pattern to represent both.
eq?  obj1 obj2

[procedure]

eq? is similar to eqv? except that in some cases it is capable of discerning distinctions finer than those detectable by eqv?.

eq? and eqv? are guaranteed to have the same behavior on symbols, booleans, the empty list, pairs, records, and non-empty strings and vectors. eq?’s behavior on numbers and characters is implementation-dependent, but it will always return either true or false, and will return true only when eqv? would also return true. eq? may also behave differently from eqv? on empty vectors and empty strings.

(eq? 'a 'a) ⇒ #t
(eq? '(a) '(a)) ⇒ unspecified
(eq? (list 'a) (list 'a)) ⇒ #f
(eq? "a" "a") ⇒ unspecified
(eq? "\n" "\n") ⇒ unspecified
(eq? '() '()) ⇒ #t
(eq? 2 2) ⇒ unspecified
(eq? #\A #\A) ⇒ unspecified
(eq? car car) ⇒ #t
(let ((n (+ 2 3)))
  (eq? n n)) ⇒ unspecified
(let ((x '(a)))
  (eq? x x)) ⇒ #t
(let ((x '#()))
  (eq? x x)) ⇒ #t
(let ((p (lambda (x) x)))
  (eq? p p)) ⇒ #t

Rationale: It will usually be possible to implement eq? much more efficiently than eqv?, for example, as a simple pointer comparison instead of as some more complicated operation. One reason is that it may not be possible to compute eqv? of two numbers in constant time, whereas eq? implemented as pointer comparison will always finish in constant time. eq? may be used like eqv? in applications using procedures to implement objects with state since it obeys the same constraints as eqv?.
**equal? obj1 obj2**

*equal?* recursively compares the contents of pairs, vectors, and strings, applying *eqv?* on other objects such as numbers, symbols, and records. A rule of thumb is that objects are generally *equal?* if they print the same. *equal?* may fail to terminate if its arguments are circular data structures.

```
(equal? 'a 'a) ⇒ #t
(equal? '(a) '(a)) ⇒ #t
(equal? '(a (b) c)
    '(a (b) c)) ⇒ #t
(equal? "abc" "abc") ⇒ #t
(equal? 2 2) ⇒ #t
(equal? (make-vector 5 'a)
        (make-vector 5 'a)) ⇒ #t
(equal? (lambda (x) x)
        (lambda (y) y)) ⇒ unspecified
```
4 Numbers

(This section is largely taken from the Revised^4 Report on the Algorithmic Language Scheme.)

Numerical computation has traditionally been neglected by the Lisp community. Until Common Lisp there was no carefully thought out strategy for organizing numerical computation, and with the exception of the MacLisp system little effort was made to execute numerical code efficiently. This report recognizes the excellent work of the Common Lisp committee and accepts many of their recommendations. In some ways this report simplifies and generalizes their proposals in a manner consistent with the purposes of Scheme.

It is important to distinguish between the mathematical numbers, the Scheme numbers that attempt to model them, the machine representations used to implement the Scheme numbers, and notations used to write numbers. This report uses the types number, complex, real, rational, and integer to refer to both mathematical numbers and Scheme numbers. Machine representations such as fixed point and floating point are referred to by names such as fixnum and flonum.

4.1 Numerical types

Mathematically, numbers may be arranged into a tower of subtypes in which each level is a subset of the level above it:

- number
- complex
- real
- rational
- integer

For example, 3 is an integer. Therefore 3 is also a rational, a real, and a complex. The same is true of the Scheme numbers that model 3. For Scheme numbers, these types are defined by the predicates number?, complex?, real?, rational?, and integer?.

There is no simple relationship between a number's type and its representation inside a computer. Although most implementations of Scheme will offer at least two different representations of 3, these different representations denote the same integer.

Scheme's numerical operations treat numbers as abstract data, as independent of their representation as possible. Although an implementation of Scheme may use fixnum, flonum, and perhaps other representations for numbers, this should not be apparent to a casual programmer writing simple programs.

It is necessary, however, to distinguish between numbers that are represented exactly and those that may not be. For example, indexes into data structures must be known exactly, as must some polynomial coefficients in a symbolic algebra system. On the other hand, the results of measurements are inherently inexact, and irrational numbers may be approximated by rational and therefore inexact approximations. In order to catch uses of inexact numbers where exact numbers are required, Scheme explicitly distinguishes exact from inexact numbers. This distinction is orthogonal to the dimension of type.
4.2 Exactness

Scheme numbers are either exact or inexact. A number is exact if it was written as an exact constant or was derived from exact numbers using only exact operations. A number is inexact if it was written as an inexact constant, if it was derived using inexact ingredients, or if it was derived using inexact operations. Thus inexactness is a contagious property of a number.

If two implementations produce exact results for a computation that did not involve inexact intermediate results, the two ultimate results will be mathematically equivalent. This is generally not true of computations involving inexact numbers since approximate methods such as floating point arithmetic may be used, but it is the duty of each implementation to make the result as close as practical to the mathematically ideal result.

Rational operations such as + should always produce exact results when given exact arguments. If the operation is unable to produce an exact result, then it may either report the violation of an implementation restriction or it may silently coerce its result to an inexact value. See Section 4.3 [Implementation restrictions], page 62.

With the exception of inexact->exact, the operations described in this section must generally return inexact results when given any inexact arguments. An operation may, however, return an exact result if it can prove that the value of the result is unaffected by the inexactness of its arguments. For example, multiplication of any number by an exact zero may produce an exact zero result, even if the other argument is inexact.

4.3 Implementation restrictions

Implementations of Scheme are not required to implement the whole tower of subtypes (see Section 4.1 [Numerical types], page 61), but they must implement a coherent subset consistent with both the purposes of the implementation and the spirit of the Scheme language. For example, an implementation in which all numbers are real may still be quite useful.\(^1\)

Implementations may also support only a limited range of numbers of any type, subject to the requirements of this section. The supported range for exact numbers of any type may be different from the supported range for inexact numbers of that type. For example, an implementation that uses flonums to represent all its inexact real numbers may support a practically unbounded range of exact integers and rationals while limiting the range of inexact reals (and therefore the range of inexact integers and rationals) to the dynamic range of the flonum format. Furthermore the gaps between the representable inexact integers and rationals are likely to be very large in such an implementation as the limits of this range are approached.

An implementation of Scheme must support exact integers throughout the range of numbers that may be used for indexes of lists, vectors, and strings or that may result from computing the length of a list, vector, or string. The length, vector-length, and string-length procedures must return an exact integer, and it is an error to use anything but an exact integer as an index. Furthermore any integer constant within the index range, if

---

\(^1\) MIT/GNU Scheme implements the whole tower of numerical types. It has unlimited-precision exact integers and exact rationals. Flonums are used to implement all inexact reals; on machines that support ieee floating-point arithmetic these are double-precision floating-point numbers.
expressed by an exact integer syntax, will indeed be read as an exact integer, regardless of any implementation restrictions that may apply outside this range. Finally, the procedures listed below will always return an exact integer result provided all their arguments are exact integers and the mathematically expected result is representable as an exact integer within the implementation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Result Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>gcd, modulo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>imag-part, numerator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>inexact-&gt;exact, quotient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
<td>lcm, rationalize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angle</td>
<td>magnitude, real-part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceiling</td>
<td>make-polar, remainder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>denominator</td>
<td>make-rectangular, round</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expt</td>
<td>max, truncate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floor</td>
<td>min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implementations are encouraged, but not required, to support exact integers and exact rationals of practically unlimited size and precision, and to implement the above procedures and the `/` procedure in such a way that they always return exact results when given exact arguments. If one of these procedures is unable to deliver an exact result when given exact arguments, then it may either report a violation of an implementation restriction or it may silently coerce its result to an inexact number. Such a coercion may cause an error later.

An implementation may use floating point and other approximate representation strategies for inexact numbers. This report recommends, but does not require, that the IEEE 32-bit and 64-bit floating point standards be followed by implementations that use flonum representations, and that implementations using other representations should match or exceed the precision achievable using these floating point standards.

In particular, implementations that use flonum representations must follow these rules: A flonum result must be represented with at least as much precision as is used to express any of the inexact arguments to that operation. It is desirable (but not required) for potentially inexact operations such as `sqrt`, when applied to exact arguments, to produce exact answers whenever possible (for example the square root of an exact 4 ought to be an exact 2). If, however, an exact number is operated upon so as to produce an inexact result (as by `sqrt`), and if the result is represented as a flonum, then the most precise flonum format available must be used; but if the result is represented in some other way then the representation must have at least as much precision as the most precise flonum format available.

Although Scheme allows a variety of written notations for numbers, any particular implementation may support only some of them. For example, an implementation in which all numbers are real need not support the rectangular and polar notations for complex numbers. If an implementation encounters an exact numerical constant that it cannot represent as an exact number, then it may either report a violation of an implementation restriction or it may silently represent the constant by an inexact number.

---

2 MIT/GNU Scheme implements all of the written notations for numbers.
### 4.4 Syntax of numerical constants

A number may be written in binary, octal, decimal, or hexadecimal by the use of a radix prefix. The radix prefixes are \#b (binary), \#o (octal), \#d (decimal), and \#x (hexadecimal). With no radix prefix, a number is assumed to be expressed in decimal.

A numerical constant may be specified to be either exact or inexact by a prefix. The prefixes are \#e for exact, and \#i for inexact. An exactness prefix may appear before or after any radix prefix that is used. If the written representation of a number has no exactness prefix, the constant may be either inexact or exact. It is inexact if it contains a decimal point, an exponent, or a \# character in the place of a digit, otherwise it is exact.

In systems with inexact numbers of varying precisions it may be useful to specify the precision of a constant. For this purpose, numerical constants may be written with an exponent marker that indicates the desired precision of the inexact representation. The letters s, f, d, and l specify the use of short, single, double, and long precision, respectively. (When fewer than four internal inexact representations exist, the four size specifications are mapped onto those available. For example, an implementation with two internal representations may map short and single together and long and double together.) In addition, the exponent marker e specifies the default precision for the implementation. The default precision has at least as much precision as double, but implementations may wish to allow this default to be set by the user.

```
3.14159265358979F0
  Round to single — 3.141593
0.6L0
  Extend to long — .600000000000000
```

### 4.5 Numerical operations

See Section 1.1.3 [Entry Format], page 5, for a summary of the naming conventions used to specify restrictions on the types of arguments to numerical routines. The examples used in this section assume that any numerical constant written using an exact notation is indeed represented as an exact number. Some examples also assume that certain numerical constants written using an inexact notation can be represented without loss of accuracy; the inexact constants were chosen so that this is likely to be true in implementations that use flonums to represent inexact numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number? object</td>
<td>[procedure]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complex? object</td>
<td>[procedure]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real? object</td>
<td>[procedure]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rational? object</td>
<td>[procedure]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integer? object</td>
<td>[procedure]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These numerical type predicates can be applied to any kind of argument, including non-numbers. They return \#t if the object is of the named type, and otherwise they return \#f. In general, if a type predicate is true of a number then all higher type predicates are also true of that number. Consequently, if a type predicate is false of a number, then all lower type predicates are also false of that number.\(^3\)

---

\(^3\) In MIT/GNU Scheme the `rational?` procedure is the same as `real?`, and the `complex?` procedure is the same as `number?`. 
If $z$ is an inexact complex number, then $(\text{real? } z)$ is true if and only if $(\text{zero? } (\text{imag-part } z))$ is true. If $x$ is an inexact real number, then $(\text{integer? } x)$ is true if and only if $(= x \ (\text{round } x))$.

- $(\text{complex? } 3+4i) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{complex? } 3) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{real? } 3) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{real? } -2.5+0.0i) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{real? } \#e1e10) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{rational? } 6/10) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{rational? } 6/3) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{integer? } 3+0i) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{integer? } 3.0) \Rightarrow \#t$
- $(\text{integer? } 8/4) \Rightarrow \#t$

Note: The behavior of these type predicates on inexact numbers is unreliable, since any inaccuracy may affect the result.

`exact? z` [procedure]

`inexact? z` [procedure]

These numerical predicates provide tests for the exactness of a quantity. For any Scheme number, precisely one of these predicates is true.

`exact-integer? object` [procedure]

`exact-nonnegative-integer? object` [procedure]

`exact-rational? object` [procedure]

These procedures test for some very common types of numbers. These tests could be written in terms of simpler predicates, but are more efficient.

`= z1 z2 z3 . . .` [procedure]

`< x1 x2 x3 . . .` [procedure]

`> x1 x2 x3 . . .` [procedure]

`<= x1 x2 x3 . . .` [procedure]

`>= x1 x2 x3 . . .` [procedure]

These procedures return \#t if their arguments are (respectively): equal, monotonically increasing, monotonically decreasing, monotonically nondecreasing, or monotonically nonincreasing.

These predicates are transitive. Note that the traditional implementations of these predicates in Lisp-like languages are not transitive.

Note: While it is not an error to compare inexact numbers using these predicates, the results may be unreliable because a small inaccuracy may affect the result; this is especially true of $=$ and zero?. When in doubt, consult a numerical analyst.

`zero? z` [procedure]

`positive? x` [procedure]

`negative? x` [procedure]

`odd? x` [procedure]

`even? x` [procedure]

These numerical predicates test a number for a particular property, returning \#t or \#f. See note above regarding inexact numbers.
max $x_1 \ x_2 \ldots$

min $x_1 \ x_2 \ldots$

These procedures return the maximum or minimum of their arguments.

$$\begin{align*}
\text{max} \ 3.4 & \Rightarrow 4 \quad ; \text{exact} \\
\text{max} \ 3.9 \ 4 & \Rightarrow 4.0 \quad ; \text{inexact}
\end{align*}$$

Note: If any argument is inexact, then the result will also be inexact (unless the procedure can prove that the inaccuracy is not large enough to affect the result, which is possible only in unusual implementations). If min or max is used to compare numbers of mixed exactness, and the numerical value of the result cannot be represented as an inexact number without loss of accuracy, then the procedure may report a violation of an implementation restriction.\(^4\)

+ $z_1 \ldots$

* $z_1 \ldots$

These procedures return the sum or product of their arguments.

$$\begin{align*}
\text{+(} \ 3 \ 4) & \Rightarrow 7 \\
\text{+(} \ 3) & \Rightarrow 3 \\
\text{(+)} & \Rightarrow 0 \\
\text{(*} \ 4) & \Rightarrow 4 \\
\text{(*)} & \Rightarrow 1
\end{align*}$$

- $z_1 \ z_2 \ldots$

/ $z_1 \ z_2 \ldots$

With two or more arguments, these procedures return the difference or quotient of their arguments, associating to the left. With one argument, however, they return the additive or multiplicative inverse of their argument.

$$\begin{align*}
\text{-(} \ 3 \ 4) & \Rightarrow -1 \\
\text{-(} \ 3 \ 4 \ 5) & \Rightarrow -6 \\
\text{-(} \ 3) & \Rightarrow -3 \\
\text{/(} \ 3 \ 4 \ 5) & \Rightarrow 3/20 \\
\text{/(} \ 3) & \Rightarrow 1/3
\end{align*}$$

1+ z

-1+ z

(1+ z) is equivalent to (+ z 1); (-1+ z) is equivalent to (- z 1).

abs x

abs returns the magnitude of its argument.

$$\text{abs -7} \Rightarrow 7$$

quotient $n_1 \ n_2$

remainder $n_1 \ n_2$

modulo $n_1 \ n_2$

These procedures implement number-theoretic (integer) division: for positive integers $n_1$ and $n_2$, if $n_3$ and $n_4$ are integers such that

$$n_1 = n_2n_3 + n_4$$

\(^4\) MIT/GNU Scheme signals an error of type condition-type:bad-range-argument in this case.
0 \leq n_4 < n_2

then

(quotient n1 n2) \Rightarrow n3
(remainder n1 n2) \Rightarrow n4
(modulo n1 n2) \Rightarrow n4

For integers n1 and n2 with n2 not equal to 0,

(= n1
 (+ (* n2 (quotient n1 n2))
  (remainder n1 n2)))
\Rightarrow \#t

provided all numbers involved in that computation are exact.

The value returned by quotient always has the sign of the product of its arguments. remainder and modulo differ on negative arguments — the remainder always has the sign of the dividend, the modulo always has the sign of the divisor:

(modulo 13 4) \Rightarrow 1
(remainder 13 4) \Rightarrow 1
(modulo -13 4) \Rightarrow 3
(remainder -13 4) \Rightarrow -1
(modulo 13 -4) \Rightarrow -3
(remainder 13 -4) \Rightarrow 1
(modulo -13 -4) \Rightarrow -1
(remainder -13 -4) \Rightarrow -1

(remainder -13 -4.0) \Rightarrow -1.0 \text{; inexact}

Note that quotient is the same as integer-truncate.

integer-floor n1 n2 \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
integer-ceiling n1 n2 \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
integer-truncate n1 n2 \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
integer-round n1 n2 \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

These procedures combine integer division with rounding. For example, the following are equivalent:

(integer-floor n1 n2)
(floor (/ n1 n2))

However, the former is faster and does not produce an intermediate result.

Note that integer-truncate is the same as quotient.

integer-divide n1 n2 \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
integer-divide-quotient qr \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
integer-divide-remainder qr \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

integer-divide is equivalent to performing both quotient and remainder at once. The result of integer-divide is an object with two components; the
procedures integer-divide-quotient and integer-divide-remainder select those components. These procedures are useful when both the quotient and remainder are needed; often computing both of these numbers simultaneously is much faster than computing them separately.

For example, the following are equivalent:

\[
\text{(lambda (n d)} \text{  (cons (quotient n d) \}
\text{(remainder n d))))}
\]

\[
\text{(lambda (n d)} \text{  (let ((qr (integer-divide n d))) \}
\text{(cons (integer-divide-quotient qr) \}
\text{(integer-divide-remainder qr))))}
\]

gcd \(n_1 \ldots \)  
[lcm \(n_1 \ldots \)  

These procedures return the greatest common divisor or least common multiple of their arguments. The result is always non-negative.

\[
\text{(gcd 32 -36)} \Rightarrow 4
\]

\[
\text{(gcd)} \Rightarrow 0
\]

\[
\text{(lcm 32 -36)} \Rightarrow 288
\]

\[
\text{(lcm 32.0 -36)} \Rightarrow 288.0 ; \text{inexact}
\]

\[
\text{(lcm)} \Rightarrow 1
\]

numerator \(q\)  
denominator \(q\)  

These procedures return the numerator or denominator of their argument; the result is computed as if the argument was represented as a fraction in lowest terms. The denominator is always positive. The denominator of 0 is defined to be 1.

\[
\text{(numerator (/ 6 4))} \Rightarrow 3
\]

\[
\text{(denominator (/ 6 4))} \Rightarrow 2
\]

\[
\text{(denominator (exact->inexact (/ 6 4)))} \Rightarrow 2.0
\]

floor \(x\)  
[ceiling \(x\)]  
[truncate \(x\)]  
[round \(x\)]  

These procedures return integers. floor returns the largest integer not larger than \(x\). ceiling returns the smallest integer not smaller than \(x\). truncate returns the integer closest to \(x\) whose absolute value is not larger than the absolute value of \(x\). round returns the closest integer to \(x\), rounding to even when \(x\) is halfway between two integers.

Rationale: round rounds to even for consistency with the rounding modes required by the IEEE floating point standard.
Note: If the argument to one of these procedures is inexact, then the result will also be inexact. If an exact value is needed, the result should be passed to the \texttt{inexact->exact} procedure (or use one of the procedures below).

\begin{verbatim}
(floor -4.3) ⇒ -5.0
(ceiling -4.3) ⇒ -4.0
(truncate -4.3) ⇒ -4.0
(round -4.3) ⇒ -4.0

(floor 3.5) ⇒ 3.0
(ceiling 3.5) ⇒ 4.0
(truncate 3.5) ⇒ 3.0
(round 3.5) ⇒ 4.0 ; inexact

(round 7/2) ⇒ 4 ; exact
(round 7) ⇒ 7
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{floor->exact }x \quad \texttt{[procedure]}
\texttt{ceiling->exact }x \quad \texttt{[procedure]}
\texttt{truncate->exact }x \quad \texttt{[procedure]}
\texttt{round->exact }x \quad \texttt{[procedure]}

These procedures are similar to the preceding procedures except that they always return an exact result. For example, the following are equivalent

\begin{verbatim}
(floor->exact x)
(inexact->exact (floor x))
\end{verbatim}

except that the former is faster and has fewer range restrictions.

\texttt{rationalize }x\ y \quad \texttt{[procedure]}
\texttt{rationalize->exact }x\ y \quad \texttt{[procedure]}

\texttt{rationalize} returns the \textit{simplest} rational number differing from \texttt{x} by no more than \texttt{y}. A rational number \(r1\) is \textit{simpler} than another rational number \(r2\) if \(r1=p1/q1\) and \(r2=p2/q2\) (both in lowest terms) and \(|p1|\leq|p2|\) and \(|q1|\leq|q2|\). Thus 3/5 is simpler than 4/7. Although not all rationals are comparable in this ordering (consider 2/7 and 3/5) any interval contains a rational number that is simpler than every other rational number in that interval (the simpler 2/5 lies between 2/7 and 3/5). Note that 0=0/1 is the simplest rational of all.

\begin{verbatim}
(rationalize (inexact->exact .3) 1/10) ⇒ 1/3 ; exact
(rationalize .3 1/10) ⇒ #i1/3 ; inexact
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{rationalize->exact} is similar to \texttt{rationalize} except that it always returns an exact result.

\texttt{simplest-rational }x\ y \quad \texttt{[procedure]}
\texttt{simplest-exact-rational }x\ y \quad \texttt{[procedure]}

\texttt{simplest-rational} returns the \textit{simplest} rational number between \texttt{x} and \texttt{y} inclusive; \texttt{simplest-exact-rational} is similar except that it always returns an exact result.

These procedures implement the same functionality as \texttt{rationalize} and \texttt{rationalize->exact}, except that they specify the input range by its endpoints; \texttt{rationalize} specifies the range by its center point and its (half-) width.
The procedures compute the usual transcendental functions. \texttt{log} computes the natural logarithm of \( z \) (not the base ten logarithm). \texttt{asin}, \texttt{acos}, and \texttt{atan} compute arcsine, arccosine, and arctangent, respectively. The two-argument variant of \texttt{atan} computes \((\text{angle}(\text{make-rectangular } x \; y))\) (see below).

In general, the mathematical functions \texttt{log}, arcsine, arccosine, and arctangent are multiply defined. For nonzero real \( x \), the value of \texttt{log} \( x \) is defined to be the one whose imaginary part lies in the range minus \( \pi \) (exclusive) to \( \pi \) (inclusive). \texttt{log} 0 is undefined. The value of \texttt{log} \( z \) when \( z \) is complex is defined according to the formula

\[ \log z = \log \text{magnitude}(z) + i\text{angle}(z) \]

With \texttt{log} defined this way, the values of arcsine, arccosine, and arctangent are according to the following formulae:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sin^{-1} z &= -i \log(i z + \sqrt{1 - z^2}) \\
\cos^{-1} z &= \pi/2 - \sin^{-1} z \\
\tan^{-1} z &= (\log(1 + i z) - \log(1 - i z))/(2i)
\end{align*}
\]

The above specification follows \textit{Common Lisp: the Language}, which in turn cites \textit{Principal Values and Branch Cuts in Complex APL}; refer to these sources for more detailed discussion of branch cuts, boundary conditions, and implementation of these functions. When it is possible these procedures produce a real result from a real argument.

\texttt{sqrt} \( z \) \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns the principal square root of \( z \). The result will have either positive real part, or zero real part and non-negative imaginary part.

\texttt{expt} \( z1 \; z2 \) \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \( z1 \) raised to the power \( z2 \):

\[ z1^{z2} = e^{z2 \log z1} \]

\( 0^0 \) is defined to be equal to 1.
magnitude z
angle z
conjugate z

Suppose $x_1, x_2, x_3$, and $x_4$ are real numbers and $z$ is a complex number such that

$$z = x_1 + x_2 i = x_3 \cdot e^{ix_4}$$

Then make-rectangular and make-polar return $z$, real-part returns $x_1$, imag-part returns $x_2$, magnitude returns $x_3$, and angle returns $x_4$. In the case of angle, whose value is not uniquely determined by the preceding rule, the value returned will be the one in the range minus $\pi$ (exclusive) to $\pi$ (inclusive).

conjugate returns the complex conjugate of $z$.

exact->inexact z
inexact->exact z

exact->inexact returns an inexact representation of $z$. The value returned is the inexact number that is numerically closest to the argument. If an exact argument has no reasonably close inexact equivalent, then a violation of an implementation restriction may be reported; MIT/GNU Scheme signals an error of type condition-type:bad-range-argument in this case.

inexact->exact returns an exact representation of $z$. The value returned is the exact number that is numerically closest to the argument. If an inexact argument has no reasonably close exact equivalent, then a violation of an implementation restriction may be reported; in MIT/GNU Scheme this case does not occur because all inexact numbers are representable as exact numbers.

These procedures implement the natural one-to-one correspondence between exact and inexact integers throughout an implementation-dependent range. See Section 4.3 [Implementation restrictions], page 62.

4.6 Numerical input and output

number->string number [radix]

Radix must be an exact integer, either 2, 8, 10, or 16. If omitted, radix defaults to 10. The procedure number->string takes a number and a radix and returns as a string an external representation of the given number in the given radix such that

(let ((number number)
      (radix radix))
  (eqv? number
       (string->number (number->string number radix)
                       radix)))

is true. It is an error if no possible result makes this expression true.

If number is inexact, the radix is 10, and the above expression can be satisfied by a result that contains a decimal point, then the result contains a decimal point and is expressed using the minimum number of digits (exclusive of exponent and trailing zeroes) needed to make the above expression true; otherwise the format of the result is unspecified.
The result returned by `number->string` never contains an explicit radix prefix.

Note: The error case can occur only when `number` is not a complex number or is a complex number with an non-rational real or imaginary part.

Rationale: If `number` is an inexact number represented using flonums, and the radix is 10, then the above expression is normally satisfied by a result containing a decimal point. The unspecified case allows for infinities, NaNs, and non-flonum representations.

**flonum-parser-fast?**  
This variable controls the behavior of `string->number` when parsing inexact numbers. Specifically, it allows the user to trade off accuracy against speed.

When set to its default value, `#f`, the parser provides maximal accuracy, as required by the Scheme standard. If set to `#t`, the parser uses faster algorithms that will sometimes introduce small errors in the result. The errors affect a few of the least-significant bits of the result, and consequently can be tolerated by many applications.

**flonum-unparser-cutoff**  
This variable controls the action of `number->string` when `number` is a flonum (and consequently controls all printing of flonums). The value of this variable is normally a list of three items:

- **rounding-type**
  One of the following symbols: `normal`, `relative`, or `absolute`. The symbol `normal` means that the number should be printed with full precision. The symbol `relative` means that the number should be rounded to a specific number of digits. The symbol `absolute` means that the number should be rounded so that there are a specific number of digits to the right of the decimal point.

- **precision**
  An exact integer. If `rounding-type` is `normal`, `precision` is ignored. If `rounding-type` is `relative`, `precision` must be positive, and it specifies the number of digits to which the printed representation will be rounded. If `rounding-type` is `absolute`, the printed representation will be rounded `precision` digits to the right of the decimal point; if `precision` is negative, the representation is rounded (`-precision`) digits to the left of the decimal point.

- **format-type**
  One of the symbols: `normal`, `scientific`, or `engineering`. This specifies the format in which the number will be printed. `scientific` specifies that the number will be printed using scientific notation: `x.xxxeyyy`. In other words, the number is printed as a mantissa between zero inclusive and ten exclusive, and an exponent. `engineering` is like `scientific`, except that the exponent is always a power of three, and the mantissa is constrained to be between zero inclusive and 1000 exclusive. If `normal` is specified, the number will be printed in positional notation if it is “small enough”, otherwise it is printed in scientific notation. A number is “small enough” when the number of digits that would be printed using positional notation does not exceed the number of digits
of precision in the underlying floating-point number representation; IEEE double-precision floating-point numbers have 17 digits of precision.

This three-element list may be abbreviated in two ways. First, the symbol normal may be used, which is equivalent to the list (normal 0 normal). Second, the third element of the list, format-type, may be omitted, in which case it defaults to normal.

The default value for flonum-unparser-cutoff is normal. If it is bound to a value different from those described here, number->string issues a warning and acts as though the value had been normal.

Some examples of flonum-unparser-cutoff:

(number->string (* 4 (atan 1 1)))
⇒ "3.141592653589793"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(relative 5)))
  (number->string (* 4 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3.1416"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(relative 5)))
  (number->string (* 4000 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3141.6"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(relative 5 scientific)))
  (number->string (* 4000 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3.1416e3"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(relative 5 scientific)))
  (number->string (* 40000 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3.1416e4"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(relative 5 engineering)))
  (number->string (* 40000 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "31.416e3"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute 5)))
  (number->string (* 4 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3.14159"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute 5)))
  (number->string (* 4000 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3141.59265"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute -4)))
  (number->string (* 4e10 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "31415930000."

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute -4 scientific)))
  (number->string (* 4e10 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "3.141593e10"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute -4 engineering)))
  (number->string (* 4e10 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "31.41593e9"

(fluid-let ((flonum-unparser-cutoff '(absolute -5)))
  (number->string (* 4e10 (atan 1 1))))
⇒ "31415900000."
string->number string [radix]  
Returns a number of the maximally precise representation expressed by the given string. Radix must be an exact integer, either 2, 8, 10, or 16. If supplied, radix is a default radix that may be overridden by an explicit radix prefix in string (e.g. "#o177"). If radix is not supplied, then the default radix is 10. If string is not a syntactically valid notation for a number, then string->number returns #f.

(string->number "100")    ⇒  100
(string->number "100" 16)  ⇒  256
(string->number "1e2")    ⇒  100.0
(string->number "15##")   ⇒  1500.0

Note that a numeric representation using a decimal point or an exponent marker is not recognized unless radix is 10.

4.7 Fixnum and Flonum Operations

This section describes numerical operations that are restricted forms of the operations described above. These operations are useful because they compile very efficiently. However, care should be exercised: if used improperly, these operations can return incorrect answers, or even malformed objects that confuse the garbage collector.

4.7.1 Fixnum Operations

A fixnum is an exact integer that is small enough to fit in a machine word. In MIT/GNU Scheme, fixnums are typically 24 or 26 bits, depending on the machine; it is reasonable to assume that fixnums are at least 24 bits. Fixnums are signed; they are encoded using 2’s complement.

All exact integers that are small enough to be encoded as fixnums are always encoded as fixnums — in other words, any exact integer that is not a fixnum is too big to be encoded as such. For this reason, small constants such as 0 or 1 are guaranteed to be fixnums.

fix:fixnum? object         [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a fixnum; otherwise returns #f.

Here is an expression that determines the largest fixnum:

(let loop ((n 1))
  (if (fix:fixnum? n)
    (loop (* n 2))
    (- n 1)))

A similar expression determines the smallest fixnum.

fix:= fixnum fixnum         [procedure]
fix:< fixnum fixnum         [procedure]
fix:< fixnum fixnum         [procedure]
fix:<= fixnum fixnum        [procedure]
fix:>= fixnum fixnum        [procedure]

These are the standard order and equality predicates on fixnums. When compiled, they do not check the types of their arguments.
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fix:zero? fixnum [procedure]
fix:positive? fixnum [procedure]
fix:negative? fixnum [procedure]

These procedures compare their argument to zero. When compiled, they do not check the type of their argument. The code produced by the following expressions is identical:

```
(fix:zero? fixnum)
(fix:= fixnum 0)
```

Similarly, fix:positive? and fix:negative? produce code identical to equivalent expressions using fix:> and fix:<.

fix:+ fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:- fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:* fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:quotient fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:remainder fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:gcd fixnum fixnum [procedure]
fix:1+ fixnum [procedure]
fix:-1+ fixnum [procedure]

These procedures are the standard arithmetic operations on fixnums. When compiled, they do not check the types of their arguments. Furthermore, they do not check to see if the result can be encoded as a fixnum. If the result is too large to be encoded as a fixnum, a malformed object is returned, with potentially disastrous effect on the garbage collector.

fix:divide fixnum fixnum [procedure]

This procedure is like integer-divide, except that its arguments and its results must be fixnums. It should be used in conjunction with integer-divide-quotient and integer-divide-remainder.

The following are bitwise-logical operations on fixnums.

fix:not fixnum [procedure]

This returns the bitwise-logical inverse of its argument. When compiled, it does not check the type of its argument.

```
(fix:not 0) ⇒ -1
(fix:not -1) ⇒ 0
(fix:not 1) ⇒ -2
(fix:not -34) ⇒ 33
```

fix:and fixnum fixnum [procedure]

This returns the bitwise-logical “and” of its arguments. When compiled, it does not check the types of its arguments.

```
(fix:and #x43 #x0f) ⇒ 3
(fix:and #x43 #xf0) ⇒ #x40
```

fix:andc fixnum fixnum [procedure]

Returns the bitwise-logical “and” of the first argument with the bitwise-logical inverse of the second argument. When compiled, it does not check the types of its arguments.
(fix:andc #x43 #x0f) ⇒ #x40
(fix:andc #x43 #xf0) ⇒ 3

fix:or fixnum fixnum [procedure]
This returns the bitwise-logical “inclusive or” of its arguments. When compiled, it
does not check the types of its arguments.
(fix:or #x40 3) ⇒ #x43
(fix:or #x41 3) ⇒ #x43

fix:xor fixnum fixnum [procedure]
This returns the bitwise-logical “exclusive or” of its arguments. When compiled, it
does not check the types of its arguments.
(fix:xor #x40 3) ⇒ #x43
(fix:xor #x41 3) ⇒ #x42

fix:lsh fixnum1 fixnum2 [procedure]
This procedure returns the result of logically shifting fixnum1 by fixnum2 bits. If
fixnum2 is positive, fixnum1 is shifted left; if negative, it is shifted right. When
compiled, it does not check the types of its arguments, nor the validity of its result.
(fix:lsh 1 10) ⇒ #x400
(fix:lsh #x432 -10) ⇒ 1
(fix:lsh -1 3) ⇒ -8
(fix:lsh -128 -4) ⇒ #x3FFFF8

4.7.2 Flonum Operations
A flonum is an inexact real number that is implemented as a floating-point number. In
MIT/GNU Scheme, all inexact real numbers are flonums. For this reason, constants such
as 0. and 2.3 are guaranteed to be flonums.

flo:flonum? object [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a flonum; otherwise returns #f.

flo:= flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
flo:< flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
flo:> flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
These procedures are the standard order and equality predicates on flonums. When
compiled, they do not check the types of their arguments.

flo:zero? flonum [procedure]
flo:positive? flonum [procedure]
flo:negative? flonum [procedure]
Each of these procedures compares its argument to zero. When compiled, they do
not check the type of their argument.

flo:+ flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
flo:- flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
flo:* flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
flo:/ flonum1 flonum2 [procedure]
These procedures are the standard arithmetic operations on flonums. When compiled,
they do not check the types of their arguments.
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flo:finite? flonum
The IEEE floating-point number specification supports three special “numbers”: positive infinity (+inf), negative infinity (-inf), and not-a-number (NaN). This predicate returns #f if flonum is one of these objects, and #t if it is any other floating-point number.

flo:negate flonum
This procedure returns the negation of its argument. When compiled, it does not check the type of its argument. Equivalent to (flo:- 0. flonum).

flo:abs flonum
flo:exp flonum
flo:log flonum
flo:sin flonum
flo:cos flonum
flo:tan flonum
flo:asin flonum
flo:acos flonum
flo:atan flonum
flo:sqrt flonum
flo:expt flonum1 flonum2
flo:floor flonum
flo:ceiling flonum
flo:truncate flonum
flo:round flonum
flo:floor->exact flonum
flo:ceiling->exact flonum
flo:truncate->exact flonum
flo:round->exact flonum
These procedures are flonum versions of the corresponding procedures. When compiled, they do not check the types of their arguments.

flo:atan2 flonum1 flonum2
This is the flonum version of atan with two arguments. When compiled, it does not check the types of its arguments.

4.8 Random Numbers
MIT/GNU Scheme provides a facility for generating pseudo-random numbers. The current implementation is a “subtract-with-carry” random-number generator, based on the algorithm from A New Class of Random Number Generators, George Marsaglia and Arif Zaman, The Annals of Applied Probability, Vol. 1, No. 3, 1991. At the time it was implemented, this was a good algorithm for general purposes, but the state of the art in random-number generation is constantly changing. If necessary, the implementation will be updated to use a new algorithm while retaining the same interface.

The interface described here is very similar to that of Common Lisp.
random modulus [state]

Modulus must be a positive real number. random returns a pseudo-random number between zero (inclusive) and modulus (exclusive). The exactness of the returned number is the same as the exactness of modulus. Additionally, if modulus is an exact integer, the returned number will be also. Usually, modulus is either an exact integer or an inexact real; the current implementation has been tuned to make these two cases fast.

If state is given and not #f, it must be a random-state object; otherwise, it defaults to the value of the variable *random-state*. This object is used to maintain the state of the pseudo-random-number generator and is altered as a side effect of the random procedure.

(random 1.0) ⇒ .32744744667719056
(random 1.0) ⇒ .01668326768172354
(random 10) ⇒ 3
(random 10) ⇒ 8
(random 100) ⇒ 38
(random 100) ⇒ 63
(random 100/3) ⇒ 130501475769920525/6755399441055744
(random 100/3) ⇒ 170571694016427575/13510798882111488

flo:random-unit state

State must be a random-state object. flo:random-unit returns a pseudo-random number between zero inclusive and one exclusive; the returned number is always a flonum and therefore an inexact real number. flo:random-unit is equivalent to random with a modulus of 1.0, except that it is faster.

The next three definitions concern random-state objects. In addition to these definitions, it is important to know that random-state objects are specifically designed so that they can be saved to disk using the fasdump procedure, and later restored using the fasload procedure. This allows a particular random-state object to be saved in order to replay a particular pseudo-random sequence.

*random-state*

This variable holds a data structure, a random-state object, that encodes the internal state of the random-number generator that random uses by default. A call to random will perform a side effect on this data structure. This variable may be changed, using set! or fluid-let, to hold a new random-state object.

make-random-state [state]

This procedure returns a new random-state object, suitable for use as the value of the variable *random-state*, or as the state argument to random. If state is not given or #f, make-random-state returns a copy of the current random-number state object (the value of the variable *random-state*). If state is a random-state object, a copy of that object is returned. If state is #t, then a new random-state object is returned that has been “randomly” initialized by some means (such as by a time-of-day clock).

random-state? object

Returns #t if object is a random-state object, otherwise returns #f.
5 Characters

Characters are objects that represent printed characters, such as letters and digits.

5.1 External Representation of Characters

Characters are written using the notation \#\texttt{character} or \#\texttt{character-name}. For example:

- \#a; lowercase letter
- \#\texttt{A}; uppercase letter
- \#\texttt{\texttt{\textbackslash}}; left parenthesis
- \#\texttt{space}; the space character
- \#\texttt{newline}; the newline character

Case is significant in \#\texttt{character}, but not in \#\texttt{character-name}. If \texttt{character} in \#\texttt{character} is a letter, \texttt{character} must be followed by a delimiter character such as a space or parenthesis. Characters written in the \#\texttt{\textbackslash} notation are self-evaluating; you don’t need to quote them.

In addition to the standard character syntax, MIT Scheme also supports a general syntax that denotes any Unicode character by its scalar value. This notation is \#\texttt{U+scalar-value}, where \texttt{scalar-value} is a sequence of hexadecimal digits for a valid scalar value. So the above examples could also be written like this:

- \#\texttt{U+61}; lowercase letter
- \#\texttt{U+41}; uppercase letter
- \#\texttt{U+28}; left parenthesis
- \#\texttt{U+20}; the space character
- \#\texttt{U+0A}; the newline character

A character name may include one or more \texttt{bucky bit} prefixes to indicate that the character includes one or more of the keyboard shift keys Control, Meta, Super, or Hyper (note that the Control \texttt{bucky} bit prefix is not the same as the ASCII control key). The \texttt{bucky} bit prefixes and their meanings are as follows (case is not significant):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Bucky bit prefix</th>
<th>Bucky bit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meta</td>
<td>\texttt{M-} or \texttt{Meta-}</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>\texttt{C-} or \texttt{Control-}</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super</td>
<td>\texttt{S-} or \texttt{Super-}</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyper</td>
<td>\texttt{H-} or \texttt{Hyper-}</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example,

- \#\texttt{c-a} ; Control-a
- \#\texttt{meta-b} ; Meta-b
- \#\texttt{c-s-m-h-a} ; Control-Meta-Super-Hyper-A

The following \texttt{character-names} are supported, shown here with their ASCII equivalents:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character Name</th>
<th>ASCII Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altmode</td>
<td>ESC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backnext</td>
<td>US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backspace</td>
<td>BS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>SUB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linefeed</td>
<td>LF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>page</td>
<td>FF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return</td>
<td>CR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rubout</td>
<td>DEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>space</td>
<td>HT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, #\newline is the same as #\linefeed (but this may change in the future, so you should not depend on it). All of the standard ASCII names for non-printing characters are supported:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NUL</td>
<td>SOH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STX</td>
<td>ETX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOT</td>
<td>ENQ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACK</td>
<td>BEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BS</td>
<td>HT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF</td>
<td>VT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FF</td>
<td>CR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO</td>
<td>SI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLE</td>
<td>DC1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC2</td>
<td>DC3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC4</td>
<td>NAK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYN</td>
<td>ETB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAN</td>
<td>EM</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUB</td>
<td>ESC</td>
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<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>GS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`char->name char [slashify?]` [procedure]

Returns a string corresponding to the printed representation of `char`. This is the character or character-name component of the external representation, combined with the appropriate bucky bit prefixes.

- `(char->name #\a)` => "a"
- `(char->name #\space)` => "Space"
- `(char->name #\c-a)` => "C-a"
- `(char->name #\control-a)` => "C-a"

`Slashify?`, if specified and true, says to insert the necessary backslash characters in the result so that read will parse it correctly. In other words, the following generates the external representation of `char`:

```
(string-append "#\\" (char->name char #t))
```

If `slashify?` is not specified, it defaults to #f.

`name->char string` [procedure]

Converts a string that names a character into the character specified. If `string` does not name any character, `name->char` signals an error.

- `(name->char "a")` => #\a
- `(name->char "space")` => #\Space
- `(name->char "c-a")` => #\C-a
- `(name->char "control-a")` => #\C-a
5.2 Comparison of Characters

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{char=？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char<？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char>？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char<=} & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char>=？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char-ci=？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char-ci<？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char-ci>？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char-ci<=？ } & \text{ char1 char2} \\
\text{char-ci>=？ } & \text{ char1 char2}
\end{align*}
\]

Returns \#t if the specified characters are have the appropriate order relationship to one another; otherwise returns \#f. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

Character ordering follows these portability rules:

- The digits are in order; for example, (char<? #\0 #\9) returns \#t.
- The uppercase characters are in order; for example, (char<? #\A #\B) returns \#t.
- The lowercase characters are in order; for example, (char<? #\a #\b) returns \#t.

MIT/GNU Scheme uses a specific character ordering, in which characters have the same order as their corresponding integers. See the documentation for \text{char->integer} for further details.

Note: Although character objects can represent all of Unicode, the model of alphabetic case used covers only ASCII letters, which means that case-insensitive comparisons and case conversions are incorrect for non-ASCII letters. This will eventually be fixed.

5.3 Miscellaneous Character Operations

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{char? } & \text{ object} \\
\text{char-upcase } & \text{ char} \\
\text{char-downcase } & \text{ char}
\end{align*}
\]

Returns \#t if \text{object} is a character; otherwise returns \#f.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{char->digit } & \text{ char [radix]} \\
\end{align*}
\]

If \text{char} is a character representing a digit in the given \text{radix}, returns the corresponding integer value. If you specify \text{radix} (which must be an exact integer between 2 and 36
inclusive), the conversion is done in that base, otherwise it is done in base 10. If char doesn’t represent a digit in base radix, char->digit returns #f.

Note that this procedure is insensitive to the alphabetic case of char.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(char->digit \#\8)} & \Rightarrow 8 \\
\text{(char->digit \#\e 16)} & \Rightarrow 14 \\
\text{(char->digit \#\e)} & \Rightarrow #f
\end{align*}
\]

digit->char \[digit \ [radix]\]  
[procedure]

Returns a character that represents digit in the radix given by radix. Radix must be an exact integer between 2 and 36 (inclusive), and defaults to 10. Digit, which must be an exact non-negative integer, should be less than radix; if digit is greater than or equal to radix, digit->char returns #f.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(digit->char 8)} & \Rightarrow #\8 \\
\text{(digit->char 14 16)} & \Rightarrow #\E
\end{align*}
\]

5.4 Internal Representation of Characters

An MIT/GNU Scheme character consists of a code part and a bucky bits part. The MIT/GNU Scheme set of characters can represent more characters than ASCII can; it includes characters with Super and Hyper bucky bits, as well as Control and Meta. Every ASCII character corresponds to some MIT/GNU Scheme character, but not vice versa.¹

MIT/GNU Scheme uses a 21-bit character code with 4 bucky bits. The character code contains the Unicode scalar value for the character. This is a change from earlier versions of the system, which used the ISO-8859-1 scalar value, but it is upwards compatible with previous usage, since ISO-8859-1 is a proper subset of Unicode.

\[\text{make-char code bucky-bits}\]  
[procedure]

Builds a character from code and bucky-bits. Both code and bucky-bits must be exact non-negative integers in the appropriate range. Use char-code and char-bits to extract the code and bucky bits from the character. If 0 is specified for bucky-bits, make-char produces an ordinary character; otherwise, the appropriate bits are turned on as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \text{ Meta} \\
2 & \text{ Control} \\
4 & \text{ Super} \\
8 & \text{ Hyper}
\end{align*}
\]

For example,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(make-char 97 0)} & \Rightarrow #\a \\
\text{(make-char 97 1)} & \Rightarrow #\M-a \\
\text{(make-char 97 2)} & \Rightarrow #\C-a \\
\text{(make-char 97 3)} & \Rightarrow #\C-M-a
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{char-bits char}\]  
[procedure]

Returns the exact integer representation of char’s bucky bits. For example,

¹ Note that the Control bucky bit is different from the ASCII control key. This means that #\SOH (ASCII ctrl-A) is different from #\C-A. In fact, the Control bucky bit is completely orthogonal to the ASCII control key, making possible such characters as #\C-\SOH.
(char-bits #\a) ⇒ 0
(char-bits #\m-a) ⇒ 1
(char-bits #\c-a) ⇒ 2
(char-bits #\c-m-a) ⇒ 3

char-code char
Returns the character code of char, an exact integer. For example,

(char-code #\a) ⇒ 97
(char-code #\c-a) ⇒ 97

Note that in MIT/GNU Scheme, the value of char-code is the Unicode scalar value for char.

char-code-limit
char-bits-limit
These variables define the (exclusive) upper limits for the character code and bucky bits (respectively). The character code and bucky bits are always exact non-negative integers, and are strictly less than the value of their respective limit variable.

char->integer char
integer->char k
char->integer returns the character code representation for char. integer->char returns the character whose character code representation is k.

In MIT/GNU Scheme, if (char-ascii? char) is true, then

(eqv? (char-ascii? char) (char->integer char))

However, this behavior is not required by the Scheme standard, and code that depends on it is not portable to other implementations.

These procedures implement order isomorphisms between the set of characters under the char<=? ordering and some subset of the integers under the <= ordering. That is, if

(char<=? a b) ⇒ #t and (<= x y) ⇒ #t

and x and y are in the range of char->integer, then

(<= (char->integer a) (char->integer b)) ⇒ #t
(char<=? (integer->char x) (integer->char y)) ⇒ #t

In MIT/GNU Scheme, the specific relationship implemented by these procedures is as follows:

(define (char->integer c)
 (+ (* (char-bits c) #x200000)
    (char-code c)))

(define (integer->char n)
 (make-char (remainder n #x200000)
            (quotient n #x200000)))
This implies that `char->integer` and `char-code` produce identical results for characters that have no bucky bits set, and that characters are ordered according to their Unicode scalar values.

Note: If the argument to `char->integer` or `integer->char` is a constant, the compiler will constant-fold the call, replacing it with the corresponding result. This is a very useful way to denote unusual character constants or ASCII codes.

```
char-integer-limit [variable]
The range of `char->integer` is defined to be the exact non-negative integers that are less than the value of this variable (exclusive). Note, however, that there are some holes in this range, because the character code must be a valid Unicode scalar value.
```

### 5.5 ISO-8859-1 Characters

MIT/GNU Scheme internally uses ISO-8859-1 codes for I/O, and stores character objects in a fashion that makes it convenient to convert between ISO-8859-1 codes and characters. Also, character strings are implemented as byte vectors whose elements are ISO-8859-1 codes; these codes are converted to character objects when accessed. For these reasons it is sometimes desirable to be able to convert between ISO-8859-1 codes and characters.

Not all characters can be represented as ISO-8859-1 codes. A character that has an equivalent ISO-8859-1 representation is called an ISO-8859-1 character.

For historical reasons, the procedures that manipulate ISO-8859-1 characters use the word “ASCII” rather than “ISO-8859-1”.

```
char-ascii? char
Returns the ISO-8859-1 code for `char` if `char` has an ISO-8859-1 representation; otherwise returns #f.

In the current implementation, the characters that satisfy this predicate are those in which the bucky bits are turned off, and for which the character code is less than 256.
```

```
char->ascii char
Returns the ISO-8859-1 code for `char`. An error `condition-type:bad-range-argument` is signalled if `char` doesn’t have an ISO-8859-1 representation.
```

```
ascii->char code
Code must be the exact integer representation of an ISO-8859-1 code. This procedure returns the character corresponding to `code`.
```

### 5.6 Character Sets

MIT/GNU Scheme’s character-set abstraction is used to represent groups of characters, such as the letters or digits. Character sets may contain only ISO-8859-1 characters; use the `alphabet` abstraction (see Section 5.7 [Unicode], page 86 if you need to cover the entire Unicode range.

```
char-set? object
Returns #t if `object` is a character set; otherwise returns #f.
```
These variables contain predefined character sets. To see the contents of one of these sets, use \texttt{char-set-members}.

\textit{Alphabetic} characters are the 52 upper and lower case letters. \textit{Numeric} characters are the 10 decimal digits. \textit{Alphanumeric} characters are those in the union of these two sets. \textit{Whitespace} characters are \#\textbackslash{}space, \#\textbackslash{}tab, \#\textbackslash{}page, \#\textbackslash{}linefeed, and \#\textbackslash{}return. \textit{Graphic} characters are the printing characters and \#\textbackslash{}space. \textit{Standard} characters are the printing characters, \#\textbackslash{}space, and \#\textbackslash{}newline. These are the printing characters:

\begin{verbatim}
! " # $ % & ' ( ) * + , - . / 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 : ; < = > ? @ A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z [ \ ] ^ _ ' a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z \{ | \} ~
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{char-upper-case? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-lower-case? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-alphabetic? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-numeric? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-alphanumeric? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-whitespace? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-graphic? char} \hfill [procedure]
\texttt{char-standard? object} \hfill [procedure]

These predicates are defined in terms of the respective character sets defined above.

\texttt{char-set-members char-set} \hfill [procedure]

Returns a newly allocated list of the characters in \texttt{char-set}.

\texttt{char-set-member? char-set char} \hfill [procedure]

Returns \#t if \texttt{char} is in \texttt{char-set}; otherwise returns \#f.

\texttt{char-set=? char-set-1 char-set-2} \hfill [procedure]

Returns \#t if \texttt{char-set-1} and \texttt{char-set-2} contain exactly the same characters; otherwise returns \#f.

\texttt{char-set char \ldots} \hfill [procedure]

Returns a character set consisting of the specified ISO-8859-1 characters. With no arguments, \texttt{char-set} returns an empty character set.
chars->char-set  chars  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of chars, which must be a list of ISO-8859-1 characters. This is equivalent to (apply char-set chars).

string->char-set  string  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of all the characters that occur in string.

ascii-range->char-set  lower upper  [procedure]
Lower and upper must be exact non-negative integers representing ISO-8859-1 character codes, and lower must be less than or equal to upper. This procedure creates and returns a new character set consisting of the characters whose ISO-8859-1 codes are between lower (inclusive) and upper (exclusive).
For historical reasons, the name of this procedure refers to “ASCII” rather than “ISO-8859-1”.
predicate->char-set  predicate  [procedure]
Predicate must be a procedure of one argument. predicate->char-set creates and returns a character set consisting of the ISO-8859-1 characters for which predicate is true.

char-set-difference  char-set1 char-set2  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of the characters that are in char-set1 but aren’t in char-set2.

char-set-intersection  char-set . . .  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of the characters that are in all of the char-sets.

char-set-union  char-set . . .  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of the characters that are in at least one of the char-sets.

char-set-invert  char-set  [procedure]
Returns a character set consisting of the ISO-8859-1 characters that are not in char-set.

5.7 Unicode
MIT/GNU Scheme provides rudimentary support for Unicode characters. In an ideal world, Unicode would be the base character set for MIT/GNU Scheme. But MIT/GNU Scheme predates the invention of Unicode, and converting an application of this size is a considerable undertaking. So for the time being, the base character set for I/O and strings is ISO-8859-1, and Unicode support is grafted on.

This Unicode support was implemented as a part of the XML parser (see Section 14.12 [XML Support], page 219) implementation. XML uses Unicode as its base character set, and any XML implementation must support Unicode.
The basic unit in a Unicode implementation is the scalar value. The character equivalent of a scalar value is a Unicode character.

unicode-scalar-value?  object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a Unicode scalar value. Scalar values are implemented as exact non-negative integers. They are further limited, by the Unicode standard, to
be strictly less than \#x110000, with the values \#xD800 through \#xFFFE, and \#xFFFF excluded.

\textbf{unicode-char? object} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if object is a Unicode character, specifically if object is a character with no bucky bits and whose code satisfies \texttt{unicode-scalar-value?}.

The Unicode implementation consists of three parts:

- An implementation of \textit{wide strings}, which are character strings that support the full Unicode character set with constant-time access.
- I/O procedures that read and write Unicode characters in several external representations, specifically UTF-8, UTF-16, and UTF-32.
- An \textit{alphabet} abstraction, which is an efficient implementation of sets of Unicode scalar values (similar to the \texttt{char-set} abstraction).

\subsection*{5.7.1 Wide Strings}

Wide characters can be combined into \textit{wide strings}, which are similar to strings but can contain any Unicode character sequence. The implementation used for wide strings is guaranteed to provide constant-time access to each character in the string.

\textbf{wide-string? object} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if object is a wide string.

\textbf{make-wide-string k \{unicode-char\}} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated wide string of length \(k\). If \texttt{char} is specified, all elements of the returned string are initialized to \texttt{char}; otherwise the contents of the string are unspecified.

\textbf{wide-string unicode-char \ldots} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated wide string consisting of the specified characters.

\textbf{wide-string-length wide-string} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns the length of \texttt{wide-string} as an exact non-negative integer.

\textbf{wide-string-ref wide-string k} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns character \(k\) of \texttt{wide-string}. \(K\) must be a valid index of \texttt{string}.

\textbf{wide-string-set! wide-string k unicode-char} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Stores \texttt{char} in element \(k\) of \texttt{wide-string} and returns an unspecified value. \(K\) must be a valid index of \texttt{wide-string}.

\textbf{string->wide-string string [start [end]]} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated wide string with the same contents as \texttt{string}. If \texttt{start} and \texttt{end} are supplied, they specify a substring of \texttt{string} that is to be converted. \texttt{Start} defaults to ‘0’, and \texttt{end} defaults to ‘(\texttt{string-length string})’.

\textbf{wide-string->string wide-string [start [end]]} \hfill \texttt{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated string with the same contents as \texttt{wide-string}. The argument \texttt{wide-string} must satisfy \texttt{wide-string?}. If \texttt{start} and \texttt{end} are supplied, they specify a
substring of wide-string that is to be converted. Start defaults to ‘0’, and end defaults to ‘(wide-string-length wide-string)’.
It is an error if any character in wide-string fails to satisfy char-ascii?.

open-wide-input-string wide-string [start [end]] [procedure]
Returns a new input port that sources the characters of wide-string. The optional arguments start and end may be used to specify that the port delivers characters from a substring of wide-string; if not given, start defaults to ‘0’ and end defaults to ‘(wide-string-length wide-string)’.

open-wide-output-string [procedure]
Returns an output port that accepts Unicode characters and strings and accumulates them in a buffer. Call get-output-string on the returned port to get a wide string containing the accumulated characters.

call-with-wide-output-string procedure [procedure]
Creates a wide-string output port and calls procedure on that port. The value returned by procedure is ignored, and the accumulated output is returned as a wide string. This is equivalent to:

```
(define (call-with-wide-output-string procedure)
  (let ((port (open-wide-output-string)))
    (procedure port)
    (get-output-string port)))
```

5.7.2 Unicode Representations

The procedures in this section implement transformations that convert between the internal representation of Unicode characters and several standard external representations. These external representations are all implemented as sequences of bytes, but they differ in their intended usage.

UTF-8 Each character is written as a sequence of one to four bytes.

UTF-16 Each character is written as a sequence of one or two 16-bit integers.

UTF-32 Each character is written as a single 32-bit integer.

The UTF-16 and UTF-32 representations may be serialized to and from a byte stream in either big-endian or little-endian order. In big-endian order, the most significant byte is first, the next most significant byte is second, etc. In little-endian order, the least significant byte is first, etc. All of the UTF-16 and UTF-32 representation procedures are available in both orders, which are indicated by names containing ‘utfNN-be’ and ‘utfNN-le’, respectively. There are also procedures that implement host-endian order, which is either big-endian or little-endian depending on the underlying computer architecture.

utf8-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf16-be-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf16-le-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf16-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf32-be-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf32-le-string->wide-string string [start [end]] [procedure]
utf32-string->wide-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
Each of these procedures converts a byte vector to a wide string, treating string as a
stream of bytes encoded in the corresponding ‘utfNN’ representation. The arguments
start and end allow specification of a substring; they default to zero and string’s
length, respectively.

utf8-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf16-be-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf16-le-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf16-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf32-be-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf32-le-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]
utf32-string-length string [start [end]]  [procedure]

Each of these procedures counts the number of Unicode characters in a byte vector,
treating string as a stream of bytes encoded in the corresponding ‘utfNN’ representa-
tion. The arguments start and end allow specification of a substring; they default to
zero and string’s length, respectively.

wide-string->utf8-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf16-be-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf16-le-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf16-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf32-be-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf32-le-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]
wide-string->utf32-string string [start [end]]  [procedure]

Each of these procedures converts a wide string to a stream of bytes encoded in the
respectively.

5.7.3 Alphabets
Applications often need to manipulate sets of characters, such as the set of alphabetic
characters or the set of whitespace characters. The alphabet abstraction provides an efficient
implementation of sets of Unicode scalar values.

alphabet? object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a Unicode alphabet, otherwise returns #f.

alphabet unicode-char . . .  [procedure]
Returns a Unicode alphabet containing the Unicode characters passed as arguments.

scalar-values->alphabet items  [procedure]
Returns a Unicode alphabet containing the scalar values described by items. Items
must satisfy well-formed-scalar-values-list?.

alphabet->scalar-values alphabet  [procedure]
Returns a well-formed scalar-values list that describes the scalar values represented
by alphabet.
well-formed-scalar-values-list? object

Returns #t if object is a well-formed scalar-values list, otherwise returns #f. A well-formed scalar-values list is a proper list, each element of which is either a unicode scalar value or a pair of unicode scalar values. A pair of scalar values represents a contiguous range of scalar values. The car of the pair is the lower limit, and the cdr is the upper limit. Both limits are inclusive, and the lower limit must be less than or equal to the upper limit.

char-in-alphabet? char alphabet

Returns #t if char is a member of alphabet, otherwise returns #f.

Character sets and alphabets can be converted to one another, provided that the alphabet contains only 8-bit scalar values. This is true because 8-bit scalar values in Unicode map directly to ISO-8859-1 characters, which is what character sets contain.

char-set->alphabet char-set

Returns a Unicode alphabet containing the scalar values that correspond to characters that are members of char-set.

alphabet->char-set alphabet

Returns a character set containing the characters that correspond to 8-bit scalar values that are members of alphabet. (Scalar values outside the 8-bit range are ignored.)

string->alphabet string

Returns a Unicode alphabet containing the scalar values corresponding to the characters in string. Equivalent to

(char-set->alphabet (string->char-set string))

alphabet->string alphabet

Returns a newly-allocated string containing the characters corresponding to the 8-bit scalar values in alphabet. (Scalar values outside the 8-bit range are ignored.)

8-bit-alphabet? alphabet

Returns #t if alphabet contains only 8-bit scalar values, otherwise returns #f.

alphabet+ alphabet ...

Returns a Unicode alphabet that contains each scalar value that is a member of any of the alphabet arguments.

alphabet- alphabet1 alphabet2

Returns a Unicode alphabet that contains each scalar value that is a member of alphabet1 and is not a member of alphabet2.
6 Strings

A string is a mutable sequence of characters. In the current implementation of MIT/GNU Scheme, the elements of a string must all satisfy the predicate `char-ascii?`; if someone ports MIT/GNU Scheme to a non-ASCII operating system this requirement will change.

A string is written as a sequence of characters enclosed within double quotes " ". To include a double quote inside a string, precede the double quote with a backslash \ (escape it), as in

"The word \"recursion\" has many meanings."

The printed representation of this string is

The word "recursion" has many meanings.

To include a backslash inside a string, precede it with another backslash; for example,

"Use #\\Control-q to quit."

The printed representation of this string is

Use \Control-q to quit.

The effect of a backslash that doesn’t precede a double quote or backslash is unspecified in standard Scheme, but MIT/GNU Scheme specifies the effect for three other characters: \t, \n, and \f. These escape sequences are respectively translated into the following characters: #\tab, #\newline, and #\page. Finally, a backslash followed by exactly three octal digits is translated into the character whose ISO-8859-1 code is those digits.

If a string literal is continued from one line to another, the string will contain the newline character (\n) at the line break. Standard Scheme does not specify what appears in a string literal at a line break.

The length of a string is the number of characters that it contains. This number is an exact non-negative integer that is established when the string is created (but see Section 6.10 [Variable-Length Strings], page 106). Each character in a string has an index, which is a number that indicates the character’s position in the string. The index of the first (leftmost) character in a string is 0, and the index of the last character is one less than the length of the string. The valid indexes of a string are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the string.

A number of the string procedures operate on substrings. A substring is a segment of a string, which is specified by two integers `start` and `end` satisfying these relationships:

\[ 0 \leq \text{start} \leq \text{end} \leq (\text{string-length string}) \]

Start is the index of the first character in the substring, and end is one greater than the index of the last character in the substring. Thus if `start` and `end` are equal, they refer to an empty substring, and if `start` is zero and `end` is the length of `string`, they refer to all of `string`.

Some of the procedures that operate on strings ignore the difference between uppercase and lowercase. The versions that ignore case include ‘-ci’ (for “case insensitive”) in their names.
6.1 Construction of Strings

make-string  k  [char]  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated string of length k. If you specify char, all elements of
the string are initialized to char, otherwise the contents of the string are unspecified.
Char must satisfy the predicate char-ascii?.

(make-string 10  #\x) ⇒ "xxxxxxxxxx"

string  char ...  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated string consisting of the specified characters. The arguments
must all satisfy char-ascii?.

(string  #\a) ⇒ "a"
(string  #\a  #\b  #\c) ⇒ "abc"
(string  #\a  #\space  #\b  #\space  #\c) ⇒ "a b c"
(string) ⇒ ""

list->string  char-list  [procedure]
Char-list must be a list of ISO-8859-1 characters. list->string returns a newly
allocated string formed from the elements of char-list. This is equivalent to (apply
string  char-list).
The inverse of this operation is string->list.

(list->string  '(#\a  #\b)) ⇒ "ab"
(string->list  "Hello") ⇒ (#\H  #\e  #\l  #\l  #\o)

string-copy  string  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated copy of string.

Note regarding variable-length strings: the maximum length of the result depends
only on the length of string, not its maximum length. If you wish to copy a string
and preserve its maximum length, do the following:

(define (string-copy-preserving-max-length  string)
  (let ((length))
    (dynamic-wind
      (lambda ()
        (set! length (string-length  string))
        (set-string-length!  string
          (string-maximum-length  string)))))
    (lambda ()
      (string-copy  string))
    (lambda ()
      (set-string-length!  string  length))))

6.2 Selecting String Components

string?  object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a string; otherwise returns #f.

(string?  "Hi") ⇒ #t
(string?  'Hi) ⇒ #f
Chapter 6: Strings

string-length string
Returns the length of string as an exact non-negative integer.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(string-length "")} & \Rightarrow 0 \\
\text{(string-length "The length")} & \Rightarrow 10
\end{align*}
\]

string-null? string
Returns \#t if string has zero length; otherwise returns \#f.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(string-null? "")} & \Rightarrow \#t \\
\text{(string-null? "Hi")} & \Rightarrow \#f
\end{align*}
\]

string-ref string k
Returns character k of string. K must be a valid index of string.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(string-ref "Hello" 1)} & \Rightarrow \#\e \\
\text{(string-ref "Hello" 5)} & \Rightarrow \text{error 5 not in correct range}
\end{align*}
\]

string-set! string k char
Stores char in element k of string and returns an unspecified value. K must be a valid index of string, and char must satisfy the predicate char-ascii?.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(define str "Dog")} & \Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
\text{(string-set! str 0 \#\L)} & \Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
\text{str} & \Rightarrow "Log" \\
\text{(string-set! str 3 \#\t)} & \Rightarrow \text{error 3 not in correct range}
\end{align*}
\]

6.3 Comparison of Strings

string=? string1 string2

substring=? string1 start end string2 start end

string-ci=? string1 string2

substring-ci=? string1 start end string2 start end

string<? string1 string2

substring<? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string>=? string1 string2

string-ci>=? string1 string2

substring-ci>=? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string-ci<? string1 string2

substring-ci<? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string-ci>=? string1 string2

substring-ci>=? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string-ci<=? string1 string2

substring-ci<=? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2
These procedures compare strings (substrings) according to the order of the characters they contain (also see Section 5.2 [Comparison of Characters], page 81). The arguments are compared using a lexicographic (or dictionary) order. If two strings differ in length but are the same up to the length of the shorter string, the shorter string is considered to be less than the longer string.

```
(string<? "cat" "dog")  ⇒  #t
(string<? "cat" "DOG")  ⇒  #f
(string-ci<? "cat" "DOG")  ⇒  #t
(string>? "catkin" "cat")  ⇒  #t ; shorter is lesser
```

If-eq, if-lt, and if-gt are procedures of no arguments (thunks). The two strings are compared; if they are equal, if-eq is applied, if string1 is less than string2, if-lt is applied, else if string1 is greater than string2, if-gt is applied. The value of the procedure is the value of the thunk that is applied.

```
(define (cheer) (display "Hooray!"))
(define (boo) (display "Boo-hiss!"))
(string-compare "a" "b" cheer (lambda() 'ignore) boo)
  ⇒  unspecified
```

```
(string-hash-mod string k)
```

6.4 Alphabetic Case in Strings

```
(string-capitalized? string)
(substring-capitalized? string start end)
```

These procedures return #t if the first word in the string (substring) is capitalized, and any subsequent words are either lower case or capitalized. Otherwise, they return #f. A word is defined as a non-null contiguous sequence of alphabetic characters, delimited by non-alphabetic characters or the limits of the string (substring). A word is capitalized if its first letter is upper case and all its remaining letters are lower case.
Chapter 6: Strings

string-upper-case? string
substringe-upper-case? string start end
string-lower-case? string
substringe-lower-case? string start end

These procedures return #t if all the letters in the string (substring) are of the correct case, otherwise they return #f. The string (substring) must contain at least one letter or the procedures return #f.

(map string-upper-case? '("" "A" "art" "Art" "ART"))
⇒ (#f #t #f #f #f #t)

string-capitalize string
string-capitalize! string
substringe-capitalize! string start end

string-capitalize returns a newly allocated copy of string in which the first alphabetic character is uppercase and the remaining alphabetic characters are lowercase. For example, "abcDEF" becomes "Abcdef". string-capitalize! is the destructive version of string-capitalize: it alters string and returns an unspecified value. substring-capitalize! destructively capitalizes the specified part of string.

(string-downcase string)
string-downcase! string
substringe-downcase! string start end

string-downcase returns a newly allocated copy of string in which all uppercase letters are changed to lowercase. string-downcase! is the destructive version of string-downcase: it alters string and returns an unspecified value. substring-downcase! destructively changes the case of the specified part of string.

(define str "ABCDEFG")
⇒ unspecified
(substring-downcase! str 3 5) ⇒ unspecified
str ⇒ "ABCdeFG"

string-upcase string
string-upcase! string
substringe-upcase! string start end

string-upcase returns a newly allocated copy of string in which all lowercase letters are changed to uppercase. string-upcase! is the destructive version of string-upcase: it alters string and returns an unspecified value. substring-upcase! destructively changes the case of the specified part of string.

6.5 Cutting and Pasting Strings

string-append string ...

Returns a newly allocated string made from the concatenation of the given strings. With no arguments, string-append returns the empty string (""").

(string-append) ⇒ ""
(string-append "*" "ace" "*") ⇒ "*ace*"
(string-append "" "" "") ⇒ ""
(eq? str (string-append str)) ⇒ #f ; newly allocated
**substring**  *string start end*  
Returns a newly allocated string formed from the characters of *string* beginning with index *start* (inclusive) and ending with *end* (exclusive).

```
(substring "" 0 0)   ⇒ ""
(substring "arduous" 2 5)   ⇒ "duo"
(substring "arduous" 2 8)  error  8 not in correct range
```

```
(define (string-copy s)
  (substring s 0 (string-length s)))
```

**string-head**  *string end*  
Returns a newly allocated copy of the initial substring of *string*, up to but excluding *end*. It could have been defined by:

```
(define (string-head string end)
  (substring string 0 end))
```

```
(define (string-tail string start)
  (substring string start (string-length string)))
```

```
(string-tail "uncommon" 2)   ⇒ "common"
```

**string-pad-left**  *string k [char]*  
**string-pad-right**  *string k [char]*  
These procedures return a newly allocated string created by padding *string* out to length *k*, using *char*. If *char* is not given, it defaults to \(\#\)\space. If *k* is less than the length of *string*, the resulting string is a truncated form of *string*. **string-pad-left** adds padding characters or truncates from the beginning of the string (lowest indices), while **string-pad-right** does so at the end of the string (highest indices).

```
(string-pad-left "hello" 4)   ⇒ "ello"
(string-pad-left "hello" 8)  ⇒ " hello"
(string-pad-left "hello" 8 #\*)  ⇒ "***hello"
(string-pad-right "hello" 4)  ⇒ "hell"
(string-pad-right "hello" 8)  ⇒ "hello 
```

**string-trim**  *string [char-set]*  
**string-trim-left**  *string [char-set]*  
**string-trim-right**  *string [char-set]*  
Returns a newly allocated string created by removing all characters that are not in *char-set* from: **(string-trim)** both ends of *string*; **(string-trim-left)** the beginning of *string*; or **(string-trim-right)** the end of *string*. *Char-set* defaults to char-set: not-whitespace.
Chapter 6: Strings

6.6 Searching Strings

The first few procedures in this section perform string search, in which a given string (the text) is searched to see if it contains another given string (the pattern) as a proper substring. At present these procedures are implemented using a hybrid strategy. For short patterns of less than 4 characters, the naive string-search algorithm is used. For longer patterns, the Boyer-Moore string-search algorithm is used.

```
(string-trim " in the end ") ⇒ "in the end"
(string-trim ")" ⇒ ""
(string-trim "100th" char-set:numeric) ⇒ "100"
(string-trim-left "-.+-=-" (char-set #\+)) ⇒ "+-=-"
(string-trim "but (+ x y) is" (char-set #\( #\))) ⇒ "(+ x y)"
```

```
6.6 Searching Strings

The first few procedures in this section perform string search, in which a given string (the text) is searched to see if it contains another given string (the pattern) as a proper substring. At present these procedures are implemented using a hybrid strategy. For short patterns of less than 4 characters, the naive string-search algorithm is used. For longer patterns, the Boyer-Moore string-search algorithm is used.

```
(string-trim " in the end ") ⇒ "in the end"
(string-trim "") ⇒ ""
(string-trim "100th" char-set:numeric) ⇒ "100"
(string-trim-left "-.+-=-" (char-set #\+)) ⇒ "+-=-"
(string-trim "but (+ x y) is" (char-set #\( #\))) ⇒ "(+ x y)"
```

```
(string-search-forward "rat" "pirate") ⇒ 2
(string-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating") ⇒ 2
(substring-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating" 4 13) ⇒ 7
(substring-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating" 9 13) ⇒ #f
```

```
(string-search-backward "rat" "pirate") ⇒ 5
(string-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating") ⇒ 10
(substring-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating" 1 8) ⇒ 5
(substring-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating" 9 13) ⇒ #f
```

```
(string-search-forward "rat" "pirate") ⇒ 2
(string-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating") ⇒ 2
(substring-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating" 4 13) ⇒ 7
(substring-search-forward "rat" "pirate rating" 9 13) ⇒ #f
```

```
(string-search-backward "rat" "pirate") ⇒ 5
(string-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating") ⇒ 10
(substring-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating" 1 8) ⇒ 5
(substring-search-backward "rat" "pirate rating" 9 13) ⇒ #f
```
string-search-all pattern string  [procedure]
substring-search-all pattern string start end  [procedure]

Pattern must be a string. Searches string to find all occurrences of the substring pattern. Returns a list of the occurrences; each element of the list is an index pointing to the first character of an occurrence.

substring-search-all limits its search to the specified substring of string; string-search-all searches all of string.

(string-search-all "rat" "pirate")
⇒ (2)
(string-search-all "rat" "pirate rating")
⇒ (2 7)
(substring-search-all "rat" "pirate rating" 4 13)
⇒ (7)
(substring-search-all "rat" "pirate rating" 9 13)
⇒ ()

substring? pattern string  [procedure]

Pattern must be a string. Searches string to see if it contains the substring pattern. Returns #t if pattern is a substring of string, otherwise returns #f.

(substring? "rat" "pirate") ⇒ #t
(substring? "rat" "outrage") ⇒ #f
(substring? "" any-string) ⇒ #t
(if (substring? "moon" text)
  (process-lunar text)
  'no-moon)

string-find-next-char string char  [procedure]
substring-find-next-char string start end char  [procedure]
string-find-next-char-ci string char  [procedure]
substring-find-next-char-ci string start end char  [procedure]

Returns the index of the first occurrence of char in the string (substring); returns #f if char does not appear in the string. For the substring procedures, the index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-find-next-char "Adam" #\A) ⇒ 0
(substring-find-next-char "Adam" 1 4 #\A) ⇒ #f
(substring-find-next-char-ci "Adam" 1 4 #\A) ⇒ 2

string-find-next-char-in-set string char-set  [procedure]
substring-find-next-char-in-set string start end char-set  [procedure]

Returns the index of the first character in the string (or substring) that is also in char-set, or returns #f if none of the characters in char-set occur in string. For the substring procedure, only the substring is searched, but the index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring.
(string-find-next-char-in-set my-string char-set:alphabetic) ⇒ start position of the first word in my-string
; Can be used as a predicate:
(if (string-find-next-char-in-set my-string
    (char-set #\( #\ ) ))
  'contains-parentheses
  'no-parentheses)

(string-find-previous-char string char) [procedure]
substring-find-previous-char string start end char) [procedure]
(string-find-previous-char-ci string char) [procedure]
substring-find-previous-char-ci string start end char) [procedure]

Returns the index of the last occurrence of char in the string (substring); returns #f if char doesn’t appear in the string. For the substring procedures, the index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-find-previous-char-in-set string char-set) [procedure]
substring-find-previous-char-in-set string start end char-set) [procedure]

Returns the index of the last character in the string (substring) that is also in char-set. For the substring procedure, the index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring.

6.7 Matching Strings

(string-match-forward string1 string2) [procedure]
substring-match-forward string1 start end string2 start end) [procedure]
(string-match-forward-ci string1 string2) [procedure]
substring-match-forward-ci string1 start end string2 start end) [procedure]

Compares the two strings (substrings), starting from the beginning, and returns the number of characters that are the same. If the two strings (substrings) start differently, returns 0. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-match-forward "mirror" "micro") ⇒ 2 ; matches "mi"
(string-match-forward "a" "b") ⇒ 0 ; no match

(string-match-backward string1 string2) [procedure]
substring-match-backward string1 start end string2 start end) [procedure]
(string-match-backward-ci string1 string2) [procedure]
substring-match-backward-ci string1 start end string2 start end) [procedure]

Compares the two strings (substrings), starting from the end and matching toward the front, returning the number of characters that are the same. If the two strings (substrings) end differently, returns 0. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-match-backward-ci "BULBOUS" "fractious")
⇒ 3 ; matches "ous"
string-prefix? string1 string2

substring-prefix? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string-prefix-ci? string1 string2

substring-prefix-ci? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

These procedures return #t if the first string (substring) forms the prefix of the second; otherwise returns #f. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-prefix? "abc" "abcdef") ⇒ #t
(string-prefix? "" any-string) ⇒ #t

string-suffix? string1 string2

substring-suffix? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

string-suffix-ci? string1 string2

substring-suffix-ci? string1 start1 end1 string2 start2 end2

These procedures return #t if the first string (substring) forms the suffix of the second; otherwise returns #f. The -ci procedures don’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

(string-suffix? "ous" "bulbous") ⇒ #t
(string-suffix? "" any-string) ⇒ #t

### 6.8 Regular Expressions

MIT/GNU Scheme provides support for using regular expressions to search and match strings. This manual does not define regular expressions; instead see Section “Syntax of Regular Expressions” in *The Emacs Editor*.

In addition to providing standard regular-expression support, MIT/GNU Scheme also provides the REXP abstraction. This is an alternative way to write regular expressions that is easier to read and understand than the standard notation. Regular expressions written in this notation can be translated into the standard notation.

The regular-expression support is a run-time-loadable option. To use it, execute

```
(load-option 'regular-expression)
```

once before calling any of the procedures defined here.

### 6.8.1 Regular-expression procedures

Procedures that perform regular-expression match and search accept standardized arguments. *Regexp* is the regular expression; it is a string. *String* is the string being matched or searched. Procedures that operate on substrings also accept *start* and *end* index arguments with the usual meaning. The optional argument *case-fold?* says whether the match/search is case-sensitive; if *case-fold?* is #f, it is case-sensitive, otherwise it is case-insensitive. The optional argument *syntax-table* is a character syntax table that defines the character syntax, such as which characters are legal word constituents. This feature is primarily for Edwin, so character syntax tables will not be documented here. Supplying #f for (or omitting) *syntax-table* will select the default character syntax, equivalent to Edwin’s fundamental mode.
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**re-string-match**  
 regexp string [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

**re-substring-match**  
 regexp string start end [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

These procedures match regexp against the respective string or substring, returning #f for no match, or a set of match registers (see below) if the match succeeds. Here is an example showing how to extract the matched substring:

```
(let ((r (re-substring-match regexp string start end)))
  (and r
       (substring string start (re-match-end-index 0 r))))
```

**re-string-search-forward**  
 regexp string [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

**re-substring-search-forward**  
 regexp string start end [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

Searches string for the leftmost substring matching regexp. Returns a set of match registers (see below) if the search is successful, or #f if it is unsuccessful.

**re-string-search-forward** limits its search to the specified substring of string;  
**re-string-search-forward** searches all of string.

**re-string-search-backward**  
 regexp string [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

**re-substring-search-backward**  
 regexp string start end [case-fold? [syntax-table]]  
 [procedure]

Searches string for the rightmost substring matching regexp. Returns a set of match registers (see below) if the search is successful, or #f if it is unsuccessful.

**re-substring-search-backward** limits its search to the specified substring of string;  
**re-string-search-backward** searches all of string.

When a successful match or search occurs, the above procedures return a set of match registers. The match registers are a set of index registers that record indexes into the matched string. Each index register corresponds to an instance of the regular-expression grouping operator ‘\(', and records the start index (inclusive) and end index (exclusive) of the matched group. These registers are numbered from 1 to 9, corresponding left-to-right to the grouping operators in the expression. Additionally, register 0 corresponds to the entire substring matching the regular expression.

**re-match-start-index**  
 n registers  
 [procedure]

**re-match-end-index**  
 n registers  
 [procedure]

N must be an exact integer between 0 and 9 inclusive. Registers must be a match-registers object as returned by one of the regular-expression match or search procedures above. **re-match-start-index** returns the start index of the corresponding regular-expression register, and **re-match-end-index** returns the corresponding end index.

**re-match-extract**  
 string registers n  
 [procedure]

Registers must be a match-registers object as returned by one of the regular-expression match or search procedures above. String must be the string that was passed as an argument to the procedure that returned registers. N must be an exact integer between 0 and 9 inclusive. If the matched regular expression contained m grouping operators, then the value of this procedure is undefined for n strictly greater than m.
This procedure extracts the substring corresponding to the match register specified by registers and n. This is equivalent to the following expression:

```
(substring string
  (re-match-start-index n registers)
  (re-match-end-index n registers))
```

**regexp-group alternative ...**  [procedure]

Each alternative must be a regular expression. The returned value is a new regular expression that consists of the alternatives combined by a grouping operator. For example:

```
(regexp-group "foo" "bar" "baz")
⇒ "\(foo\|bar\|baz\)"
```

### 6.8.2 REXP abstraction

In addition to providing standard regular-expression support, MIT/GNU Scheme also provides the REXP abstraction. This is an alternative way to write regular expressions that is easier to read and understand than the standard notation. Regular expressions written in this notation can be translated into the standard notation.

The REXP abstraction is a set of combinators that are composed into a complete regular expression. Each combinator directly corresponds to a particular piece of regular-expression notation. For example, the expression (rexp-any-char) corresponds to the . character in standard regular-expression notation, while (rexp* rexp) corresponds to the * character.

The primary advantages of REXP are that it makes the nesting structure of regular expressions explicit, and that it simplifies the description of complex regular expressions by allowing them to be built up using straightforward combinators.

**rexp? object**  [procedure]

Returns #t if object is a REXP expression, or #f otherwise. A REXP is one of: a string, which represents the pattern matching that string; a character set, which represents the pattern matching a character in that set; or an object returned by calling one of the procedures defined here.

**rexp->regexp rexp**  [procedure]

Converts rexp to standard regular-expression notation, returning a newly-allocated string.

**rexp-compile rexp**  [procedure]

Converts rexp to standard regular-expression notation, then compiles it and returns the compiled result. Equivalent to

```
(re-compile-pattern (rexp->regexp rexp) #f)
```

**rexp-any-char**  [procedure]

Returns a REXP that matches any single character except a newline. This is equivalent to the . construct.

**rexp-line-start**  [procedure]

Returns a REXP that matches the start of a line. This is equivalent to the ^ construct.
**rexp-line-end**

Returns a REXP that matches the end of a line. This is equivalent to the \$ construct.

**rexp-string-start**

Returns a REXP that matches the start of the text being matched. This is equivalent to the \' construct.

**rexp-string-end**

Returns a REXP that matches the end of the text being matched. This is equivalent to the \' construct.

**rexp-word-edge**

Returns a REXP that matches the start or end of a word. This is equivalent to the \b construct.

**rexp-not-word-edge**

Returns a REXP that matches anywhere that is not the start or end of a word. This is equivalent to the \B construct.

**rexp-word-start**

Returns a REXP that matches the start of a word. This is equivalent to the \< construct.

**rexp-word-end**

Returns a REXP that matches the end of a word. This is equivalent to the \> construct.

**rexp-word-char**

Returns a REXP that matches any word-constituent character. This is equivalent to the \w construct.

**rexp-not-word-char**

Returns a REXP that matches any character that isn’t a word constituent. This is equivalent to the \W construct.

The next two procedures accept a *syntax-type* argument specifying the syntax class to be matched against. This argument is a symbol selected from the following list. Each symbol is followed by the equivalent character used in standard regular-expression notation. **whitespace** (space character), **punctuation** (.), **word** (w), **symbol** (_), **open** (()), **close** ()), **quote** (’), **string-delimiter** (“), **math-delimiter** ($), **escape** (\), **char-quote** (/), **comment-start** (<), **comment-end** (>).

**rexp-syntax-char** *syntax-type*

Returns a REXP that matches any character of type *syntax-type*. This is equivalent to the \s construct.

**rexp-not-syntax-char** *syntax-type*

Returns a REXP that matches any character not of type *syntax-type*. This is equivalent to the \S construct.
rexp-sequence \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches each \textit{rexp} argument in sequence. If no \textit{rexp} argument is supplied, the result matches the null string. This is equivalent to concatenating the regular expressions corresponding to each \textit{rexp} argument.

rexp-alternatives \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches any of the \textit{rexp} arguments. This is equivalent to concatenating the regular expressions corresponding to each \textit{rexp} argument, separating them by the $\|\$ construct.

rexp-group \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

\textit{rexp-group} is like \textit{rexp-sequence}, except that the result is marked as a match group. This is equivalent to the $(\ldots \}$ construct.

The next three procedures in principal accept a single REXP argument. For convenience, they accept multiple arguments, which are converted into a single argument by \textit{rexp-group}. Note, however, that if only one REXP argument is supplied, and it’s very simple, no grouping occurs.

rexp* \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches zero or more instances of the pattern matched by the \textit{rexp} arguments. This is equivalent to the $*$ construct.

rexp+ \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches one or more instances of the pattern matched by the \textit{rexp} arguments. This is equivalent to the $+$ construct.

rexp-optional \textit{rexp} \ldots \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches zero or one instances of the pattern matched by the \textit{rexp} arguments. This is equivalent to the $?$ construct.

rexp-case-fold \textit{rexp} \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

Returns a REXP that matches the same pattern as \textit{rexp}, but is insensitive to character case. This has no equivalent in standard regular-expression notation.

\section*{6.9 Modification of Strings}

\textbf{string-replace} \textit{string char1 char2} \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

\textbf{substring-replace} \textit{string start end char1 char2} \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

\textbf{string-replace!} \textit{string char1 char2} \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

\textbf{substring-replace!} \textit{string start end char1 char2} \quad \textbf{[procedure]}

These procedures replace all occurrences of \textit{char1} with \textit{char2} in the original string (substring). \textbf{string-replace} and \textbf{substring-replace} return a newly allocated string containing the result. \textbf{string-replace!} and \textbf{substring-replace!} destructively modify \textit{string} and return an unspecified value.

```
(define str "a few words")  ⇒  unspecified
(string-replace str #\space #\-)  ⇒  "a-few-words"
(substring-replace str 2 9 #\space #\-)  ⇒  "a few-words"
str
(string-replace! str #\space #\-)  ⇒  "a-few-words"
str
⇒  "a-few-words"
```
**Chapter 6: Strings**

**string-fill! string char**

Stores char in every element of string and returns an unspecified value.

**substring-fill! string start end char**

Stores char in elements start (inclusive) to end (exclusive) of string and returns an unspecified value.

```scheme
(define s (make-string 10 #\space)) ⇒ unspecified
(substring-fill! s 2 8 #\*) ⇒ unspecified
s ⇒ " ****** "
```

**substring-move-left! string start1 end1 string2 start2**

**substring-move-right! string start1 end1 string2 start2**

Copies the characters from start1 to end1 of string1 into string2 at the start2-th position. The characters are copied as follows (note that this is only important when string1 and string2 are eqv?):

**substring-move-left!**

The copy starts at the left end and moves toward the right (from smaller indices to larger). Thus if string1 and string2 are the same, this procedure moves the characters toward the left inside the string.

**substring-move-right!**

The copy starts at the right end and moves toward the left (from larger indices to smaller). Thus if string1 and string2 are the same, this procedure moves the characters toward the right inside the string.

The following example shows how these procedures can be used to build up a string (it would have been easier to use string-append):

```scheme
(define answer (make-string 9 #\*)) ⇒ unspecified
answer ⇒ "**********"
(substring-move-left! "start" 0 5 answer 0) ⇒ unspecified
answer ⇒ "start****"
(substring-move-left! "-end" 0 4 answer 5) ⇒ unspecified
answer ⇒ "start-end"
```

**reverse-string string**

**reverse-substring string start end**

**reverse-string! string**

**reverse-substring! string start end**

Reverses the order of the characters in the given string or substring. **reverse-string** and **reverse-substring** return newly allocated strings; **reverse-string!** and **reverse-substring!** modify their argument strings and return an unspecified value.
(reverse-string "foo bar baz") ⇒ "zab rab oof"
(reverse-substring "foo bar baz" 4 7) ⇒ "rab"
(let ((foo "foo bar baz"))
 (reverse-string! foo)
foo) ⇒ "zab rab oof"
(let ((foo "foo bar baz"))
 (reverse-substring! foo 4 7)
foo) ⇒ "foo rab baz"

6.10 Variable-Length Strings

MIT/GNU Scheme allows the length of a string to be dynamically adjusted in a limited way. When a new string is allocated, by whatever method, it has a specific length. At the time of allocation, it is also given a maximum length, which is guaranteed to be at least as large as the string’s length. (Sometimes the maximum length will be slightly larger than the length, but it is a bad idea to count on this. Programs should assume that the maximum length is the same as the length at the time of the string’s allocation.) After the string is allocated, the operation set-string-length! can be used to alter the string’s length to any value between 0 and the string’s maximum length, inclusive.

<string-maximum-length string> [procedure]
Returns the maximum length of string. The following is guaranteed:

(<= (string-length string)
 (string-maximum-length string)) ⇒ #t

The maximum length of a string never changes.

<set-string-length> string k [procedure]
Alters the length of string to be k, and returns an unspecified value. K must be less than or equal to the maximum length of string. set-string-length! does not change the maximum length of string.

6.11 Byte Vectors

MIT/GNU Scheme implements strings as packed vectors of 8-bit ISO-8859-1 bytes. Most of the string operations, such as string-ref, coerce these 8-bit codes into character objects. However, some lower-level operations are made available for use.

<vector-8b-ref string k> [procedure]
Returns character k of string as an ISO-8859-1 code. K must be a valid index of string.

(vector-8b-ref "abcde" 2) ⇒ 99 ;c

<vector-8b-set! string k code> [procedure]
Stores code in element k of string and returns an unspecified value. K must be a valid index of string, and code must be a valid ISO-8859-1 code.

<vector-8b-fill! string start end code> [procedure]
Stores code in elements start (inclusive) to end (exclusive) of string and returns an unspecified value. Code must be a valid ISO-8859-1 code.
vector-8b-find-next-char  string start end code  [procedure]
vector-8b-find-next-char-ci string start end code  [procedure]

Returns the index of the first occurrence of code in the given substring; returns #f if code does not appear. The index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring. Code must be a valid ISO-8859-1 code.

vector-8b-find-next-char-ci doesn’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.

vector-8b-find-previous-char  string start end code  [procedure]
vector-8b-find-previous-char-ci string start end code  [procedure]

Returns the index of the last occurrence of code in the given substring; returns #f if code does not appear. The index returned is relative to the entire string, not just the substring. Code must be a valid ISO-8859-1 code.

vector-8b-find-previous-char-ci doesn’t distinguish uppercase and lowercase letters.
7 Lists

A pair (sometimes called a dotted pair) is a data structure with two fields called the car and cdr fields (for historical reasons). Pairs are created by the procedure cons. The car and cdr fields are accessed by the procedures car and cdr. The car and cdr fields are assigned by the procedures set-car! and set-cdr!.

Pairs are used primarily to represent lists. A list can be defined recursively as either the empty list or a pair whose cdr is a list. More precisely, the set of lists is defined as the smallest set $X$ such that

- The empty list is in $X$.
- If list is in $X$, then any pair whose cdr field contains list is also in $X$.

The objects in the car fields of successive pairs of a list are the elements of the list. For example, a two-element list is a pair whose car is the first element and whose cdr is a pair whose car is the second element and whose cdr is the empty list. The length of a list is the number of elements, which is the same as the number of pairs. The empty list is a special object of its own type (it is not a pair); it has no elements and its length is zero.\(^1\)

The most general notation (external representation) for Scheme pairs is the “dotted” notation $(c_1 . c_2)$ where $c_1$ is the value of the car field and $c_2$ is the value of the cdr field. For example, $(4 . 5)$ is a pair whose car is 4 and whose cdr is 5. Note that $(4 . 5)$ is the external representation of a pair, not an expression that evaluates to a pair.

A more streamlined notation can be used for lists: the elements of the list are simply enclosed in parentheses and separated by spaces. The empty list is written (). For example, the following are equivalent notations for a list of symbols:

\[
\begin{align*}
(a\ b\ c\ d\ e) \\
(a\ .\ (b\ .\ (c\ .\ (d\ .\ (e\ .\ ()))))
\end{align*}
\]

Whether a given pair is a list depends upon what is stored in the cdr field. When the set-cdr! procedure is used, an object can be a list one moment and not the next:

\[
\begin{align*}
(define\ x\ (list\ 'a\ 'b\ 'c)) \\
(define\ y\ x)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
y &\Rightarrow (a\ b\ c) \\
(list?\ y) &\Rightarrow #t \\
(set-cdr!\ x\ 4) &\Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
x &\Rightarrow (a\ .\ 4) \\
(eqv?\ x\ y) &\Rightarrow #t \\
y &\Rightarrow (a\ .\ 4) \\
(list?\ y) &\Rightarrow #f \\
(set-cdr!\ x\ x) &\Rightarrow \text{unspecified} \\
(list?\ y) &\Rightarrow #f
\end{align*}
\]

A chain of pairs that doesn’t end in the empty list is called an improper list. Note that an improper list is not a list. The list and dotted notations can be combined to represent improper lists, as the following equivalent notations show:

\(^1\) The above definitions imply that all lists have finite length and are terminated by the empty list.
(a b c . d)
(a . (b . (c . d)))

Within literal expressions and representations of objects read by the read procedure, the forms 'datum, 'datum, ,datum, and @datum denote two-element lists whose first elements are the symbols quote, quasiquote, unquote, and unquote-splicing, respectively. The second element in each case is datum. This convention is supported so that arbitrary Scheme programs may be represented as lists. Among other things, this permits the use of the read procedure to parse Scheme programs.

7.1 Pairs

This section describes the simple operations that are available for constructing and manipulating arbitrary graphs constructed from pairs.

pair? object

[procedure]

Returns #t if object is a pair; otherwise returns #f.

(pair? '(a . b)) ⇒ #t
(pair? '(a b c)) ⇒ #t
(pair? '()) ⇒ #f
(pair? '#(a b)) ⇒ #f

cons obj1 obj2

[procedure]

Returns a newly allocated pair whose car is obj1 and whose cdr is obj2. The pair is guaranteed to be different (in the sense of eqv?) from every previously existing object.

(cons 'a '()) ⇒ (a)
(cons '(a) '(b c d)) ⇒ ((a) b c d)
(cons "a" '(b c)) ⇒ ("a" b c)
(cons 'a 3) ⇒ (a . 3)
(cons '(a b) 'c) ⇒ ((a b) . c)

xcons obj1 obj2

(SRFI 1) Returns a newly allocated pair whose car is obj2 and whose cdr is obj1.

(xcons '(b c) 'a) ⇒ (a b c)

car pair

[procedure]

Returns the contents of the car field of pair. Note that it is an error to take the car of the empty list.

(car '(a b c)) ⇒ a
(car '((a) b c d)) ⇒ (a)
(car '(1 . 2)) ⇒ 1
(car '()) [error] Illegal datum

cdr pair

[procedure]

Returns the contents of the cdr field of pair. Note that it is an error to take the cdr of the empty list.

(cdr '((a) b c d)) ⇒ (b c d)
(cdr '(1 . 2)) ⇒ 2
(cdr '()) [error] Illegal datum
car+cdr pair

(SRFI 1) The fundamental pair deconstructor:

(lambd (p) (values (car p) (cdr p)))

(receive (a b) (car+cdr (cons 1 2)))

(write-line a)

(write-line b))

⇒ 1

⇒ 2

set-car! pair object

Stores object in the car field of pair. The value returned by set-car! is unspecified.

(define (f) (list 'not-a-constant-list))

(define (g) '(constant-list))

(set-car! (f) 3)  ⇒ unspecified

(set-car! (g) 3)  ⇒ error  Illegal datum

set-cdr! pair object

Stores object in the cdr field of pair. The value returned by set-cdr! is unspecified.
cddcdr pair

These procedures are compositions of car and cdr; for example, caddr could be defined by

(define caddr (lambda (x) (car (cdr (cdr x)))))

general-car-cdr object path

This procedure is a generalization of car and cdr. Path encodes a particular sequence of car and cdr operations, which general-car-cdr executes on object. Path is an exact non-negative integer that encodes the operations in a bitwise fashion: a zero bit represents a cdr operation, and a one bit represents a car. The bits are executed LSB to MSB, and the most significant one bit, rather than being interpreted as an operation, signals the end of the sequence.²

For example, the following are equivalent:

(general-car-cdr object #b1011)
(cdr (car (car object)))

Here is a partial table of path/operation equivalents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Operation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#b10</td>
<td>cdr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b11</td>
<td>car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b100</td>
<td>cddr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b101</td>
<td>cdar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b110</td>
<td>cadr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b111</td>
<td>caar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#b1000</td>
<td>cdddr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

tree-copy tree

(SRFI 1) This copies an arbitrary tree constructed from pairs, copying both the car and cdr elements of every pair. This could have been defined by

(define (tree-copy tree)
  (let loop ((tree tree))
    (if (pair? tree)
        (cons (loop (car tree)) (loop (cdr tree)))
        tree))

7.2 Construction of Lists

list object ...

Returns a list of its arguments.

(list 'a (+ 3 4) 'c) ⇒ (a 7 c)
(list) ⇒ ()

These expressions are equivalent:

(list obj1 obj2 ... objN)
(cons obj1 (cons obj2 ... (cons objN '()) ...))

² Note that path is restricted to a machine-dependent range, usually the size of a machine word. On many machines, this means that the maximum length of path will be 30 operations (32 bits, less the sign bit and the “end-of-sequence” bit).
**make-list** \(k [element]\)  
(SRFI 1) This procedure returns a newly allocated list of length \(k\), whose elements are all \(element\). If \(element\) is not supplied, it defaults to the empty list.  
\[
\text{(make-list 4 'c)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (\text{c c c c})
\]

**cons*** \(object \ object \ldots\)  
(SRFI 1) **cons* is similar to list**, except that **cons* conses together the last two arguments rather than consing the last argument with the empty list. If the last argument is not a list the result is an improper list. If the last argument is a list, the result is a list consisting of the initial arguments and all of the items in the final argument. If there is only one argument, the result is the argument.  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(cons* 'a 'b 'c)} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad (a \ b \ . \ c) \\
\text{(cons* 'a 'b '(c d))} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad (a \ b \ c \ d) \\
\text{(cons* 'a)} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{a}
\end{align*}
\]

These expressions are equivalent:  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(cons* obj1 obj2 \ldots objN-1 objN)} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{obj1 obj2 \ldots objN-1 objN \ldots)}
\end{align*}
\]

**list-tabulate** \(k \ init-proc\)  
[S procedure]  
Returns a \(k\)-element list. Element \(i\) of the list, where \(0 <= i < k\), is produced by \((init-proc i)\). No guarantee is made about the dynamic order in which \(init-proc\) is applied to these indices.  
\[
\text{(list-tabulate 4 values)} \Rightarrow \quad (0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3)
\]

**list-tabulate** is defined by SRFI 1.

**list-copy** \(list\)  
(SRFI 1) Returns a newly allocated copy of \(list\). This copies each of the pairs comprising \(list\). This could have been defined by  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(define (list-copy list)} \\
\text{\quad (if (null? list) } \quad \text{'}() \\
\text{\quad \quad (cons (car list) } \quad \text{(list-copy (cdr list))))))}
\end{align*}
\]

**iota** \(count\ [start [step]]\)  
(SRFI 1) Returns a list containing the elements  
\[
\text{(start start+step \ldots start+(count-1)*step)}
\]
\(Count\ must be an exact non-negative integer, while \(start\) and \(step\) can be any numbers. The \(start\) and \(step\) parameters default to 0 and 1, respectively.  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(iota 5)} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad (0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4) \\
\text{(iota 5 0 -0.1)} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad (0 \ -0.1 \ -0.2 \ -0.3 \ -0.4)
\end{align*}
\]

**vector->list** \(vector\)  
[procedure]  
**subvector->list** \(vector \ start \ end\)  
[procedure]  
**vector->list** returns a newly allocated list of the elements of \(vector\).  
**subvector->list** returns a newly allocated list of the elements of the given subvector.  
The inverse of **vector->list** is **list->vector**.
(vector->list '#(dah dah didah)) ⇒ (dah dah didah)

string->list string [procedure]
substring->list string start end [procedure]

string->list returns a newly allocated list of the character elements of string.
substring->list returns a newly allocated list of the character elements of the given substring. The inverse of string->list is list->string.

(string->list "abcd") ⇒ (#\a #\b #\c #\d)
(substring->list "abcdef" 1 3) ⇒ (#\b #\c)

7.3 Selecting List Components

list? object [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a list, otherwise returns #f. By definition, all lists have finite length and are terminated by the empty list. This procedure returns an answer even for circular structures.

Any object satisfying this predicate will also satisfy exactly one of pair? or null?.

(list? '(a b c)) ⇒ #t
(list? '()) ⇒ #t
(list? '(a . b)) ⇒ #f
(let ((x (list 'a)))
  (set-cdr! x x)
  (list? x)) ⇒ #f

circular-list? object [procedure]
(SRFI 1) Returns #t if object is a circular list, otherwise returns #f.

(dotted-list? (list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #f
(dotted-list? (cons* 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #t
(dotted-list? (circular-list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #f

dotted-list? object [procedure]
(SRFI 1) Returns #t if object is an improper list, otherwise returns #f.

(circular-list? (list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #f
(circular-list? (cons* 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #f
(circular-list? (circular-list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #t

length list [procedure]
Returns the length of list. Signals an error if list isn’t a proper list.

(length '(a b c)) ⇒ 3
(length '(a (b (c d e)))) ⇒ 3
(length '()) ⇒ 0
(length (circular-list 'a 'b 'c)) [error]

length+ clist [procedure]
(SRFI 1) Returns the length of clist, if it is a proper list. Returns #f if clist is a circular list. Otherwise signals an error.
(length+ (list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ 3
(length+ (cons* 'a 'b 'c)) error
(length+ (circular-list 'a 'b 'c)) ⇒ #f

null? object

Returns #t if object is the empty list; otherwise returns #f.

(null? '(a . b)) ⇒ #f
(null? '(a b c)) ⇒ #f
(null? '()) ⇒ #t

list-ref list k

Returns the kth element of list, using zero-origin indexing. The valid indexes of a list are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the list. The first element of a list has index 0, the second has index 1, and so on.

(list-ref '(a b c d) 2) ⇒ c
(list-ref '(a b c d)
  (inexact->exact (round 1.8)))
  ⇒ c

(list-ref list k) is equivalent to (car (list-tail list k)).

first list
second list
third list
fourth list
fifth list
sixth list
seventh list
eighth list
ninth list
tenth list

Returns the specified element of list. It is an error if list is not long enough to contain the specified element (for example, if the argument to seventh is a list that contains only six elements).

7.4 Cutting and Pasting Lists

sublist list start end

Start and end must be exact integers satisfying

0 <= start <= end <= (length list)

sublist returns a newly allocated list formed from the elements of list beginning at index start (inclusive) and ending at end (exclusive).

list-head list k

Returns a newly allocated list consisting of the first k elements of list. K must not be greater than the length of list.

We could have defined list-head this way:

(define (list-head list k)
  (sublist list 0 k))
list-tail list k

Returns the sublist of list obtained by omitting the first k elements. The result, if it is not the empty list, shares structure with list. K must not be greater than the length of list.

append list ...

Returns a list consisting of the elements of the first list followed by the elements of the other lists.

(append '(x) '(y)) ⇒ (x y)
(append '(a) '(b c d)) ⇒ (a b c d)
(append '(a (b)) '((c))) ⇒ (a (b) (c))
(append) ⇒ ()

The resulting list is always newly allocated, except that it shares structure with the last list argument. The last argument may actually be any object; an improper list results if the last argument is not a proper list.

(append '(a b) '(c . d)) ⇒ (a b c . d)
(append '() 'a) ⇒ a

append! list ...

Returns a list that is the argument lists concatenated together. The arguments are changed rather than copied. (Compare this with append, which copies arguments rather than destroying them.) For example:

(define x '(a b c))
(define y '(d e f))
(define z '(g h))
(append! x y z) ⇒ (a b c d e f g h)
x ⇒ (a b c d e f g h)
y ⇒ (d e f g h)
z ⇒ (g h)

last-pair list

Returns the last pair in list, which may be an improper list. last-pair could have been defined this way:

(define last-pair
  (lambda (x)
    (if (pair? (cdr x))
      (last-pair (cdr x))
      x)))

except-last-pair list

except-last-pair! list

These procedures remove the last pair from list. List may be an improper list, except that it must consist of at least one pair. except-last-pair returns a newly allocated copy of list that omits the last pair. except-last-pair! destructively removes the last pair from list and returns list. If the cdr of list is not a pair, the empty list is returned by either procedure.
7.5 Filtering Lists

**filter** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Returns a newly allocated copy of *list* containing only the elements satisfying *predicate*. *Predicate* must be a procedure of one argument.

\[
\text{(filter odd? '(1 2 3 4 5)) } \Rightarrow \text{(1 3 5)}
\]

The non-standard procedure `keep-matching-items` (and its alias `list-transform-positive`) are the same except that its arguments are reversed.

**remove** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Like `filter`, except that the returned list contains only those elements *not* satisfying *predicate*.

\[
\text{(remove odd? '(1 2 3 4 5)) } \Rightarrow \text{(2 4)}
\]

The non-standard procedure `delete-matching-items` (and its alias `list-transform-negative`) are the same except that its arguments are reversed.

**partition** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Partitions the elements of *list* with *predicate*, and returns two values: the list of in-elements and the list of out-elements. The *list* is not disordered—elements occur in the result lists in the same order as they occur in the argument *list*. The dynamic order in which the various applications of *predicate* are made is not specified. One of the returned lists may share a common tail with the argument *list*.

\[
\text{(partition symbol? '(one 2 3 four five 6)) } \Rightarrow \text{(one four five)} \atop \text{(2 3 6)}
\]

**filter!** *predicate list*  
**remove!** *predicate list*  
**partition!** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Linear-update variants of `filter`, `remove` and `partition`. These procedures are allowed, but not required, to alter the cons cells in the argument *list* to construct the result lists.

The non-standard procedures `keep-matching-items!` and `delete-matching-items!` bear a similar relationship to `keep-matching-items` and `delete-matching-items`, respectively.

**delq** *element list*  
**delv** *element list*  
**delete** *element list*  
Returns a newly allocated copy of *list* with all entries equal to *element* removed. `delq` uses `eq?` to compare *element* with the entries in *list*, `delv` uses `eqv?`, and `delete` uses `equal?`.

**delq!** *element list*  
**delv!** *element list*  
**delete!** *element list*  
Returns a list consisting of the top-level elements of *list* with all entries equal to *element* removed. These procedures are like `delq`, `delv`, and `delete` except that
they destructively modify list. delq! uses eq? to compare element with the entries in list, delv! uses eqv?, and delete! uses equal?. Because the result may not be eq? to list, it is desirable to do something like (set! x (delete! x)).

```scheme
(define x '(a b c b))
(delete 'b x) ⇒ (a c)
x ⇒ (a b c b)
```

```scheme
(define x '(a b c b))
(delete! 'b x) ⇒ (a c)
x ⇒ (a c)
;; Returns correct result:
(delete! 'a x) ⇒ (c)
```

;; Didn’t modify what x points to:
```scheme
x ⇒ (a c)
```

### delete-member-procedure

**deletor** **predicate** → [procedure]

Returns a deletion procedure similar to delv or delete!. Deletor should be one of the procedures list-deletor or list-deletor!. Predicate must be an equivalence predicate. The returned procedure accepts exactly two arguments: first, an object to be deleted, and second, a list of objects from which it is to be deleted. If deletor is list-deletor, the procedure returns a newly allocated copy of the given list in which all entries equal to the given object have been removed. If deletor is list-deletor!, the procedure returns a list consisting of the top-level elements of the given list with all entries equal to the given object removed; the given list is destructively modified to produce the result. In either case predicate is used to compare the given object to the elements of the given list.

Here are some examples that demonstrate how **delete-member-procedure** could have been used to implement delv and delete!:

```scheme
(define delv
  (delete-member-procedure list-deletor eqv?))
(define delete!
  (delete-member-procedure list-deletor! equal?))
```

### list-deletor

**predicate** → [procedure]

These procedures each return a procedure that deletes elements from lists. Predicate must be a procedure of one argument. The returned procedure accepts exactly one argument, which must be a proper list, and applies predicate to each of the elements of the argument, deleting those for which it is true.

The procedure returned by list-deletor deletes elements non-destructively, by returning a newly allocated copy of the argument with the appropriate elements removed. The procedure returned by list-deletor! performs a destructive deletion.
Chapter 7: Lists

7.6 Searching Lists

**find** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Returns the first element in *list* for which *predicate* is true; returns #f if it doesn’t find such an element. *Predicate* must be a procedure of one argument.

```
(find even? '(3 1 4 1 5 9)) => 4
```

Note that **find** has an ambiguity in its lookup semantics—if **find** returns #f, you cannot tell (in general) if it found a #f element that satisfied *predicate*, or if it did not find any element at all. In many situations, this ambiguity cannot arise—either the list being searched is known not to contain any #f elements, or the list is guaranteed to have an element satisfying *predicate*. However, in cases where this ambiguity can arise, you should use **find-tail** instead of **find**—**find-tail** has no such ambiguity:

```
(cond ((find-tail pred lis)  
      => (lambda (pair) ...)); Handle (CAR PAIR)  
    (else ...)); Search failed.
```

The non-standard **find-matching-item** procedure (and its alias **list-search-positive**) works identically except that its argument order is reversed. **list-search-negative** is similar to **list-search-positive** but the sense of the predicate is reversed.

**find-tail** *predicate list*  
(SRFI 1) Returns the first pair of *list* whose car satisfies *predicate*; returns #f if there’s no such pair. **find-tail** can be viewed as a general-predicate variant of **memv**.

**memq** *object list*  
**memv** *object list*  
**member** *object list*  
These procedures return the first pair of *list* whose car is *object*; the returned pair is always one from which *list* is composed. If *object* does not occur in *list*, #f (n.b.: not the empty list) is returned. **memq** uses eq? to compare *object* with the elements of *list*, while **memv** uses eqv? and **member** uses equal?.

```
(memq 'a '(a b c))        ⇒ (a b c)
(memq 'b '(a b c))        ⇒ (b c)
(memq 'a '(b c d))        ⇒ #f
(memq (list 'a) '(b (a) c)) ⇒ #f
(member (list 'a) '(b (a) c)) ⇒ ((a) c)
(memq 101 '(100 101 102)) ⇒ unspecified
(memv 101 '(100 101 102)) ⇒ (101 102)
```

**member-procedure** *predicate*  
Returns a procedure similar to **memq**, except that *predicate*, which must be an equivalence predicate, is used instead of eq?. This could be used to define **memv** as follows:

```
(define memv (member-procedure eqv))
```

---

3 Although they are often used as predicates, **memq**, **memv**, and **member** do not have question marks in their names because they return useful values rather than just #t or #f.
7.7 Mapping of Lists

map  procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
Procedure must be a procedure taking as many arguments as there are lists. If more
than one list is given, then they must all be the same length. map applies procedure
element-wise to the elements of the lists and returns a list of the results, in order from
left to right. The dynamic order in which procedure is applied to the elements of the
lists is unspecified; use for-each to sequence side effects.

(map cadr `((a b) (d e) (g h))) ⇒ (b e h)
(map (lambda (n) (expt n n)) `((1 2 3 4)) ⇒ (1 4 27 256)
(map + `(1 2 3) `(4 5 6)) ⇒ (5 7 9)
(let ((count 0))
  (map (lambda (ignored)
        (set! count (+ count 1))
        count)
    `(a b c))) ⇒ unspecified

map*  initial-value procedure list1 list2 . . .  [procedure]
Similar to map, except that the resulting list is terminated by initial-value rather than
the empty list. The following are equivalent:

(map procedure list list ...)  
(map* () procedure list list ...)

append-map  procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
append-map*  initial-value procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
Similar to map and map*, respectively, except that the results of applying procedure
to the elements of lists are concatenated together by append rather than by cons.
The following are equivalent, except that the former is more efficient:

(append-map procedure list list ...)  
(apply append (map procedure list list ...))

append-map!  procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
append-map!*  initial-value procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
Similar to map and map*, respectively, except that the results of applying procedure
to the elements of lists are concatenated together by append! rather than by cons.
The following are equivalent, except that the former is more efficient:

(append-map! procedure list list ...)  
(apply append! (map procedure list list ...))

for-each  procedure list list . . .  [procedure]
The arguments to for-each are like the arguments to map, but for-each calls procedure
for its side effects rather than for its values. Unlike map, for-each is guaranteed
to call procedure on the elements of the lists in order from the first element to the
last, and the value returned by for-each is unspecified.
(let ((v (make-vector 5))
  (for-each (lambda (i)
               (vector-set! v i (* i i)))
            '(0 1 2 3 4))
  v)        ⇒ #(0 1 4 9 16)

7.8 Reduction of Lists

reduce-left procedure initial list
    [procedure]
    Combines all the elements of list using the binary operation procedure. For example, using + one can add up all the elements:

(reduce-left + 0 list-of-numbers)

The argument initial is used only if list is empty; in this case initial is the result of the call to reduce-left. If list has a single argument, it is returned. Otherwise, the arguments are reduced in a left-associative fashion. For example:

(reduce-left + 0 '(1 2 3 4))  ⇒ 10
(reduce-left + 0 '(1 2))      ⇒ 3
(reduce-left + 0 '(1))        ⇒ 1
(reduce-left + 0 '())         ⇒ 0
(reduce-left + 0 '(foo))      ⇒ foo
(reduce-left list '() '(1 2 3 4))  ⇒ (((1 2) 3) 4)

reduce-right procedure initial list
    [procedure]
    Like reduce-left except that it is right-associative.

(reduce-right list '() '(1 2 3 4))  ⇒ (1 (2 (3 (4 ()))))

fold-right procedure initial list
    [procedure]
    Combines all the elements of list using the binary operation procedure. Unlike reduce-left and reduce-right, initial is always used:

(fold-right + 0 '(1 2 3 4))        ⇒ 10
(fold-right + 0 '(foo))           error Illegal datum
(fold-right list '() '(1 2 3 4))  ⇒ (1 (2 (3 (4 ())))))

Fold-right has interesting properties because it establishes a homomorphism between (cons, () and (procedure, initial). It can be thought of as replacing the pairs in the spine of the list with procedure and replacing the () at the end with initial. Many of the classical list-processing procedures can be expressed in terms of fold-right, at least for the simple versions that take a fixed number of arguments:
(define (copy-list list)
  (fold-right cons '() list))

(define (append list1 list2)
  (fold-right cons list2 list1))

(define (map p list)
  (fold-right (lambda (x r) (cons (p x) r)) '() list))

(define (reverse items)
  (fold-right (lambda (x r) (append r (list x))) '() items))

fold-left procedure initial list
Combines all the elements of list using the binary operation procedure. Elements are
combined starting with initial and then the elements of list from left to right. Whereas
fold-right is recursive in nature, capturing the essence of cdr-ing down a list and
then computing a result, fold-left is iterative in nature, combining the elements as
the list is traversed.

(fold-left list '() '(1 2 3 4)) ⇒ (((((() 1) 2) 3) 4))

(define (length list)
  (fold-left (lambda (sum element) (+ sum 1)) 0 list))

(define (reverse items)
  (fold-left (lambda (x y) (cons y x)) () items))

any predicate list list . . .
(SRFI 1) Applies predicate across the lists, returning true if predicate returns true on
any application.
If there are n list arguments list1 . . . listn, then predicate must be a procedure taking
n arguments and returning a boolean result.
any applies predicate to the first elements of the list parameters. If this application
returns a true value, any immediately returns that value. Otherwise, it iterates,
applying predicate to the second elements of the list parameters, then the third, and
so forth. The iteration stops when a true value is produced or one of the lists runs
out of values; in the latter case, any returns #f. The application of predicate to the
last element of the lists is a tail call.
Note the difference between find and any—find returns the element that satisfied
the predicate; any returns the true value that the predicate produced.
Like every, any’s name does not end with a question mark—this is to indicate that
it does not return a simple boolean (#t or #f), but a general value.

  (any integer? '(a 3 b 2.7)) => #t
  (any integer? '(a 3.1 b 2.7)) => #f
  (any < '(3 1 4 1 5)
    '(2 7 1 8 2)) => #t

The non-standard procedure there-exists? is similar, except that it takes a single
list and a predicate argument, in that order.
every predicate list list ...  [procedure]
(SRFI 1) Applies predicate across the lists, returning true if predicate returns true on every application.

If there are n list arguments list1 ... listn, then predicate must be a procedure taking n arguments and returning a boolean result.

every applies predicate to the first elements of the list parameters. If this application returns false, every immediately returns false. Otherwise, it iterates, applying predicate to the second elements of the list parameters, then the third, and so forth. The iteration stops when a false value is produced or one of the lists runs out of values. In the latter case, every returns the true value produced by its final application of predicate. The application of predicate to the last element of the lists is a tail call.

If one of the clists has no elements, every simply returns #t.

Like any, every’s name does not end with a question mark—this is to indicate that it does not return a simple boolean (#t or #f), but a general value.

The non-standard procedure for-all? is similar, except that it takes a single list and a predicate argument, in that order.

7.9 Miscellaneous List Operations

circular-list object ...  [procedure]
make-circular-list k [element]  [procedure]
These procedures are like list and make-list, respectively, except that the returned lists are circular. circular-list could have been defined like this:

(define (circular-list . objects)
  (append! objects objects))

circular-list is compatible with SRFI 1, but extended so that it can be called with no arguments.

reverse list  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated list consisting of the top-level elements of list in reverse order.

(reverse '(a b c)) ⇒ (c b a)
(reverse '(a (b c) d (e (f)))) ⇒ ((e (f)) d (b c) a)

reverse! list  [procedure]
Returns a list consisting of the top-level elements of list in reverse order. reverse! is like reverse, except that it destructively modifies list. Because the result may not be eqv? to list, it is desirable to do something like (set! x (reverse! x)).

sort sequence procedure  [procedure]
merge-sort sequence procedure  [procedure]
quick-sort sequence procedure  [procedure]
Sequence must be either a list or a vector. Procedure must be a procedure of two arguments that defines a total ordering on the elements of sequence. In other words, if x and y are two distinct elements of sequence, then it must be the case that
(and (procedure x y)
     (procedure y x))
⇒ #f

If sequence is a list (vector), sort returns a newly allocated list (vector) whose elements are those of sequence, except that they are rearranged to be sorted in the order defined by procedure. So, for example, if the elements of sequence are numbers, and procedure is <, then the resulting elements are sorted in monotonically nondecreasing order. Likewise, if procedure is >, the resulting elements are sorted in monotonically nonincreasing order. To be precise, if x and y are any two adjacent elements in the result, where x precedes y, it is the case that

(procedure y x)
⇒ #f

Two sorting algorithms are implemented: merge-sort and quick-sort. The procedure sort is an alias for merge-sort.

See also the definition of sort!. 
8 Vectors

Vectors are heterogenous structures whose elements are indexed by exact non-negative integers. A vector typically occupies less space than a list of the same length, and the average time required to access a randomly chosen element is typically less for the vector than for the list.

The length of a vector is the number of elements that it contains. This number is an exact non-negative integer that is fixed when the vector is created. The valid indexes of a vector are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the vector. The first element in a vector is indexed by zero, and the last element is indexed by one less than the length of the vector.

Vectors are written using the notation #((object ...)). For example, a vector of length 3 containing the number zero in element 0, the list (2 2 2) in element 1, and the string "Anna" in element 2 can be written as

#(0 (2 2 2) "Anna")

Note that this is the external representation of a vector, not an expression evaluating to a vector. Like list constants, vector constants must be quoted:

'( #(0 (2 2 2) "Anna") ) ⇒ #(0 (2 2 2) "Anna")

A number of the vector procedures operate on subvectors. A subvector is a segment of a vector that is specified by two exact non-negative integers, start and end. Start is the index of the first element that is included in the subvector, and end is one greater than the index of the last element that is included in the subvector. Thus if start and end are the same, they refer to a null subvector, and if start is zero and end is the length of the vector, they refer to the entire vector. The valid indexes of a subvector are the exact integers between start inclusive and end exclusive.

8.1 Construction of Vectors

make-vector k [object] [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated vector of k elements. If object is specified, make-vector initializes each element of the vector to object. Otherwise the initial elements of the result are unspecified.

vector object ... [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated vector whose elements are the given arguments. vector is analogous to list.

(vector 'a 'b 'c) ⇒ #(a b c)

vector-copy vector [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated vector that is a copy of vector.

list->vector list [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated vector initialized to the elements of list. The inverse of list->vector is vector->list.

(list->vector '(dididit dah)) ⇒ #(dididit dah)
make-initialized-vector  

**k initialization**  

Similar to `make-vector`, except that the elements of the result are determined by calling the procedure `initialization` on the indices. For example:

```
(make-initialize-vector 5 (lambda (x) (* x x)))
⇒  #(0 1 4 9 16)
```

`vector-grow`  

`vector k`  

`K` must be greater than or equal to the length of `vector`. Returns a newly allocated vector of length `k`. The first `(vector-length vector)` elements of the result are initialized from the corresponding elements of `vector`. The remaining elements of the result are unspecified.

`vector-map`  

**procedure vector**  

Procedure must be a procedure of one argument. `vector-map` applies `procedure` element-wise to the elements of `vector` and returns a newly allocated vector of the results, in order from left to right. The dynamic order in which `procedure` is applied to the elements of `vector` is unspecified.

```
(vector-map cadr '((a b) (d e) (g h)))  ⇒  #(b e h)
(vector-map (lambda (n) (expt n n)) '(#(1 2 3 4)))  ⇒  #(1 4 27 256)
(vector-map + ' #(5 7 9))  ⇒  #(5 7 9)
```

### 8.2 Selecting Vector Components

`vector?`  

`object`  

Returns `#t` if `object` is a vector; otherwise returns `#f`.

`vector-length`  

`vector`  

Returns the number of elements in `vector`.

`vector-ref`  

`vector k`  

Returns the contents of element `k` of `vector`. `K` must be a valid index of `vector`.

```
(vector-ref '#(1 2 3 5 8 13 21) 5)  ⇒  8
```

`vector-set!`  

`vector k object`  

Stores `object` in element `k` of `vector` and returns an unspecified value. `K` must be a valid index of `vector`.

```
(let ((vec (vector 0 '(2 2 2) "Anna")))
  (vector-set! vec 1 '("Sue" "Sue")
  vec)
⇒  #(0 "Sue" "Sue") "Anna")

`vector-first`  

`vector`  

`vector-second`  

`vector`  

`vector-third`  

`vector`  

`vector-fourth`  

`vector`  

`vector-fifth`  

`vector`  

`vector-sixth`  

`vector`
vector-seventh vector
vector-eighth vector
These procedures access the first several elements of vector in the obvious way. It is an error if the implicit index of one of these procedures is not a valid index of vector.

vector-binary-search vector key<? unwrap-key key
Searches vector for an element with a key matching key, returning the element if one is found or #f if none. The search operation takes time proportional to the logarithm of the length of vector. Unwrap-key must be a procedure that maps each element of vector to a key. Key<? must be a procedure that implements a total ordering on the keys of the elements.

(define (translate number)
  (vector-binary-search '#((1 . i)
                         (2 . ii)
                         (3 . iii)
                         (6 . vi))
  < car number))

(translate 2) ⇒ (2 . ii)
(translate 4) ⇒ #F

8.3 Cutting Vectors

subvector vector start end
Returns a newly allocated vector that contains the elements of vector between index start (inclusive) and end (exclusive).

vector-head vector end
Equivalent to
  (subvector vector 0 end)

vector-tail vector start
Equivalent to
  (subvector vector start (vector-length vector))

8.4 Modifying Vectors

vector-fill! vector object
subvector-fill! vector start end object
Stores object in every element of the vector (subvector) and returns an unspecified value.

subvector-move-left! vector1 start1 end1 vector2 start2
subvector-move-right! vector1 start1 end1 vector2 start2
Destructively copies the elements of vector1, starting with index start1 (inclusive) and ending with end1 (exclusive), into vector2 starting at index start2 (inclusive). Vector1, start1, and end1 must specify a valid subvector, and start2 must be a valid index for vector2. The length of the source subvector must not exceed the length of vector2 minus the index start2.
The elements are copied as follows (note that this is only important when vector1 and vector2 are eqv?):

**subvector-move-left!**

The copy starts at the left end and moves toward the right (from smaller indices to larger). Thus if vector1 and vector2 are the same, this procedure moves the elements toward the left inside the vector.

**subvector-move-right!**

The copy starts at the right end and moves toward the left (from larger indices to smaller). Thus if vector1 and vector2 are the same, this procedure moves the elements toward the right inside the vector.

**sort! vector procedure**

**merge-sort! vector procedure**

**quick-sort! vector procedure**

*Procedure* must be a procedure of two arguments that defines a *total ordering* on the elements of vector. The elements of vector are rearranged so that they are sorted in the order defined by *procedure*. The elements are rearranged in place, that is, vector is destructively modified so that its elements are in the new order.

**sort!** returns vector as its value.

Two sorting algorithms are implemented: **merge-sort!** and **quick-sort!**. The procedure **sort!** is an alias for **merge-sort!**.

See also the definition of **sort**.
Chapter 9: Bit Strings

9 Bit Strings

A bit string is a sequence of bits. Bit strings can be used to represent sets or to manipulate binary data. The elements of a bit string are numbered from zero up to the number of bits in the string less one, in right to left order, (the rightmost bit is numbered zero). When you convert from a bit string to an integer, the zero-th bit is associated with the zero-th power of two, the first bit is associated with the first power, and so on.

Bit strings are encoded very densely in memory. Each bit occupies exactly one bit of storage, and the overhead for the entire bit string is bounded by a small constant. However, accessing a bit in a bit string is slow compared to accessing an element of a vector or character string. If performance is of overriding concern, it is better to use character strings to store sets of boolean values even though they occupy more space.

The length of a bit string is the number of bits that it contains. This number is an exact non-negative integer that is fixed when the bit string is created. The valid indexes of a bit string are the exact non-negative integers less than the length of the bit string.

Bit strings may contain zero or more bits. They are not limited by the length of a machine word. In the printed representation of a bit string, the contents of the bit string are preceded by ‘#*’. The contents are printed starting with the most significant bit (highest index).

Note that the external representation of bit strings uses a bit ordering that is the reverse of the representation for bit strings in Common Lisp. It is likely that MIT/GNU Scheme’s representation will be changed in the future, to be compatible with Common Lisp. For the time being this representation should be considered a convenience for viewing bit strings rather than a means of entering them as data.

All of the bit-string procedures are MIT/GNU Scheme extensions.

9.1 Construction of Bit Strings

make-bit-string k initialization
Returns a newly allocated bit string of length k. If initialization is #f, the bit string is filled with 0 bits; otherwise, the bit string is filled with 1 bits.

\[(\text{make-bit-string 7 #f}) \Rightarrow \text{#*0000000}\]

bit-string-allocate k
Returns a newly allocated bit string of length k, but does not initialize it.

bit-string-copy bit-string
Returns a newly allocated copy of bit-string.
9.2 Selecting Bit String Components

**bit-string?** object

Returns `#t` if `object` is a bit string; otherwise returns `#f`.

**bit-string-length** bit-string

Returns the length of `bit-string`.

**bit-string-ref** bit-string k

Returns `#t` if the kth bit is 1; otherwise returns `#f`. K must be a valid index of `bit-string`.

**bit-string-set!** bit-string k

Sets the kth bit in `bit-string` to 1 and returns an unspecified value. K must be a valid index of `bit-string`.

**bit-string-clear!** bit-string k

Sets the kth bit in `bit-string` to 0 and returns an unspecified value. K must be a valid index of `bit-string`.

**bit-substring-find-next-set-bit** bit-string start end

Returns the index of the first occurrence of a set bit in the substring of `bit-string` from `start` (inclusive) to `end` (exclusive). If none of the bits in the substring are set `#f` is returned. The index returned is relative to the whole bit string, not substring.

The following procedure uses `bit-substring-find-next-set-bit` to find all the set bits and display their indexes:

```
(define (scan-bitstring bs)
  (let ((end (bit-string-length bs)))
    (let loop ((start 0))
      (let ((next (bit-substring-find-next-set-bit bs start end)))
        (if next
            (begin
              (write-line next)
              (if (< next end)
                  (loop (+ next 1))))))))
```

9.3 Cutting and Pasting Bit Strings

**bit-string-append** bit-string-1 bit-string-2

Appends the two bit string arguments, returning a newly allocated bit string as its result. In the result, the bits copied from `bit-string-1` are less significant (smaller indices) than those copied from `bit-string-2`.

**bit-substring** bit-string start end

Returns a newly allocated bit string whose bits are copied from `bit-string`, starting at index `start` (inclusive) and ending at `end` (exclusive).
9.4 Bitwise Operations on Bit Strings

**bit-string-zero?** bit-string  
Returns #t if bit-string contains only 0 bits; otherwise returns #f.

**bit-string=?** bit-string-1 bit-string-2  
Compares the two bit string arguments and returns #t if they are the same length and contain the same bits; otherwise returns #f.

**bit-string-not** bit-string  
Returns a newly allocated bit string that is the bitwise-logical negation of bit-string.

**bit-string-movec!** target-bit-string bit-string  
The destructive version of bit-string-not. The arguments target-bit-string and bit-string must be bit strings of the same length. The bitwise-logical negation of bit-string is computed and the result placed in target-bit-string. The value of this procedure is unspecified.

**bit-string-and** bit-string-1 bit-string-2  
Returns a newly allocated bit string that is the bitwise-logical “and” of the arguments. The arguments must be bit strings of identical length.

**bit-string-andc** bit-string-1 bit-string-2  
Returns a newly allocated bit string that is the bitwise-logical “and” of bit-string-1 with the bitwise-logical negation of bit-string-2. The arguments must be bit strings of identical length.

**bit-string-or** bit-string-1 bit-string-2  
Returns a newly allocated bit string that is the bitwise-logical “inclusive or” of the arguments. The arguments must be bit strings of identical length.

**bit-string-xor** bit-string-1 bit-string-2  
Returns a newly allocated bit string that is the bitwise-logical “exclusive or” of the arguments. The arguments must be bit strings of identical length.

**bit-string-and!** target-bit-string bit-string  
**bit-string-or!** target-bit-string bit-string  
**bit-string-xor!** target-bit-string bit-string  
**bit-string-andc!** target-bit-string bit-string  
These are destructive versions of the above operations. The arguments target-bit-string and bit-string must be bit strings of the same length. Each of these procedures performs the corresponding bitwise-logical operation on its arguments, places the result into target-bit-string, and returns an unspecified result.

9.5 Modification of Bit Strings

**bit-string-fill!** bit-string initialization  
Fills bit-string with zeroes if initialization is #f; otherwise fills bit-string with ones. Returns an unspecified value.
bit-string-move! target-bit-string bit-string

Moves the contents of bit-string into target-bit-string. Both arguments must be bit strings of the same length. The results of the operation are undefined if the arguments are the same bit string.

bit-substring-move-right! bit-string-1 start1 end1 bit-string-2 start2

Destructively copies the bits of bit-string-1, starting at index start1 (inclusive) and ending at end1 (exclusive), into bit-string-2 starting at index start2 (inclusive). Start1 and end1 must be valid substring indices for bit-string-1, and start2 must be a valid index for bit-string-2. The length of the source substring must not exceed the length of bit-string-2 minus the index start2.

The bits are copied starting from the MSB and working towards the LSB; the direction of copying only matters when bit-string-1 and bit-string-2 are eqv?.

9.6 Integer Conversions of Bit Strings

unsigned-integer->bit-string length integer

Both length and integer must be exact non-negative integers. Converts integer into a newly allocated bit string of length bits. Signals an error of type condition-type:bad-range-argument if integer is too large to be represented in length bits.

signed-integer->bit-string length integer

Length must be an exact non-negative integer, and integer may be any exact integer. Converts integer into a newly allocated bit string of length bits, using two's complement encoding for negative numbers. Signals an error of type condition-type:bad-range-argument if integer is too large to be represented in length bits.

bit-string->unsigned-integer bit-string

bit-string->signed-integer bit-string

Converts bit-string into an exact integer. bit-string->signed-integer regards bit-string as a two's complement representation of a signed integer, and produces an integer of like sign and absolute value. bit-string->unsigned-integer regards bit-string as an unsigned quantity and converts to an integer accordingly.
10 Miscellaneous Datatypes

10.1 Booleans

The boolean objects are true and false. The boolean constant true is written as ‘#t’, and the boolean constant false is written as ‘#f’.

The primary use for boolean objects is in the conditional expressions if, cond, and, and or; the behavior of these expressions is determined by whether objects are true or false. These expressions count only #f as false. They count everything else, including #t, pairs, symbols, numbers, strings, vectors, and procedures as true (but see Section 1.2.5 [True and False], page 8).

Programmers accustomed to other dialects of Lisp should note that Scheme distinguishes #f and the empty list from the symbol nil. Similarly, #t is distinguished from the symbol t. In fact, the boolean objects (and the empty list) are not symbols at all.

Boolean constants evaluate to themselves, so you don’t need to quote them.

| #t          | ⇒ #t |
| #f          | ⇒ #f |
| ' #f        | ⇒ #f |
| t           | error Unbound variable |

false [variable]
true [variable]

These variables are bound to the objects #f and #t respectively. The compiler, given the usual-integrations declaration, replaces references to these variables with their respective values.

Note that the symbol true is not equivalent to #t, and the symbol false is not equivalent to #f.

boolean? object [procedure]
Returns #t if object is either #t or #f; otherwise returns #f.

(boolean? #f) ⇒ #t
(boolean? 0)  ⇒ #f

not object [procedure]
false? object [procedure]
These procedures return #t if object is false; otherwise they return #f. In other words they invert boolean values. These two procedures have identical semantics; their names are different to give different connotations to the test.

(not #t) ⇒ #f
(not 3)  ⇒ #f
(not (list 3)) ⇒ #f
(not #f) ⇒ #t

boolean=? obj1 obj2 [procedure]
This predicate is true iff obj1 and obj2 are either both true or both false.
boolean/and object ...                              [procedure]
   This procedure returns #t if none of its arguments are #f. Otherwise it returns #f.

boolean/or object ...                               [procedure]
   This procedure returns #f if all of its arguments are #f. Otherwise it returns #t.

10.2 Symbols
MIT/GNU Scheme provides two types of symbols: interned and uninterned. Interned symbols are far more common than uninterned symbols, and there are more ways to create them. Interned symbols have an external representation that is recognized by the procedure read; uninterned symbols do not.1

Interned symbols have an extremely useful property: any two interned symbols whose names are the same, in the sense of string=?, are the same object (i.e. they are eq? to one another). The term interned refers to the process of interning by which this is accomplished. Uninterned symbols do not share this property.

The names of interned symbols are not distinguished by their alphabetic case. Because of this, MIT/GNU Scheme converts all alphabetic characters in the name of an interned symbol to a specific case (lower case) when the symbol is created. When the name of an interned symbol is referenced (using symbol->string) or written (using write) it appears in this case. It is a bad idea to depend on the name being lower case. In fact, it is preferable to take this one step further: don’t depend on the name of a symbol being in a uniform case.

The rules for writing an interned symbol are the same as the rules for writing an identifier (see Section 1.3.3 [Identifiers], page 10). Any interned symbol that has been returned as part of a literal expression, or read using the read procedure and subsequently written out using the write procedure, will read back in as the identical symbol (in the sense of eq?).

Usually it is also true that reading in an interned symbol that was previously written out produces the same symbol. An exception are symbols created by the procedures string->symbol and intern; they can create symbols for which this write/read invariance may not hold because the symbols’ names contain special characters or letters in the non-standard case.2

The external representation for uninterned symbols is special, to distinguish them from interned symbols and prevent them from being recognized by the read procedure:

---

1 In older dialects of Lisp, uninterned symbols were fairly important. This was true because symbols were complicated data structures: in addition to having value cells (and sometimes, function cells), these structures contained property lists. Because of this, uninterned symbols were often used merely for their property lists — sometimes an uninterned symbol used this way was referred to as a disembodied property list. In MIT/GNU Scheme, symbols do not have property lists, or any other components besides their names. There is a different data structure similar to disembodied property lists: one-dimensional tables (see Section 11.2 [1D Tables], page 147). For these reasons, uninterned symbols are not very useful in MIT/GNU Scheme. In fact, their primary purpose is to simplify the generation of unique variable names in programs that generate Scheme code.

2 MIT/GNU Scheme reserves a specific set of interned symbols for its own use. If you use these reserved symbols it is possible that you could break specific pieces of software that depend on them. The reserved symbols all have names beginning with the characters ‘#’ and ending with the character ‘;’; thus none of these symbols can be read by the procedure read and hence are not likely to be used by accident. For example, (intern "#[unnamed-procedure]") produces a reserved symbol.
(string->uninterned-symbol "foo")
⇒ #\[uninterned-symbol 30 foo]

In this section, the procedures that return symbols as values will either always return interned symbols, or always return uninterned symbols. The procedures that accept symbols as arguments will always accept either interned or uninterned symbols, and do not distinguish the two.

\[\text{symbol? } \text{object}\]  [procedure]
Returns \#t if \text{object} is a symbol, otherwise returns \#f.

\begin{align*}
\text{(symbol? 'foo)} & \quad \Rightarrow \ #t \\
\text{(symbol? (car '(a b))} & \quad \Rightarrow \ #t \\
\text{(symbol? "bar")} & \quad \Rightarrow \ #f
\end{align*}

\[\text{symbol->string } \text{symbol}\]  [procedure]
Returns the name of \text{symbol} as a string. If \text{symbol} was returned by \text{string->symbol}, the value of this procedure will be identical (in the sense of \text{string=?}) to the string that was passed to \text{string->symbol}. It is an error to apply mutation procedures such as \text{string-set!} to strings returned by this procedure.

\begin{align*}
\text{(symbol->string 'flying-fish)} & \quad \Rightarrow \ "flying-fish" \\
\text{(symbol->string 'Martin)} & \quad \Rightarrow \ "martin" \\
\text{(symbol->string (string->symbol "Malvina")} & \quad \Rightarrow \ "Malvina"
\end{align*}

Note that two distinct uninterned symbols can have the same name.

\[\text{intern } \text{string}\]  [procedure]
Returns the interned symbol whose name is \text{string}. Converts \text{string} to the standard alphabetic case before generating the symbol. This is the preferred way to create interned symbols, as it guarantees the following independent of which case the implementation uses for symbols’ names:

\(\text{(eq? 'bitBlt (intern "bitBlt") } \Rightarrow \ #t\)

The user should take care that \text{string} obeys the rules for identifiers (see Section 1.3.3 [Identifiers], page 10), otherwise the resulting symbol cannot be read as itself.

\[\text{intern-soft } \text{string}\]  [procedure]
Returns the interned symbol whose name is \text{string}. Converts \text{string} to the standard alphabetic case before generating the symbol. If no such interned symbol exists, returns \#f.

This is exactly like \text{intern}, except that it will not create an interned symbol, but only returns symbols that already exist.

\[\text{string->symbol } \text{string}\]  [procedure]
Returns the interned symbol whose name is \text{string}. Although you can use this procedure to create symbols with names containing special characters or lowercase letters, it’s usually a bad idea to create such symbols because they cannot be read as themselves. See \text{symbol->string}.
(eq? 'mISSISSIppi 'mississippi) ⇒ #t
(string->symbol "mISSISSIppi") ⇒ the symbol with the name "mISSISSIppi"
(eq? 'bitBlt (string->symbol "bitBlt")) ⇒ #f
(eq? 'JollyWog
  (string->symbol
   (symbol->string 'JollyWog))) ⇒ #t
(string=? "K. Harper, M.D." (symbol->string
   (string->symbol
    "K. Harper, M.D."))) ⇒ #t

string->uninterned-symbol string  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated uninterned symbol whose name is string. It is unimportant
what case or characters are used in string.
Note: this is the fastest way to make a symbol.

generate-uninterned-symbol [object]  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated uninterned symbol that is guaranteed to be different from
any other object. The symbol's name consists of a prefix string followed by the (exact
non-negative integer) value of an internal counter. The counter is initially zero, and
is incremented after each call to this procedure.
The optional argument object is used to control how the symbol is generated. It may
take one of the following values:
• If object is omitted or #f, the prefix is "G".
• If object is an exact non-negative integer, the internal counter is set to that
  integer prior to generating the result.
• If object is a string, it is used as the prefix.
• If object is a symbol, its name is used as the prefix.
  (generate-uninterned-symbol)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 31 G0]
  (generate-uninterned-symbol)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 32 G1]
  (generate-uninterned-symbol 'this)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 33 this2]
  (generate-uninterned-symbol)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 34 G3]
  (generate-uninterned-symbol 100)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 35 G100]
  (generate-uninterned-symbol)
  ⇒ #[uninterned-symbol 36 G101]

symbol-append symbol . . .  [procedure]
Returns the interned symbol whose name is formed by concatenating the names of
the given symbols. This procedure preserves the case of the names of its arguments,
so if one or more of the arguments' names has non-standard case, the result will also
have non-standard case.
(symbol-append 'foo- 'bar)  ⇒  foo-bar
;; the arguments may be uninterned:
(symbol-append 'foo- (string->uninterned-symbol "baz"))  ⇒  foo-baz
;; the result has the same case as the arguments:
(symbol-append 'foo- (string->symbol "BAZ"))  ⇒  foo-BAZ

symbol-hash symbol  [procedure]
Returns a hash number for symbol, which is computed by calling string-hash on symbol’s name. The hash number is an exact non-negative integer.

symbol-hash-mod symbol modulus  [procedure]
Modulus must be an exact positive integer. Equivalent to

(modulo (symbol-hash symbol) modulus)

This procedure is provided for convenience in constructing hash tables. However, it is normally preferable to use make-strong-eq-hash-table to build hash tables keyed by symbols, because eq? hash tables are much faster.

symbol<? symbol1 symbol2  [procedure]
This procedure computes a total order on symbols. It is equivalent to

(string<? (symbol->string symbol1) (symbol->string symbol2))

10.3 Cells
Cells are data structures similar to pairs except that they have only one element. They are useful for managing state.

cell? object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a cell; otherwise returns #f.

make-cell object  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated cell whose contents is object.

cell-contents cell  [procedure]
Returns the current contents of cell.

set-cell-contents! cell object  [procedure]
Alters the contents of cell to be object. Returns an unspecified value.

bind-cell-contents! cell object thunk  [procedure]
Alters the contents of cell to be object, calls thunk with no arguments, then restores the original contents of cell and returns the value returned by thunk. This is completely equivalent to dynamic binding of a variable, including the behavior when continuations are used (see Section 2.3 [Dynamic Binding], page 18).
10.4 Records

MIT/GNU Scheme provides a record abstraction, which is a simple and flexible mechanism for building structures with named components. Records can be defined and accessed using the procedures defined in this section. A less flexible but more concise way to manipulate records is to use the define-structure special form (see Section 2.10 [Structure Definitions], page 29).

**make-record-type** *type-name field-names*  
returns a record-type descriptor, a value representing a new data type, disjoint from all others. The *type-name* argument must be a string, but is only used for debugging purposes (such as the printed representation of a record of the new type). The *field-names* argument is a list of symbols naming the *fields* of a record of the new type. It is an error if the list contains any duplicates. It is unspecified how record-type descriptors are represented.

**record-constructor** *record-type [field-names]*  
returns a procedure for constructing new members of the type represented by *record-type*. The returned procedure accepts exactly as many arguments as there are symbols in the given list, *field-names*; these are used, in order, as the initial values of those fields in a new record, which is returned by the constructor procedure. The values of any fields not named in the list of *field-names* are unspecified. The *field-names* argument defaults to the list of field-names in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by *record-type*; if the *field-names* argument is provided, it is an error if it contains any duplicates or any symbols not in the default list.

**record-keyword-constructor** *record-type*  
returns a procedure for constructing new members of the type represented by *record-type*. The returned procedure accepts arguments in a keyword list, which is an alternating sequence of names and values. In other words, the number of arguments must be a multiple of two, and every other argument, starting with the first argument, must be a symbol that is one of the field names for *record-type*.

The returned procedure may be called with a keyword list that contains multiple instances of the same keyword. In this case, the leftmost instance is used and the other instances are ignored. This allows keyword lists to be accumulated using cons or cons*, and new bindings added to the front of the list override old bindings at the end.

**record-predicate** *record-type*  
returns a procedure for testing membership in the type represented by *record-type*. The returned procedure accepts exactly one argument and returns #t if the argument is a member of the indicated record type; it returns #f otherwise.

**record-accessor** *record-type field-name*  
returns a procedure for reading the value of a particular field of a member of the type represented by *record-type*. The returned procedure accepts exactly one argument which must be a record of the appropriate type; it returns the current value of the field named by the symbol *field-name* in that record. The symbol *field-name* must be a member of the list of field names in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by *record-type*.
**record-modifier** record-type field-name

Returns a procedure for writing the value of a particular field of a member of the type represented by record-type. The returned procedure accepts exactly two arguments: first, a record of the appropriate type, and second, an arbitrary Scheme value; it modifies the field named by the symbol field-name in that record to contain the given value. The returned value of the modifier procedure is unspecified. The symbol field-name must be a member of the list of field names in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by record-type.

**record?** object

Returns #t if object is a record of any type and #f otherwise. Note that record? may be true of any Scheme value; of course, if it returns #t for some particular value, then record-type-descriptor is applicable to that value and returns an appropriate descriptor.

**record-type-descriptor** record

Returns the record-type descriptor representing the type of record. That is, for example, if the returned descriptor were passed to record-predicate, the resulting predicate would return #t when passed record. Note that it is not necessarily the case that the returned descriptor is the one that was passed to record-constructor in the call that created the constructor procedure that created record.

**record-type?** object

Returns #t if object is a record-type descriptor; otherwise returns #f.

**record-type-name** record-type

Returns the type name associated with the type represented by record-type. The returned value is eqv? to the type-name argument given in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by record-type.

**record-type-field-names** record-type

Returns a list of the symbols naming the fields in members of the type represented by record-type. The returned value is equal? to the field-names argument given in the call to make-record-type that created the type represented by record-type.

### 10.5 Promises

**delay** expression

The delay construct is used together with the procedure force to implement lazy evaluation or call by need. (delay expression) returns an object called a promise which at some point in the future may be asked (by the force procedure) to evaluate expression and deliver the resulting value.

**force** promise

Forces the value of promise. If no value has been computed for the promise, then a value is computed and returned. The value of the promise is cached (or “memoized”) so that if it is forced a second time, the previously computed value is returned without any recomputation.

---

3 In MIT/GNU Scheme, the returned list is always newly allocated.
(force (delay (+ 1 2))) ⇒ 3

(let ((p (delay (+ 1 2))))
  (list (force p) (force p))) ⇒ (3 3)

(define head car)

(define tail
  (lambda (stream)
    (force (cdr stream)))))

(define a-stream
  (letrec ((next
            (lambda (n)
              (cons n (delay (next (+ n 1))))))
            (next 0)))

(head (tail (tail a-stream))) ⇒ 2

promise? object
Returns #t if object is a promise; otherwise returns #f.

promise-forced? promise
Returns #t if promise has been forced and its value cached; otherwise returns #f.

promise-value promise
If promise has been forced and its value cached, this procedure returns the cached value. Otherwise, an error is signalled.

force and delay are mainly intended for programs written in functional style. The following examples should not be considered to illustrate good programming style, but they illustrate the property that the value of a promise is computed at most once.

(define count 0)

(define p
  (delay
   (begin
    (set! count (+ count 1))
    (* x 3)))))

(define x 5)

count ⇒ 0
p ⇒ #promise 54
(force p) ⇒ 15
p ⇒ #promise 54
count ⇒ 1
(force p) ⇒ 15
count ⇒ 1
Here is a possible implementation of `delay` and `force`. We define the expression 
\[(\text{delay} \text{ expression})\]
to have the same meaning as the procedure call
\[(\text{make-promise} (\text{lambda} () \text{expression}))\]
where `make-promise` is defined as follows:
\[(\text{define make-promise} \text{ (lambda} (\text{proc}) \text{(let} ((\text{already-run? #f}) (\text{result #f})) (\text{lambda} () \text{(cond} ((\text{not already-run?}) (\text{set! result} (\text{proc}))) (\text{set! already-run? #t}))) \text{result}))))\]

Promises are implemented here as procedures of no arguments, and `force` simply calls its argument.
\[(\text{define force} \text{ (lambda} (\text{promise}) (\text{promise})))\]

Various extensions to this semantics of `delay` and `force` are supported in some implementations (none of these are currently supported in MIT/GNU Scheme):

• Calling `force` on an object that is not a promise may simply return the object.
• It may be the case that there is no means by which a promise can be operationally distinguished from its forced value. That is, expressions like the following may evaluate to either `#t` or `#f`, depending on the implementation:
\[(\text{eqv?} (\text{delay} 1) 1) \Rightarrow \text{unspecified}\]
\[(\text{pair?} (\text{delay} (\text{cons} 1 2))) \Rightarrow \text{unspecified}\]
• Some implementations will implement “implicit forcing”, where the value of a promise is forced by primitive procedures like `car` and `+`:
\[(+ (\text{delay} (* 3 7)) 13) \Rightarrow 34\]

10.6 Streams

In addition to promises, MIT/GNU Scheme supports a higher-level abstraction called `streams`. Streams are similar to lists, except that the tail of a stream is not computed until it is referred to. This allows streams to be used to represent infinitely long lists.

\[\text{stream} \text{ object ...} \quad \text{[procedure]}\]

Returns a newly allocated stream whose elements are the arguments. Note that the expression `(stream)` returns the empty stream, or end-of-stream marker.

\[\text{list->stream list} \quad \text{[procedure]}\]

Returns a newly allocated stream whose elements are the elements of `list`. Equivalent to `(apply stream list)`. 
stream->list stream [procedure]
    Returns a newly allocated list whose elements are the elements of stream. If stream has infinite length this procedure will not terminate. This could have been defined by
    (define (stream->list stream)
       (if (stream-null? stream)
           '()
           (cons (stream-car stream)
                (stream->list (stream-cdr stream)))))

cons-stream object expression [special form]
    Returns a newly allocated stream pair. Equivalent to (cons object (delay expression)).

stream-pair? object [procedure]
    Returns #t if object is a pair whose cdr contains a promise. Otherwise returns #f. This could have been defined by
    (define (stream-pair? object)
       (and (pair? object)
            (promise? (cdr object))))

stream-car stream [procedure]
    Returns the first element in stream. stream-car is equivalent to car. stream-first is a synonym for stream-car.

stream-cdr stream [procedure]
    Returns the first tail of stream. Equivalent to (force (cdr stream)). stream-rest is a synonym for stream-cdr.

stream-null? stream [procedure]
    Returns #t if stream is the end-of-stream marker; otherwise returns #f. This is equivalent to null?, but should be used whenever testing for the end of a stream.

stream-length stream [procedure]
    Returns the number of elements in stream. If stream has an infinite number of elements this procedure will not terminate. Note that this procedure forces all of the promises that comprise stream.

stream-ref stream k [procedure]
    Returns the element of stream that is indexed by k; that is, the kth element. K must be an exact non-negative integer strictly less than the length of stream.

stream-head stream k [procedure]
    Returns the first k elements of stream as a list. K must be an exact non-negative integer strictly less than the length of stream.
stream-tail stream k
Returns the tail of stream that is indexed by k; that is, the kth tail. This is equivalent to performing stream-cdr k times. K must be an exact non-negative integer strictly less than the length of stream.

stream-map procedure stream stream ...
Returns a newly allocated stream, each element being the result of invoking procedure with the corresponding elements of the streams as its arguments.

10.7 Weak Pairs

Weak pairs are a mechanism for building data structures that point at objects without protecting them from garbage collection. The car of a weak pair holds its pointer weakly, while the cdr holds its pointer in the normal way. If the object in the car of a weak pair is not held normally by any other data structure, it will be garbage-collected.

Note: weak pairs are not pairs; that is, they do not satisfy the predicate pair?.

weak-pair? object
Returns #t if object is a weak pair; otherwise returns #f.

weak-cons car cdr
Allocates and returns a new weak pair, with components car and cdr. The car component is held weakly.

weak-pair/car? weak-pair
This predicate returns #f if the car of weak-pair has been garbage-collected; otherwise returns #t. In other words, it is true if weak-pair has a valid car component.

weak-car weak-pair
Returns the car component of weak-pair. If the car component has been garbage-collected, this operation returns #f, but it can also return #f if that is the value that was stored in the car.

Normally, weak-pair/car? is used to determine if weak-car would return a valid value. An obvious way of doing this would be:

(if (weak-pair/car? x)
  (weak-car x)
  ...)

However, since a garbage collection could occur between the call to weak-pair/car? and weak-car, this would not always work correctly. Instead, the following should be used, which always works:

(or (weak-car x)
  (and (not (weak-pair/car? x))
       ...))

The reason that the latter expression works is that weak-car returns #f in just two instances: when the car component is #f, and when the car component has been garbage-collected. In the former case, if a garbage collection happens between the two calls, it won’t matter, because #f will never be garbage-collected. And in the latter case, it also won’t matter, because the car component no longer exists and cannot be affected by the garbage collector.
weak-set-car! weak-pair object
    [procedure]
    Sets the car component of weak-pair to object and returns an unspecified result.

weak-cdr weak-pair
    [procedure]
    Returns the cdr component of weak-cdr.

weak-set-cdr! weak-pair object
    [procedure]
    Sets the cdr component of weak-pair to object and returns an unspecified result.
### 11 Associations

MIT/GNU Scheme provides several mechanisms for associating objects with one another. Each of these mechanisms creates a link between one or more objects, called keys, and some other object, called a datum. Beyond this common idea, however, each of the mechanisms has various different properties that make it appropriate in different situations:

- **Association lists** are one of Lisp’s oldest association mechanisms. Because they are made from ordinary pairs, they are easy to build and manipulate, and very flexible in use. However, the average lookup time for an association list is linear in the number of associations.

- **1D tables** have a very simple interface, making them easy to use, and offer the feature that they do not prevent their keys from being reclaimed by the garbage collector. Like association lists, their average lookup time is linear in the number of associations; but 1D tables aren’t as flexible.

- The **association table** is MIT/GNU Scheme’s equivalent to the property lists of Lisp. It has the advantages that the keys may be any type of object and that it does not prevent the keys from being reclaimed by the garbage collector. However, two linear-time lookups must be performed, one for each key, whereas for traditional property lists only one lookup is required for both keys.

- **Hash tables** are a powerful mechanism with constant-time access to large amounts of data. Hash tables are not as flexible as association lists, but because their access times are independent of the number of associations in the table, for most applications they are the mechanism of choice.

- **Balanced binary trees** are another association mechanism that is useful for applications in which the keys are ordered. Binary trees have access times that are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in the tree. While they aren’t as fast as hash tables, they offer the advantage that the contents of the tree can be converted to a sorted alist in linear time. Additionally, two trees can be compared for equality in worst-case linear time.

- **Red-Black trees** are a kind of balanced binary tree. The implementation supports destructive insertion and deletion operations with a good constant factor.

- **Weight-Balanced trees** are a kind of balanced binary tree. The implementation provides non-destructive operations. There is a comprehensive set of operations, including: a constant-time size operation; many high-level operations such as the set operations union, intersection and difference; and indexing of elements by position.

#### 11.1 Association Lists

An association list, or **alist**, is a data structure used very frequently in Scheme. An alist is a list of pairs, each of which is called an association. The car of an association is called the **key**.

An advantage of the alist representation is that an alist can be incrementally augmented simply by adding new entries to the front. Moreover, because the searching procedures **assv** et al. search the alist in order, new entries can “shadow” old entries. If an alist is
viewed as a mapping from keys to data, then the mapping can be not only augmented but also altered in a non-destructive manner by adding new entries to the front of the alist.¹

alist? object  [procedure]
    Returns #t if object is an association list (including the empty list); otherwise returns #f. Any object satisfying this predicate also satisfies list?.

assq object alist  [procedure]
    assv object alist  [procedure]
    assoc object alist  [procedure]
    These procedures find the first pair in alist whose car field is object, and return that pair; the returned pair is always an element of alist, not one of the pairs from which alist is composed. If no pair in alist has object as its car, #f (n.b.: not the empty list) is returned. assq uses eq? to compare object with the car fields of the pairs in alist, while assv uses eqv? and assoc uses equal?.²

    (define e '(((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)))
    (define (assoc-procedure predicate selector)
        (define del-assq object alist  [procedure]
            del-assv object alist  [procedure]
            del-assoc object alist  [procedure]
            These procedures return a newly allocated copy of alist in which all associations with keys equal to object have been removed. Note that while the returned copy is a newly allocated list, the association pairs that are the elements of the list are shared with alist, not copied. del-assq uses eq? to compare object with the keys, while del-assv uses eqv? and del-assoc uses equal?.

¹ This introduction is taken from Common Lisp, The Language, second edition, p. 431.
² Although they are often used as predicates, assq, assv, and assoc do not have question marks in their names because they return useful values rather than just #t or #f.
(define a
  '((butcher . "231 e22nd St.")
    (baker . "515 w23rd St.")
    (hardware . "988 Lexington Ave.")))}

(del-assq 'baker a)
⇒
  ((butcher . "231 e22nd St.")
   (hardware . "988 Lexington Ave."))}

\textbf{del-assq!} \textit{object alist} \hspace{1cm} [\textbf{procedure}]
\textbf{del-assv!} \textit{object alist} \hspace{1cm} [\textbf{procedure}]
\textbf{del-assoc!} \textit{object alist} \hspace{1cm} [\textbf{procedure}]

These procedures remove from \textit{alist} all associations with keys equal to \textit{object}. They return the resulting list. \textbf{del-assq!} uses \texttt{eq?} to compare \textit{object} with the keys, while \textbf{del-assv!} uses \texttt{eqv?} and \textbf{del-assoc!} uses \texttt{equal?}. These procedures are like \textbf{del-assq}, \textbf{del-assv}, and \textbf{del-assoc}, respectively, except that they destructively modify \textit{alist}.

\textbf{delete-association-procedure} \textit{deletor predicate selector} \hspace{1cm} [\textbf{procedure}]

This returns a deletion procedure similar to \textbf{del-assv} or \textbf{del-assq!}. The \textit{predicate} and \textit{selector} arguments are the same as those for \textbf{association-procedure}, while the \textit{deletor} argument should be either the procedure \textbf{list-deletor} (for non-destructive deletions), or the procedure \textbf{list-deletor!} (for destructive deletions).

For example, here is a possible implementation of \textbf{del-assv}:

\begin{verbatim}
(define del-assv
  (delete-association-procedure list-deletor eqv? car))
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{alist-copy} \textit{alist} \hspace{1cm} [\textbf{procedure}]

Returns a newly allocated copy of \textit{alist}. This is similar to \textbf{list-copy} except that the “association” pairs, i.e. the elements of the list \textit{alist}, are also copied. \textbf{alist-copy} could have been implemented like this:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (alist-copy alist)
  (if (null? alist)
      ()
      (cons (cons (car (car alist)) (cdr (car alist)))
            (alist-copy (cdr alist)))))
\end{verbatim}

\section*{11.2 1D Tables}

\textit{1D tables} ("one-dimensional" tables) are similar to association lists. In a 1D table, unlike an association list, the keys of the table are held \textit{weakly}: if a key is garbage-collected, its associated value in the table is removed. 1D tables compare their keys for equality using \texttt{eq?}.

1D tables can often be used as a higher-performance alternative to the two-dimensional association table (see Section 11.3 [The Association Table], page 148). If one of the keys being associated is a compound object such as a vector, a 1D table can be stored in one
of the vector’s slots. Under these circumstances, accessing items in a 1D table will be comparable in performance to using a property list in a conventional Lisp.

**make-1d-table**

Returns a newly allocated empty 1D table.

**1d-table? object**

Returns `#t` if `object` is a 1D table, otherwise returns `#f`. Any object that satisfies this predicate also satisfies `list?`.

**1d-table/put! 1d-table key datum**

Creates an association between `key` and `datum` in `1d-table`. Returns an unspecified value.

**1d-table/remove! 1d-table key**

Removes any association for `key` in `1d-table` and returns an unspecified value.

**1d-table/get 1d-table key default**

Returns the datum associated with `key` in `1d-table`. If there is no association for `key`, `default` is returned.

**1d-table/lookup 1d-table key if-found if-not-found**

If `found` must be a procedure of one argument, and `if-not-found` must be a procedure of no arguments. If `1d-table` contains an association for `key`, `if-found` is invoked on the datum of the association. Otherwise, `if-not-found` is invoked with no arguments. In either case, the result of the invoked procedure is returned as the result of `1d-table/lookup`.

**1d-table/alist 1d-table**

Returns a newly allocated association list that contains the same information as `1d-table`.

### 11.3 The Association Table

MIT/GNU Scheme provides a generalization of the property-list mechanism found in most other implementations of Lisp: a global two-dimensional *association table*. This table is indexed by two keys, called `x-key` and `y-key` in the following procedure descriptions. These keys and the datum associated with them can be arbitrary objects. `eq?` is used to discriminate keys.

Think of the association table as a matrix: a single datum can be accessed using both keys, a column using `x-key` only, and a row using `y-key` only.

**2d-put! x-key y-key datum**

Makes an entry in the association table that associates `datum` with `x-key` and `y-key`. Returns an unspecified result.

**2d-remove! x-key y-key**

If the association table has an entry for `x-key` and `y-key`, it is removed. Returns an unspecified result.
2d-get x-key y-key

Returns the datum associated with x-key and y-key. Returns #f if no such association exists.

2d-get-alist-x x-key

Returns an association list of all entries in the association table that are associated with x-key. The result is a list of (y-key . datum) pairs. Returns the empty list if no entries for x-key exist.

```scheme
(2d-put! 'foo 'bar 5)
(2d-put! 'foo 'baz 6)
(2d-get-alist-x 'foo) => ((baz . 6) (bar . 5))
```

2d-get-alist-y y-key

Returns an association list of all entries in the association table that are associated with y-key. The result is a list of (x-key . datum) pairs. Returns the empty list if no entries for y-key exist.

```scheme
(2d-put! 'bar 'foo 5)
(2d-put! 'baz 'foo 6)
(2d-get-alist-y 'foo) => ((baz . 6) (bar . 5))
```

11.4 Hash Tables

Hash tables are a fast, powerful mechanism for storing large numbers of associations. MIT/GNU Scheme’s hash tables feature automatic resizing, customizable growth parameters, and customizable hash procedures.

The average times for the insertion, deletion, and lookup operations on a hash table are bounded by a constant. The space required by the table is proportional to the number of associations in the table; the constant of proportionality is described below (see Section 11.4.3 [Resizing of Hash Tables], page 152).

(Previously, the hash-table implementation was a run-time-loadable option, but as of release 7.7.0 it is loaded by default. It’s no longer necessary to call load-option prior to using hash tables.)

11.4.1 Construction of Hash Tables

The next few procedures are hash-table constructors. All hash table constructors are procedures that accept one optional argument, initial-size, and return a newly allocated hash table. If initial-size is given, it must be an exact non-negative integer or #f. The meaning of initial-size is discussed below (see Section 11.4.3 [Resizing of Hash Tables], page 152).

Hash tables are normally characterized by two things: the equivalence predicate that is used to compare keys, and whether or not the table allows its keys to be reclaimed by the garbage collector. If a table prevents its keys from being reclaimed by the garbage collector, it is said to hold its keys strongly; otherwise it holds its keys weakly (see Section 10.7 [Weak Pairs], page 143).

make-strong-eq-hash-table [initial-size]

Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts arbitrary objects as keys, and compares those keys with eq?. The keys are held strongly. These are the fastest of the standard hash tables.
make-weak-eq-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts arbitrary objects as keys, and compares those keys with \(\text{eq}\). The keys are held weakly.

make-eq-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
This is an alias for make-weak-eq-hash-table.

**Warning:** This become an alias make-strong-eq-hash-table instead. We recommend that you use make-weak-eq-hash-table explicitly for weak hash tables.

make-strong-eq-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts arbitrary objects as keys, and compares those keys with \(\text{eqv}\). The keys are held strongly. These hash tables are a little slower than those made by make-strong-eq-hash-table.

make-weak-eqv-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts arbitrary objects as keys, and compares those keys with \(\text{eqv}\). The keys are held weakly, except that booleans, characters, numbers, and interned symbols are held strongly.

make-eqv-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
This is an alias for make-weak-eqv-hash-table.

**Warning:** This become an alias for make-strong-eqv-hash-table instead. We recommend that you use make-weak-eqv-hash-table explicitly for weak hash tables.

make-equal-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts arbitrary objects as keys, and compares those keys with \(\text{equal}\). The keys are held strongly. These hash tables are quite a bit slower than those made by make-strong-eq-hash-table.

make-string-hash-table \([initial-size]\) \[procedure\]
Returns a newly allocated hash table that accepts character strings as keys, and compares them with \(\text{string=}\). The keys are held strongly.

The next two procedures are used to create new hash-table constructors. All of the above hash table constructors, with the exception of make-eqv-hash-table, could have been created by calls to these “constructor-constructors”; see the examples below.

strong-hash-table/constructor \(key-hash\ \text{key=}\ [\text{rehash-after-gc}]\) \[procedure\]
weak-hash-table/constructor \(key-hash\ \text{key=}\ [\text{rehash-after-gc}]\) \[procedure\]
Each of these procedures accepts two arguments and returns a hash-table constructor. The \(\text{key=}\) argument is an equivalence predicate for the keys of the hash table. The \(key-hash\) argument is a procedure that computes a hash number. Specifically, \(key-hash\) accepts two arguments, a key and an exact positive integer (the modulus), and returns an exact non-negative integer that is less than the modulus.

The optional argument \(\text{rehash-after-gc}\), if true, says that the values returned by \(key-hash\) might change after a garbage collection. If so, the hash-table implementation arranges for the table to be rehashed when necessary. (See Section 11.4.4 [Address Hashing], page 155, for information about hash procedures that have this property.)
Otherwise, it is assumed that `key-hash` always returns the same value for the same arguments. The default value of this argument is `#f`.

The constructors returned by `strong-hash-table/constructor` make hash tables that hold their keys strongly. The constructors returned by `weak-hash-table/constructor` make hash tables that hold their keys weakly.

Some examples showing how some standard hash-table constructors could have been defined:

```
(define make-weak-eq-hash-table
  (weak-hash-table/constructor eq-hash-mod eq? #t))

(define make-equal-hash-table
  (strong-hash-table/constructor equal-hash-mod equal? #t))

(define make-string-hash-table
  (strong-hash-table/constructor string-hash-mod string=? #f))
```

The following procedure is sometimes useful in conjunction with weak hash tables. Normally it is not needed, because such hash tables clean themselves automatically as they are used.

```
hash-table/clean! hash-table
```

If `hash-table` is a type of hash table that holds its keys weakly, this procedure recovers any space that was being used to record associations for objects that have been reclaimed by the garbage collector. Otherwise, this procedure does nothing. In either case, it returns an unspecified result.

### 11.4.2 Basic Hash Table Operations

The procedures described in this section are the basic operations on hash tables. They provide the functionality most often needed by programmers. Subsequent sections describe other operations that provide additional functionality needed by some applications.

```
hash-table? object
```

Returns `#t` if `object` is a hash table, otherwise returns `#f`.

```
hash-table/put! hash-table key datum
```

Associates `datum` with `key` in `hash-table` and returns an unspecified result. The average time required by this operation is bounded by a constant.

```
hash-table/get hash-table key default
```

Returns the datum associated with `key` in `hash-table`. If there is no association for `key`, `default` is returned. The average time required by this operation is bounded by a constant.

```
hash-table/remove! hash-table key
```

If `hash-table` has an association for `key`, removes it. Returns an unspecified result. The average time required by this operation is bounded by a constant.

```
hash-table/clear! hash-table
```

Removes all associations in `hash-table` and returns an unspecified result. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are bounded by a constant.
hash-table/count hash-table  [procedure]
Returns the number of associations in hash-table as an exact non-negative integer. If hash-table holds its keys weakly, this is a conservative upper bound that may count some associations whose keys have recently been reclaimed by the garbage collector. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are bounded by a constant.

hash-table->alist hash-table  [procedure]
Returns the contents of hash-table as a newly allocated alist. Each element of the alist is a pair (key, datum) where key is one of the keys of hash-table, and datum is its associated datum. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are linear in the number of associations in the table.

hash-table/key-list hash-table  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated list of the keys in hash-table. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are linear in the number of associations in the table.

hash-table/datum-list hash-table  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated list of the datums in hash-table. Each element of the list corresponds to one of the associations in hash-table; if the table contains multiple associations with the same datum, so will this list. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are linear in the number of associations in the table.

hash-table/for-each hash-table procedure  [procedure]
Procedure must be a procedure of two arguments. Invokes procedure once for each association in hash-table, passing the association’s key and datum as arguments, in that order. Returns an unspecified result. Procedure must not modify hash-table, with one exception: it is permitted to call hash-table/remove! to remove the association being processed.

The following procedure is an alternate form of hash-table/get that is useful in some situations. Usually, hash-table/get is preferable because it is faster.

hash-table/lookup hash-table key if-found if-not-found  [procedure]
If-found must be a procedure of one argument, and if-not-found must be a procedure of no arguments. If hash-table contains an association for key, if-found is invoked on the datum of the association. Otherwise, if-not-found is invoked with no arguments. In either case, the result yielded by the invoked procedure is returned as the result of hash-table/lookup (hash-table/lookup reduces into the invoked procedure, i.e. calls it tail-recursively). The average time required by this operation is bounded by a constant.

11.4.3 Resizing of Hash Tables
Normally, hash tables automatically resize themselves according to need. Because of this, the programmer need not be concerned with management of the table’s size. However, some limited control over the table’s size is provided, which will be discussed below. This discussion involves two concepts, usable size and physical size, which we will now define.

The usable size of a hash table is the number of associations that the table can hold at a given time. If the number of associations in the table exceeds the usable size, the table
will automatically grow, increasing the usable size to a new value that is sufficient to hold the associations.

The physical size is an abstract measure of a hash table that specifies how much space is allocated to hold the associations of the table. The physical size is always greater than or equal to the usable size. The physical size is not interesting in itself; it is interesting only for its effect on the performance of the hash table. While the average performance of a hash-table lookup is bounded by a constant, the worst-case performance is not. For a table containing a given number of associations, increasing the physical size of the table decreases the probability that worse-than-average performance will occur.

The physical size of a hash table is statistically related to the number of associations. However, it is possible to place bounds on the physical size, and from this to estimate the amount of space used by the table:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(define (hash-table-space-bounds count rehash-size rehash-threshold)} & \\text{(let ((tf (\(/ 1 \text{rehash-threshold)})))} \\
& \text{(values (if (exact-integer? rehash-size)} & \text{(- (* count (+ 4 tf))}) \\
& \text{(* tf (+ rehash-size rehash-size))}) \\
& \text{(* count (+ 4 (/ tf (* rehash-size rehash-size))))}) \\
& \text{(* count (+ 4 tf)))))}
\end{align*}
\]

What this formula shows is that, for a “normal” rehash size (that is, not an exact integer), the amount of space used by the hash table is proportional to the number of associations in the table. The constant of proportionality varies statistically, with the low bound being

\[
\begin{align*}
(+ 4 (/ (/ 1 \text{rehash-threshold)} (* \text{rehash-size rehash-size))))
\end{align*}
\]

and the high bound being

\[
\begin{align*}
(+ 4 (/ 1 \text{rehash-threshold)}) (* \text{rehash-size rehash-size}))
\end{align*}
\]

which, for the default values of these parameters, are 4.25 and 5, respectively. Reducing the rehash size will tighten these bounds, but increases the amount of time spent resizing, so you can see that the rehash size gives some control over the time-space tradeoff of the table.

The programmer can control the size of a hash table by means of three parameters:

- Each table’s \text{initial-size} may be specified when the table is created.
- Each table has a \text{rehash size} that specifies how the size of the table is changed when it is necessary to grow or shrink the table.
- Each table has a \text{rehash threshold} that specifies the relationship of the table’s physical size to its usable size.

If the programmer knows that the table will initially contain a specific number of items, \text{initial-size} can be given when the table is created. If \text{initial-size} is an exact non-negative integer, it specifies the initial usable size of the hash table; the table will not change size until the number of items in the table exceeds \text{initial-size}, after which automatic resizing is enabled and \text{initial-size} no longer has any effect. Otherwise, if \text{initial-size} is not given or is \text{#f}, the table is initialized to an unspecified size and automatic resizing is immediately enabled.

The \text{rehash size} specifies how much to increase the usable size of the hash table when it becomes full. It is either an exact positive integer, or a real number greater than one. If it
is an integer, the new size is the sum of the old size and the rehash size. Otherwise, it is a real number, and the new size is the product of the old size and the rehash size. Increasing the rehash size decreases the average cost of an insertion, but increases the average amount of space used by the table. The rehash size of a table may be altered dynamically by the application in order to optimize the resizing of the table; for example, if the table will grow quickly for a known period and afterwards will not change size, performance might be improved by using a large rehash size during the growth phase and a small one during the static phase. The default rehash size of a newly constructed hash table is 2.0.

Warning: The use of an exact positive integer for a rehash size is almost always undesirable; this option is provided solely for compatibility with the Common Lisp hash-table mechanism. The reason for this has to do with the time penalty for resizing the hash table. The time needed to resize a hash table is proportional to the number of associations in the table. This resizing cost is amortized across the insertions required to fill the table to the point where it needs to grow again. If the table grows by an amount proportional to the number of associations, then the cost of resizing and the increase in size are both proportional to the number of associations, so the amortized cost of an insertion operation is still bounded by a constant. However, if the table grows by a constant amount, this is not true: the amortized cost of an insertion is not bounded by a constant. Thus, using a constant rehash size means that the average cost of an insertion increases proportionally to the number of associations in the hash table.

The rehash threshold is a real number, between zero exclusive and one inclusive, that specifies the ratio between a hash table’s usable size and its physical size. Decreasing the rehash threshold decreases the probability of worse-than-average insertion, deletion, and lookup times, but increases the physical size of the table for a given usable size. The default rehash threshold of a newly constructed hash table is 1.

hash-table/size hash-table  [procedure]
Returns the usable size of hash-table as an exact positive integer. This is the number of associations that hash-table can hold before it will grow.

hash-table/rehash-size hash-table  [procedure]
Returns the rehash size of hash-table.

set-hash-table/rehash-size! hash-table x  [procedure]
X must be either an exact positive integer, or a real number that is greater than one. Sets the rehash size of hash-table to x and returns an unspecified result. This operation adjusts the “shrink threshold” of the table; the table might shrink if the number of associations is less than the new threshold.

hash-table/rehash-threshold hash-table  [procedure]
Returns the rehash threshold of hash-table.

set-hash-table/rehash-threshold! hash-table x  [procedure]
X must be a real number between zero exclusive and one inclusive. Sets the rehash threshold of hash-table to x and returns an unspecified result. This operation does not change the usable size of the table, but it usually changes the physical size of the table, which causes the table to be rehashed.
11.4.4 Address Hashing

The procedures described in this section may be used to make very efficient key-hashing procedures for arbitrary objects. All of these procedures are based on address hashing, which uses the address of an object as its hash number. The great advantage of address hashing is that converting an arbitrary object to a hash number is extremely fast and takes the same amount of time for any object.

The disadvantage of address hashing is that the garbage collector changes the addresses of most objects. The hash-table implementation compensates for this disadvantage by automatically rehashing tables that use address hashing when garbage collections occur. Thus, in order to use these procedures for key hashing, it is necessary to tell the hash-table implementation (by means of the rehash-after-gc? argument to the “constructor-constructor” procedure) that the hash numbers computed by your key-hashing procedure must be recomputed after a garbage collection.

```
eq-hash object  [procedure]
eqv-hash object  [procedure]
equal-hash object  [procedure]
```

These procedures return a hash number for object. The result is always a non-negative integer, and in the case of eq-hash, a non-negative fixnum. Two objects that are equivalent according to eq?, eqv?, or equal?, respectively, will produce the same hash number when passed as arguments to these procedures, provided that the garbage collector does not run during or between the two calls.

The following procedures are the key-hashing procedures used by the standard address-hash-based hash tables.

```
eq-hash-mod object modulus  [procedure]
This procedure is the key-hashing procedure used by make-strong-eq-hash-table.
eqv-hash-mod object modulus  [procedure]
This procedure is the key-hashing procedure used by make-strong-eqv-hash-table.
equal-hash-mod object modulus  [procedure]
This procedure is the key-hashing procedure used by make-equal-hash-table.
```

11.5 Object Hashing

The MIT/GNU Scheme object-hashing facility provides a mechanism for generating a unique hash number for an arbitrary object. This hash number, unlike an object’s address, is unchanged by garbage collection. The object-hashing facility is useful in conjunction with hash tables, but it may be used for other things as well. In particular, it is used in the generation of the written representation for many objects (see Section 14.7 [Custom Output], page 196).

All of these procedures accept an optional argument called table; this table contains the object-integer associations. If given, this argument must be an object-hash table as constructed by hash-table/make (see below). If not given, a default table is used.
**hash** object [table]  [procedure]

**hash** associates an exact non-negative integer with object and returns that integer. If **hash** was previously called with object as its argument, the integer returned is the same as was returned by the previous call. **hash** guarantees that distinct objects (in the sense of **eq?**) are associated with distinct integers.

**unhash** k [table]  [procedure]

**unhash** takes an exact non-negative integer k and returns the object associated with that integer. If there is no object associated with k, or if the object previously associated with k has been reclaimed by the garbage collector, an error of type **condition-type:bad-range-argument** is signalled. In other words, if **hash** previously returned k for some object, and that object has not been reclaimed, it is the value of the call to **unhash**.

An object that is passed to **hash** as an argument is not protected from being reclaimed by the garbage collector. If all other references to that object are eliminated, the object will be reclaimed. Subsequently calling **unhash** with the hash number of the (now reclaimed) object will signal an error.

```
(define x (cons 0 0))          ⇒  unspecified
(hash x)                      ⇒  77
(eqv? (hash x) (hash x))       ⇒  #t
(define x 0)                  ⇒  unspecified
(gc-flip)                     ;force a garbage collection
(unhash 77)                   error
```

**object-hashed?** object [table]  [procedure]

This predicate is true if object has an associated hash number. Otherwise it is false.

**valid-hash-number?** k [table]  [procedure]

This predicate is true if k is the hash number associated with some object. Otherwise it is false.

The following two procedures provide a lower-level interface to the object-hashing mechanism.

**object-hash** object [table [insert?]]  [procedure]

**object-hash** is like **hash**, except that it accepts an additional optional argument, insert?. If insert? is supplied and is #f, **object-hash** will return an integer for object only if there is already an association in the table; otherwise, it will return #f. If insert? is not supplied, or is not #f, **object-hash** always returns an integer, creating an association in the table if necessary.

**object-hash** additionally treats #f differently than does **hash**. Calling **object-hash** with #f as its argument will return an integer that, when passed to **unhash**, will signal an error rather than returning #f. Likewise, **valid-hash-number?** will return #f for this integer.

**object-unhash** k [table]  [procedure]

**object-unhash** is like **unhash**, except that when k is not associated with any object or was previously associated with an object that has been reclaimed, **object-unhash**
returns #f. This means that there is an ambiguity in the value returned by object-unhash: if #f is returned, there is no way to tell if $k$ is associated with #f or is not associated with any object at all.

Finally, this procedure makes new object-hash tables:

```
hash-table/make
```

This procedure creates and returns a new, empty object-hash table that is suitable for use as the optional table argument to the above procedures. The returned table contains no associations.

### 11.6 Red-Black Trees

Balanced binary trees are a useful data structure for maintaining large sets of associations whose keys are ordered. While most applications involving large association sets should use hash tables, some applications can benefit from the use of binary trees. Binary trees have two advantages over hash tables:

- The contents of a binary tree can be converted to an alist, sorted by key, in time proportional to the number of associations in the tree. A hash table can be converted into an unsorted alist in linear time; sorting it requires additional time.
- Two binary trees can be compared for equality in linear time. Hash tables, on the other hand, cannot be compared at all; they must be converted to alists before comparison can be done, and alist comparison is quadratic unless the alists are sorted.

MIT/GNU Scheme provides an implementation of red-black trees. The red-black tree-balancing algorithm provides generally good performance because it doesn’t try to keep the tree very closely balanced. At any given node in the tree, one side of the node can be twice as high as the other in the worst case. With typical data the tree will remain fairly well balanced anyway.

A red-black tree takes space that is proportional to the number of associations in the tree. For the current implementation, the constant of proportionality is eight words per association.

Red-black trees hold their keys strongly. In other words, if a red-black tree contains an association for a given key, that key cannot be reclaimed by the garbage collector.

The red-black tree implementation is a run-time-loadable option. To use red-black trees, execute

```
(load-option 'rb-tree)
```

once before calling any of the procedures defined here.

```
make-rb-tree key=? key<?
```

This procedure creates and returns a newly allocated red-black tree. The tree contains no associations. Key=? and key<? are predicates that compare two keys and determine whether they are equal to or less than one another, respectively. For any two keys, at most one of these predicates is true.

```
rb-tree? object
```

Returns #t if object is a red-black tree, otherwise returns #f.
\texttt{rb-tree/insert!} \textit{rb-tree key datum} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Associates \textit{datum} with \textit{key} in \textit{rb-tree} and returns an unspecified value. If \textit{rb-tree} already has an association for \textit{key}, that association is replaced. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in \textit{rb-tree}.

\texttt{rb-tree/lookup} \textit{rb-tree key default} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns the datum associated with \textit{key} in \textit{rb-tree}. If \textit{rb-tree} doesn't contain an association for \textit{key}, \textit{default} is returned. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in \textit{rb-tree}.

\texttt{rb-tree/delete!} \textit{rb-tree key} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

If \textit{rb-tree} contains an association for \textit{key}, removes it. Returns an unspecified value. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in \textit{rb-tree}.

\texttt{rb-tree->alist} \textit{rb-tree} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns the contents of \textit{rb-tree} as a newly allocated alist. Each element of the alist is a pair \texttt{(key . datum)} where \textit{key} is one of the keys of \textit{rb-tree}, and \textit{datum} is its associated datum. The list is sorted by key according to the \texttt{key<} argument used to construct \textit{rb-tree}. The time required by this operation is proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

\texttt{rb-tree/key-list} \textit{rb-tree} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated list of the keys in \textit{rb-tree}. The list is sorted by key according to the \texttt{key<} argument used to construct \textit{rb-tree}. The time required by this operation is proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

\texttt{rb-tree/datum-list} \textit{rb-tree} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns a newly allocated list of the datums in \textit{rb-tree}. Each element of the list corresponds to one of the associations in \textit{rb-tree}, so if the tree contains multiple associations with the same datum, so will this list. The list is sorted by the keys of the associations, even though they do not appear in the result. The time required by this operation is proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

This procedure is equivalent to:

\begin{verbatim}
(lambda (rb-tree) (map cdr (rb-tree->alist rb-tree)))
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{rb-tree/equal?} \textit{rb-tree-1 rb-tree-2 datum=?} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Compares \textit{rb-tree-1} and \textit{rb-tree-2} for equality, returning \#t iff they are equal and \#f otherwise. The trees must have been constructed with the same equality and order predicates (same in the sense of \texttt{eq?}). The keys of the trees are compared using the \texttt{key=?} predicate used to build the trees, while the datums of the trees are compared using the equivalence predicate \texttt{datum=?}. The worst-case time required by this operation is proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

\texttt{rb-tree/empty?} \textit{rb-tree} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \#t iff \textit{rb-tree} contains no associations. Otherwise returns \#f.
**rb-tree/size** *rb-tree*  
Returns the number of associations in *rb-tree*, an exact non-negative integer. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

**rb-tree/height** *rb-tree*  
Returns the height of *rb-tree*, an exact non-negative integer. This is the length of the longest path from a leaf of the tree to the root. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the number of associations in the tree. The returned value satisfies the following:

\[
\text{(lambda (rb-tree)}
  \text{(let ((size (rb-tree/size rb-tree))})}
  \text{(lg (lambda (x) (/ (log x) (log 2)))))}
  \text{(<= (lg size)}
  \text{(rb-tree/height rb-tree)}
  \text{(* 2 (lg (+ size 1))))))}
\]

**rb-tree/copy** *rb-tree*  
Returns a newly allocated copy of *rb-tree*. The copy is identical to *rb-tree* in all respects, except that changes to *rb-tree* do not affect the copy, and vice versa. The time required by this operation is proportional to the number of associations in the tree.

**alist->rb-tree** *alist key=? key<?*  
Returns a newly allocated red-black tree that contains the same associations as *alist*. This procedure is equivalent to:

\[
\text{(lambda (alist key=? key<?)}
  \text{(let ((tree (make-rb-tree key=? key<?))})}
  \text{(for-each (lambda (association)}
    \text{(rb-tree/insert! tree}
    \text{(car association)}
    \text{(cdr association)))}
    \text{alist})
  \text{tree))}
\]

The following operations provide access to the smallest and largest members in a red/black tree. They are useful for implementing priority queues.

**rb-tree/min** *rb-tree default*  
Returns the smallest key in *rb-tree*, or *default* if the tree is empty.

**rb-tree/min-datum** *rb-tree default*  
Returns the datum associated with the smallest key in *rb-tree*, or *default* if the tree is empty.

**rb-tree/min-pair** *rb-tree*  
Finds the smallest key in *rb-tree* and returns a pair containing that key and its associated datum. If the tree is empty, returns #f.
\textbf{rb-tree/max} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

Returns the largest key in \textit{rb-tree}, or \textit{default} if the tree is empty.

\textbf{rb-tree/max-datum} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

Returns the datum associated with the largest key in \textit{rb-tree}, or \textit{default} if the tree is empty.

\textbf{rb-tree/max-pair} \textit{rb-tree} \hfill [procedure]

Finds the largest key in \textit{rb-tree} and returns a pair containing that key and its associated datum. If the tree is empty, returns \#f.

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-min!} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-min-datum!} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-min-pair!} \textit{rb-tree} \hfill [procedure]

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-max!} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-max-datum!} \textit{rb-tree default} \hfill [procedure]

\textbf{rb-tree/delete-max-pair!} \textit{rb-tree} \hfill [procedure]

These operations are exactly like the accessors above, in that they return information associated with the smallest or largest key, except that they simultaneously delete that key.

\section{11.7 Weight-Balanced Trees}

Balanced binary trees are a useful data structure for maintaining large sets of ordered objects or sets of associations whose keys are ordered. MIT/GNU Scheme has a comprehensive implementation of weight-balanced binary trees which has several advantages over the other data structures for large aggregates:

- In addition to the usual element-level operations like insertion, deletion and lookup, there is a full complement of collection-level operations, like set intersection, set union and subset test, all of which are implemented with good orders of growth in time and space. This makes weight-balanced trees ideal for rapid prototyping of functionally derived specifications.
- An element in a tree may be indexed by its position under the ordering of the keys, and the ordinal position of an element may be determined, both with reasonable efficiency.
- Operations to find and remove minimum element make weight-balanced trees simple to use for priority queues.
- The implementation is \emph{functional} rather than \emph{imperative}. This means that operations like 'inserting' an association in a tree do not destroy the old tree, in much the same way that (+ 1 x) modifies neither the constant 1 nor the value bound to x. The trees are referentially transparent thus the programmer need not worry about copying the trees. Referential transparency allows space efficiency to be achieved by sharing subtrees.

These features make weight-balanced trees suitable for a wide range of applications, especially those that require large numbers of sets or discrete maps. Applications that have a few global databases and/or concentrate on element-level operations like insertion and lookup are probably better off using hash tables or red-black trees.

The \textit{size} of a tree is the number of associations that it contains. Weight-balanced binary trees are balanced to keep the sizes of the subtrees of each node within a constant
factor of each other. This ensures logarithmic times for single-path operations (like lookup
and insertion). A weight-balanced tree takes space that is proportional to the number
of associations in the tree. For the current implementation, the constant of proportionality is
six words per association.

Weight-balanced trees can be used as an implementation for either discrete sets or dis-
crete maps (associations). Sets are implemented by ignoring the datum that is associated
with the key. Under this scheme if an association exists in the tree this indicates that the
key of the association is a member of the set. Typically a value such as () , #t or #f is
associated with the key.

Many operations can be viewed as computing a result that, depending on whether the
tree arguments are thought of as sets or maps, is known by two different names. An example
is wt-tree/member?, which, when regarding the tree argument as a set, computes the set
membership operation, but, when regarding the tree as a discrete map, wt-tree/member?
is the predicate testing if the map is defined at an element in its domain. Most names
in this package have been chosen based on interpreting the trees as sets, hence the name
wt-tree/member? rather than wt-tree/defined-at?.

The weight-balanced tree implementation is a run-time-loadable option. To use weight-
balanced trees, execute

\begin{verbatim}
(load-option 'wt-tree)
\end{verbatim}
once before calling any of the procedures defined here.

### 11.7.1 Construction of Weight-Balanced Trees

Binary trees require there to be a total order on the keys used to arrange the elements
in the tree. Weight-balanced trees are organized by types, where the type is an object
encapsulating the ordering relation. Creating a tree is a two-stage process. First a tree
type must be created from the predicate that gives the ordering. The tree type is then used
for making trees, either empty or singleton trees or trees from other aggregate structures
like association lists. Once created, a tree ‘knows’ its type and the type is used to test
compatibility between trees in operations taking two trees. Usually a small number of
tree types are created at the beginning of a program and used many times throughout the
program’s execution.

**make-wt-tree-type**

This procedure creates and returns a new tree type based on the ordering predicate
key<?. **Key<?** must be a total ordering, having the property that for all key values
a, b and c:

\[
\begin{align*}
(key<? a a) & \Rightarrow \#f \\
(and (key<? a b) (key<? b a)) & \Rightarrow \#f \\
(if (and (key<? a b) (key<? b c)) (key<? a c) #t) & \Rightarrow \#t
\end{align*}
\]

Two key values are assumed to be equal if neither is less than the other by key<?.
Each call to **make-wt-tree-type** returns a distinct value, and trees are only compati-
able if their tree types are eq?. A consequence is that trees that are intended to be
used in binary-tree operations must all be created with a tree type originating from
the same call to **make-wt-tree-type**.
number-wt-type  [variable]
A standard tree type for trees with numeric keys. Number-wt-type could have been defined by

(define number-wt-type (make-wt-tree-type <))

string-wt-type  [variable]
A standard tree type for trees with string keys. String-wt-type could have been defined by

(define string-wt-type (make-wt-tree-type string<?))

make-wt-tree wt-tree-type  [procedure]
This procedure creates and returns a newly allocated weight-balanced tree. The tree is empty, i.e. it contains no associations. Wt-tree-type is a weight-balanced tree type obtained by calling make-wt-tree-type; the returned tree has this type.

singleton-wt-tree wt-tree-type key datum  [procedure]
This procedure creates and returns a newly allocated weight-balanced tree. The tree contains a single association, that of datum with key. Wt-tree-type is a weight-balanced tree type obtained by calling make-wt-tree-type; the returned tree has this type.

alist->wt-tree tree-type alist  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated weight-balanced tree that contains the same associations as alist. This procedure is equivalent to:

(lambda (type alist)
  (let ((tree (make-wt-tree type)))
    (for-each (lambda (association)
      (wt-tree/add! tree
        (car association)
        (cdr association)))
      alist)
    tree))

11.7.2 Basic Operations on Weight-Balanced Trees
This section describes the basic tree operations on weight-balanced trees. These operations are the usual tree operations for insertion, deletion and lookup, some predicates and a procedure for determining the number of associations in a tree.

wt-tree? object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a weight-balanced tree, otherwise returns #f.

wt-tree/empty? wt-tree  [procedure]
Returns #t if wt-tree contains no associations, otherwise returns #f.

wt-tree/size wt-tree  [procedure]
Returns the number of associations in wt-tree, an exact non-negative integer. This operation takes constant time.
**wt-tree/add**  wt-tree key datum  [procedure]

Returns a new tree containing all the associations in wt-tree and the association of datum with key. If wt-tree already had an association for key, the new association overrides the old. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

**wt-tree/add!**  wt-tree key datum  [procedure]

Associates datum with key in wt-tree and returns an unspecified value. If wt-tree already has an association for key, that association is replaced. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

**wt-tree/member?**  key wt-tree  [procedure]

Returns #t if wt-tree contains an association for key, otherwise returns #f. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

**wt-tree/lookup**  wt-tree key default  [procedure]

Returns the datum associated with key in wt-tree. If wt-tree doesn’t contain an association for key, default is returned. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

**wt-tree/delete**  wt-tree key  [procedure]

Returns a new tree containing all the associations in wt-tree, except that if wt-tree contains an association for key, it is removed from the result. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

**wt-tree/delete!**  wt-tree key  [procedure]

If wt-tree contains an association for key the association is removed. Returns an unspecified value. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in wt-tree.

### 11.7.3 Advanced Operations on Weight-Balanced Trees

In the following the size of a tree is the number of associations that the tree contains, and a smaller tree contains fewer associations.

**wt-tree/split<**  wt-tree bound  [procedure]

Returns a new tree containing all and only the associations in wt-tree that have a key that is less than bound in the ordering relation of the tree type of wt-tree. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the size of wt-tree.

**wt-tree/split>**  wt-tree bound  [procedure]

Returns a new tree containing all and only the associations in wt-tree that have a key that is greater than bound in the ordering relation of the tree type of wt-tree. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the size of wt-tree.
**wt-tree/union** *wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2*  
Returns a new tree containing all the associations from both trees. This operation is asymmetric: when both trees have an association for the same key, the returned tree associates the datum from *wt-tree-2* with the key. Thus if the trees are viewed as discrete maps then *wt-tree/union* computes the map override of *wt-tree-1* by *wt-tree-2*. If the trees are viewed as sets the result is the set union of the arguments. The worst-case time required by this operation is proportional to the sum of the sizes of both trees. If the minimum key of one tree is greater than the maximum key of the other tree then the worst-case time required is proportional to the logarithm of the size of the larger tree.

**wt-tree/intersection** *wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2*  
Returns a new tree containing all and only those associations from *wt-tree-1* that have keys appearing as the key of an association in *wt-tree-2*. Thus the associated data in the result are those from *wt-tree-1*. If the trees are being used as sets the result is the set intersection of the arguments. As a discrete map operation, *wt-tree/intersection* computes the domain restriction of *wt-tree-1* to (the domain of) *wt-tree-2*. The worst-case time required by this operation is proportional to the sum of the sizes of the trees.

**wt-tree/difference** *wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2*  
Returns a new tree containing all and only those associations from *wt-tree-1* that have keys that do not appear as the key of an association in *wt-tree-2*. If the trees are viewed as sets the result is the asymmetric set difference of the arguments. As a discrete map operation, it computes the domain restriction of *wt-tree-1* to the complement of (the domain of) *wt-tree-2*. The worst-case time required by this operation is proportional to the sum of the sizes of the trees.

**wt-tree/subset?** *wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2*  
Returns #t iff the key of each association in *wt-tree-1* is the key of some association in *wt-tree-2*, otherwise returns #f. Viewed as a set operation, *wt-tree/subset?* is the improper subset predicate. A proper subset predicate can be constructed:

```
(define (proper-subset? s1 s2)
  (and (wt-tree/subset? s1 s2)
       (< (wt-tree/size s1) (wt-tree/size s2))))
```

As a discrete map operation, *wt-tree/subset?* is the subset test on the domain(s) of the map(s). In the worst-case the time required by this operation is proportional to the size of *wt-tree-1*.

**wt-tree/set-equal?** *wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2*  
Returns #t iff for every association in *wt-tree-1* there is an association in *wt-tree-2* that has the same key, and vice versa.

Viewing the arguments as sets, *wt-tree/set-equal?* is the set equality predicate. As a map operation it determines if two maps are defined on the same domain. This procedure is equivalent to

```
(lambda (wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2)
  (and (wt-tree/subset? wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2
    (wt-tree/subset? wt-tree-2 wt-tree-1))))
```
In the worst case the time required by this operation is proportional to the size of the smaller tree.

**wt-tree/fold combiner initial wt-tree**

This procedure reduces `wt-tree` by combining all the associations, using an reverse in-order traversal, so the associations are visited in reverse order. *Combiner* is a procedure of three arguments: a key, a datum and the accumulated result so far. Provided `combiner` takes time bounded by a constant, `wt-tree/fold` takes time proportional to the size of `wt-tree`.

A sorted association list can be derived simply:

```scheme
(wt-tree/fold (lambda (key datum list)
               (cons (cons key datum) list))
               '()
               wt-tree))
```

The data in the associations can be summed like this:

```scheme
(wt-tree/fold (lambda (key datum sum) (+ sum datum))
               0
               wt-tree)
```

**wt-tree/for-each action wt-tree**

This procedure traverses `wt-tree` in order, applying `action` to each association. The associations are processed in increasing order of their keys. *Action* is a procedure of two arguments that takes the key and datum respectively of the association. Provided `action` takes time bounded by a constant, `wt-tree/for-each` takes time proportional to the size of `wt-tree`. The example prints the tree:

```scheme
(wt-tree/for-each (lambda (key value)
                   (display (list key value)))
                   wt-tree))
```

**wt-tree/union-merge wt-tree-1 wt-tree-2 merge**

Returns a new tree containing all the associations from both trees. If both trees have an association for the same key, the datum associated with that key in the result tree is computed by applying the procedure `merge` to the key, the value from `wt-tree-1` and the value from `wt-tree-2`. *Merge* is of the form

```scheme
(lamba (key datum-1 datum-2) ...)
```

If some key occurs only in one tree, that association will appear in the result tree without being processed by `merge`, so for this operation to make sense, either `merge` must have both a right and left identity that correspond to the association being absent in one of the trees, or some guarantee must be made, for example, all the keys in one tree are known to occur in the other.

These are all reasonable procedures for `merge`

```scheme
(lamba (key val1 val2) (+ val1 val2))
(lamba (key val1 val2) (append val1 val2))
(lamba (key val1 val2) (wt-tree/union val1 val2))
```

However, a procedure like
would result in a subtraction of the data for all associations with keys occurring in both
trees but associations with keys occurring in only the second tree would be copied, not
negated, as is presumably be intent. The programmer might ensure that this never
happens.

This procedure has the same time behavior as \texttt{wt-tree/union} but with a slightly
worse constant factor. Indeed, \texttt{wt-tree/union} might have been defined like this:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (wt-tree/union tree1 tree2)
    (wt-tree/union-merge tree1 tree2
        (lambda (key val1 val2) val2)))
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{merge} procedure takes the \texttt{key} as a parameter in case the data are not independent
of the key.

### 11.7.4 Indexing Operations on Weight-Balanced Trees

Weight-balanced trees support operations that view the tree as sorted sequence of associations. Elements of the sequence can be accessed by position, and the position of an element
in the sequence can be determined, both in logarithmic time.

\begin{verbatim}
wt-tree/index wt-tree index
wt-tree/index-datum wt-tree index
wt-tree/index-pair wt-tree index
\end{verbatim}

Returns the 0-based \texttt{index}th association of \texttt{wt-tree} in the sorted sequence under
the tree's ordering relation on the keys. \texttt{wt-tree/index} returns the \texttt{index}th key, \texttt{wt-tree/index-datum} returns the datum associated with the \texttt{index}th key and \texttt{wt-tree/index-pair} returns a new pair \texttt{(key . datum)} which is the \texttt{cons} of the \texttt{index}th key and its datum. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are
proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in the tree.

These operations signal a condition of type \texttt{condition-type:bad-range-argument}
if \texttt{index}<0 or if \texttt{index} is greater than or equal to the number of associations in the
tree. If the tree is empty, they signal an anonymous error.

Indexing can be used to find the median and maximum keys in the tree as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
median:  (wt-tree/index wt-tree
    (quotient (wt-tree/size wt-tree)
        2))
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
maximum:  (wt-tree/index wt-tree
    (- (wt-tree/size wt-tree)
        1))
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
wt-tree/rank wt-tree key
\end{verbatim}

Determines the 0-based position of \texttt{key} in the sorted sequence of the keys under
the tree's ordering relation, or \texttt{#f} if the tree has no association with \texttt{key}. This
procedure returns either an exact non-negative integer or \texttt{#f}. The average and worst-case
times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number
of associations in the tree.
wt-tree/min wt-tree

wt-tree/min-datum wt-tree

wt-tree/min-pair wt-tree

Returns the association of wt-tree that has the least key under the tree’s ordering relation. wt-tree/min returns the least key, wt-tree/min-datum returns the datum associated with the least key and wt-tree/min-pair returns a new pair (key . datum) which is the cons of the minimum key and its datum. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in the tree.

These operations signal an error if the tree is empty. They could have been written

(define (wt-tree/min tree)
  (wt-tree/index tree 0))

(define (wt-tree/min-datum tree)
  (wt-tree/index-datum tree 0))

(define (wt-tree/min-pair tree)
  (wt-tree/index-pair tree 0))

wt-tree/delete-min wt-tree

Returns a new tree containing all of the associations in wt-tree except the association with the least key under the wt-tree’s ordering relation. An error is signalled if the tree is empty. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in the tree. This operation is equivalent to

(wt-tree/delete wt-tree (wt-tree/min wt-tree))

wt-tree/delete-min! wt-tree

Removes the association with the least key under the wt-tree’s ordering relation. An error is signalled if the tree is empty. The average and worst-case times required by this operation are proportional to the logarithm of the number of associations in the tree. This operation is equivalent to

(wt-tree/delete! wt-tree (wt-tree/min wt-tree))
Chapter 12: Procedures

12 Procedures

Procedures are created by evaluating lambda expressions (see Section 2.1 [Lambda Expressions], page 15); the lambda may either be explicit or may be implicit as in a “procedure define” (see Section 2.4 [Definitions], page 20). Also there are special built-in procedures, called primitive procedures, such as car; these procedures are not written in Scheme but in the language used to implement the Scheme system. MIT/GNU Scheme also provides application hooks, which support the construction of data structures that act like procedures.

In MIT/GNU Scheme, the written representation of a procedure tells you the type of the procedure (compiled, interpreted, or primitive):

- pp
  \[ \Rightarrow \,[\text{compiled-procedure 56 ("pp" #x2)} \#x10 \#x307578] \]
- (lambda (x) x)
  \[ \Rightarrow \,[\text{compound-procedure 57}] \]
- (define (foo x) x)
  foo
  \[ \Rightarrow \,[\text{compound-procedure 58 foo}] \]
- car
  \[ \Rightarrow \,[\text{primitive-procedure car}] \]
- (call-with-current-continuation (lambda (x) x))
  \[ \Rightarrow \,[\text{continuation 59}] \]

Note that interpreted procedures are called “compound” procedures (strictly speaking, compiled procedures are also compound procedures). The written representation makes this distinction for historical reasons, and may eventually change.

12.1 Procedure Operations

apply procedure object object ...

Calls procedure with the elements of the following list as arguments:

\[ (\text{cons* object object ...}) \]

The initial objects may be any objects, but the last object (there must be at least one object) must be a list.

- (apply + (list 3 4 5 6)) \[ \Rightarrow \,18 \]
- (apply + 3 4 '(5 6)) \[ \Rightarrow \,18 \]

(define compose
  (lambda (f g)
    (lambda args
      (f (apply g args)))))

((compose sqrt *) 12 75) \[ \Rightarrow \,30 \]

procedure? object

Returns #t if object is a procedure; otherwise returns #f. If #t is returned, exactly one of the following predicates is satisfied by object: compiled-procedure?, compound-procedure?, or primitive-procedure?.
\textbf{compiled-procedure?} \textit{object} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns \#t if \textit{object} is a compiled procedure; otherwise returns \#f.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{compound-procedure?} \textit{object} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns \#t if \textit{object} is a compound (i.e. interpreted) procedure; otherwise returns \#f.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{primitive-procedure?} \textit{object} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns \#t if \textit{object} is a primitive procedure; otherwise returns \#f.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{procedure-environment} \textit{procedure} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns the closing environment of \textit{procedure}. Signals an error if \textit{procedure} is a primitive procedure, or if \textit{procedure} is a compiled procedure for which the debugging information is unavailable.
\end{enumerate}

\section*{12.2 Arity}

Each procedure has an \textit{arity}, which is the minimum and (optionally) maximum number of arguments that it will accept. MIT/GNU Scheme provides an abstraction that represents \textit{arity}, and tests for the apparent \textit{arity} of a procedure.

\textit{Arity} objects come in two forms: the simple form, an exact non-negative integer, represents a fixed number of arguments. The general form is a pair whose \textit{car} represents the minimum number of arguments and whose \textit{cdr} is the maximum number of arguments.

\textbf{make-procedure-arity} \textit{min} \texttt{[max \texttt{[simple-ok?]}}] \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns an \textit{arity} object made from \textit{min} and \textit{max}. \textit{Min} must be an exact non-negative integer. Max must be an exact non-negative integer at least as large as \textit{min}. Alternatively, \textit{max} may be omitted or given as \texttt{\#f}, which represents an \textit{arity} with no upper bound.
\item If \textit{simple-ok?} is true, the returned \textit{arity} is in the simple form (an exact non-negative integer) when possible, and otherwise is always in the general form. \textit{Simple-ok?} defaults to \texttt{\#f}.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{procedure-arity?} \textit{object} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Returns \texttt{\#t} if \textit{object} is an \textit{arity} object, and \texttt{\#f} otherwise.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{guarantee-procedure-arity} \textit{object} \textit{caller} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Signals an error if \textit{object} is not an \textit{arity} object. \textit{Caller} is a symbol that is printed as part of the error message and is intended to be the name of the procedure where the error occurs.
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{procedure-arity-min} \textit{arity} \hspace{2cm} \text{[procedure]}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Return the lower and upper bounds of \textit{arity}, respectively.
\end{enumerate}

The following procedures test for the apparent \textit{arity} of a procedure. The results of the test may be less restrictive than the effect of calling the procedure. In other words, these procedures may indicate that the procedure will accept a given number of arguments, but if you call the procedure it may signal a \texttt{condition-type:wrong-number-of-arguments} error. For example, here is a procedure that appears to accept any number of arguments, but when called will signal an error if the number of arguments is not one:

\begin{verbatim}
(lambda arguments (apply car arguments))
\end{verbatim}
procedure-arity procedure

Returns the arity that procedure accepts. The result may be in either simple or
general form.

(procedure-arity (lambda () 3)) ⇒ (0 . 0)
(procedure-arity (lambda (x) x)) ⇒ (1 . 1)
(procedure-arity car) ⇒ (1 . 1)
(procedure-arity (lambda x x)) ⇒ (0 . #f)
(procedure-arity (lambda (x . y) x)) ⇒ (1 . #f)
(procedure-arity (lambda (x #!optional y) x)) ⇒ (1 . 2)

procedure-arity-valid? procedure arity

Returns ‘#t’ if procedure accepts arity, and ‘#f’ otherwise.

procedure-of-arity? object arity

Returns ‘#t’ if object is a procedure that accepts arity, and ‘#f’ otherwise. Equivalent
to:

(and (procedure? object)
     (procedure-arity-valid? object arity))

guarantee-procedure-of-arity object arity caller

Signals an error if object is not a procedure accepting arity. Caller is a symbol that is
printed as part of the error message and is intended to be the name of the procedure
where the error occurs.

thunk? object

Returns ‘#t’ if object is a procedure that accepts zero arguments, and ‘#f’ otherwise. Equivalent
to:

(procedure-of-arity? object 0)

guarantee-thunk object caller

Signals an error if object is not a procedure accepting zero arguments. Caller is a
symbol that is printed as part of the error message and is intended to be the name of the procedure
where the error occurs.

12.3 Primitive Procedures

make-primitive-procedure name [arity]

Name must be a symbol. Arity must be an exact non-negative integer, -1, #f, or #t;
if not supplied it defaults to #f. Returns the primitive procedure called name. May
perform further actions depending on arity:

#f If the primitive procedure is not implemented, signals an error.
#t If the primitive procedure is not implemented, returns #f.
integer If the primitive procedure is implemented, signals an error if its arity
is not equal to arity. If the primitive procedure is not implemented,
returns an unimplemented primitive procedure object that accepts arity
arguments. An arity of -1 means it accepts any number of arguments.
**primitive-procedure-name** `primitive-procedure` [procedure]

Returns the name of `primitive-procedure`, a symbol.

```
(primitive-procedure-name car) ⇒ car
```

**implemented-primitive-procedure?** `primitive-procedure` [procedure]

Returns `#t` if `primitive-procedure` is implemented; otherwise returns `#f`. Useful because the code that implements a particular primitive procedure is not necessarily linked into the executable Scheme program.

### 12.4 Continuations

**call-with-current-continuation** `procedure` [procedure]

*Procedure* must be a procedure of one argument. Packages up the current continuation (see below) as an escape procedure and passes it as an argument to procedure. The escape procedure is a Scheme procedure of one argument that, if it is later passed a value, will ignore whatever continuation is in effect at that later time and will give the value instead to the continuation that was in effect when the escape procedure was created. The escape procedure created by `call-with-current-continuation` has unlimited extent just like any other procedure in Scheme. It may be stored in variables or data structures and may be called as many times as desired.

The following examples show only the most common uses of this procedure. If all real programs were as simple as these examples, there would be no need for a procedure with the power of `call-with-current-continuation`.

```
(call-with-current-continuation
 (lambda (exit)
    (for-each (lambda (x)
              (if (negative? x)
                 (exit x)))
             '(54 0 37 -3 245 19))
    #t)) ⇒ -3
```

```
(define list-length
 (lambda (lst)
    (call-with-current-continuation
     (lambda (return)
         (letrec ((r
                     (lambda (obj)
                        (cond ((null? obj) 0)
                              ((pair? obj) (+ (r (cdr obj)) 1))
                              (else (return #f))))))
           (r lst))))
    (list-length '(1 2 3 4)) ⇒ 4
    (list-length '(a b . c)) ⇒ #f
```

A common use of `call-with-current-continuation` is for structured, non-local exits from loops or procedure bodies, but in fact `call-with-current-continuation` is quite useful for implementing a wide variety of advanced control structures.
Whenever a Scheme expression is evaluated a continuation exists that wants the result of the expression. The continuation represents an entire (default) future for the computation. If the expression is evaluated at top level, for example, the continuation will take the result, print it on the screen, prompt for the next input, evaluate it, and so on forever. Most of the time the continuation includes actions specified by user code, as in a continuation that will take the result, multiply it by the value stored in a local variable, add seven, and give the answer to the top-level continuation to be printed. Normally these ubiquitous continuations are hidden behind the scenes and programmers don’t think much about them. On the rare occasions that you may need to deal explicitly with continuations, \texttt{call-with-current-continuation} lets you do so by creating a procedure that acts just like the current continuation.

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{continuation? object} \hfill [procedure]
\item Returns \texttt{#t} if \texttt{object} is a continuation; otherwise returns \texttt{#f}.
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{within-continuation continuation thunk} \hfill [procedure]
\item \texttt{Thunk} must be a procedure of no arguments. Conceptually,
\item \texttt{within-continuation} invokes \texttt{continuation} on the result of invoking \texttt{thunk}, but \texttt{thunk} is executed in the dynamic context of \texttt{continuation}. In other words, the “current” continuation is abandoned before \texttt{thunk} is invoked.
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{dynamic-wind before thunk after} \hfill [procedure]
\item Calls \texttt{thunk} without arguments, returning the result(s) of this call. \texttt{Before} and \texttt{after} are called, also without arguments, as required by the following rules (note that in the absence of calls to continuations captured using \texttt{call-with-current-continuation} the three arguments are called once each, in order). \texttt{Before} is called whenever execution enters the dynamic extent of the call to \texttt{thunk} and \texttt{after} is called whenever it exits that dynamic extent. The dynamic extent of a procedure call is the period between when the call is initiated and when it returns. In Scheme, because of \texttt{call-with-current-continuation}, the dynamic extent of a call may not be a single, connected time period. It is defined as follows:
\begin{itemize}
\item The dynamic extent is entered when execution of the body of the called procedure begins.
\item The dynamic extent is also entered when execution is not within the dynamic extent and a continuation is invoked that was captured (using \texttt{call-with-current-continuation}) during the dynamic extent.
\item It is exited when the called procedure returns.
\item It is also exited when execution is within the dynamic extent and a continuation is invoked that was captured while not within the dynamic extent.
\end{itemize}
\item If a second call to \texttt{dynamic-wind} occurs within the dynamic extent of the call to \texttt{thunk} and then a continuation is invoked in such a way that the \texttt{afters} from these two invocations of \texttt{dynamic-wind} are both to be called, then the \texttt{after} associated with the second (inner) call to \texttt{dynamic-wind} is called first.
\item If a second call to \texttt{dynamic-wind} occurs within the dynamic extent of the call to \texttt{thunk} and then a continuation is invoked in such a way that the \texttt{before}s from these two invocations of \texttt{dynamic-wind} are both to be called, then the \texttt{before} associated with the first (outer) call to \texttt{dynamic-wind} is called first.
\end{itemize}
If invoking a continuation requires calling the \textit{before} from one call to \texttt{dynamic-wind} and the \textit{after} from another, then the \textit{after} is called first.

The effect of using a captured continuation to enter or exit the dynamic extent of a call to \texttt{before} or \texttt{after} is undefined.

\begin{verbatim}
(let ((path '())
     (c #f))
  (let ((add (lambda (s)
                (set! path (cons s path))))
        (lambda () (add 'connect))
        (lambda ()
                 (add (call-with-current-continuation
                        (lambda (c0)
                             (set! c c0)
                             'talk1)))))
    (lambda () (add 'disconnect)))
  (if (< (length path) 4)
      (c 'talk2)
      (reverse path))))
\end{verbatim}

⇒ (connect talk1 disconnect connect talk2 disconnect)

The following two procedures support multiple values.

\begin{description}
  \item[\texttt{call-with-values} \texttt{thunk procedure}] [procedure]
    \texttt{Thunk} must be a procedure of no arguments, and \texttt{procedure} must be a procedure. \texttt{Thunk} is invoked with a continuation that expects to receive multiple values; specifically, the continuation expects to receive the same number of values that \texttt{procedure} accepts as arguments. \texttt{Thunk} must return multiple values using the \texttt{values} procedure. Then \texttt{procedure} is called with the multiple values as its arguments. The result yielded by \texttt{procedure} is returned as the result of \texttt{call-with-values}.
  \item[\texttt{values} object \ldots] [procedure]
    Returns multiple values. The continuation in effect when this procedure is called must be a multiple-value continuation that was created by \texttt{call-with-values}. Furthermore it must accept as many values as there are objects.
\end{description}

12.5 Application Hooks

\textit{Application hooks} are objects that can be applied like procedures. Each application hook has two parts: a \texttt{procedure} that specifies what to do when the application hook is applied, and an arbitrary object, called \textit{extra}. Often the procedure uses the extra object to determine what to do.

There are two kinds of application hooks, which differ in what arguments are passed to the procedure. When an \texttt{apply hook} is applied, the procedure is passed exactly the same arguments that were passed to the apply hook. When an \texttt{entity} is applied, the entity itself is passed as the first argument, followed by the other arguments that were passed to the entity.
Both apply hooks and entities satisfy the predicate `procedure?`. Each satisfies either `compiled-procedure?`, `compound-procedure?`, or `primitive-procedure?`, depending on its procedure component. An apply hook is considered to accept the same number of arguments as its procedure, while an entity is considered to accept one less argument than its procedure.

```scheme
(make-apply-hook procedure object) -> procedure
Returns a newly allocated apply hook with a procedure component of `procedure` and an extra component of `object`.
```

```scheme
(apply-hook? object) -> #t or #f
Returns #t if `object` is an apply hook; otherwise returns #f.
```

```scheme
(apply-hook-procedure apply-hook) -> procedure
Returns the procedure component of `apply-hook`.
```

```scheme
(set-apply-hook-procedure! apply-hook procedure) -> unspecified
Changes the procedure component of `apply-hook` to be `procedure`. Returns an unspecified value.
```

```scheme
(make-entity procedure object) -> procedure
Returns a newly allocated entity with a procedure component of `procedure` and an extra component of `object`.
```

```scheme
(entity? object) -> #t or #f
Returns #t if `object` is an entity; otherwise returns #f.
```

```scheme
(entity-procedure entity) -> procedure
Returns the procedure component of `entity`.
```

```scheme
(set-entity-procedure! entity procedure) -> unspecified
Changes the procedure component of `entity` to be `procedure`. Returns an unspecified value.
```

```scheme
(entity-extra entity) -> unspecified
Returns the extra component of `entity`.
```

```scheme
(set-entity-extra! entity object) -> unspecified
Changes the extra component of `entity` to be `object`. Returns an unspecified value.
```
12.6 Generic Dispatch

MIT/GNU Scheme provides a generic dispatch mechanism that can choose an action to take based on the types of a set of objects. Performance is guaranteed by the use of a hash-based method cache.

This is not an object-oriented programming system, although it can provide the basis for such systems. The difference is that the generic dispatch doesn’t have any model for the relationship between object types. Instead, there is a flat space of types and methods are selected by procedural examination of the given operand types.

12.6.1 Generic Procedures

The core of the dispatch mechanism is the generic procedure. This is a procedure that is called in the usual way, but which dispatches to a particular method based on the types of its arguments.

```
(make-generic-procedure arity [name])
```

Returns a new generic procedure accepting arity. Arity must specify a minimum of one argument.

Name is used for debugging: it is a symbol that has no role in the semantics of the generic procedure. Name may be #f to indicate that the generic procedure is anonymous. If name is not specified, it defaults to '#f'.

Examples:

```
(define foo-bar (make-generic-procedure 2 'bar))
```

```
(define foo-baz (make-generic-procedure '(1 . 2) 'foo-baz))
```

```
(define foo-mum (make-generic-procedure '(1 . #f)))
```

```
generic-procedure? object
```

Returns '#t' if object is a generic procedure, and '#f' otherwise.

```
guarantee-generic-procedure object caller
```

Signals an error if object is not a generic procedure. Caller is a symbol that is printed as part of the error message and is intended to be the name of the procedure where the error occurs.

```
generic-procedure-arity generic
```

Returns the arity of generic, as given to make-generic-procedure.

```
generic-procedure-name generic
```

Returns the name of generic, as given to make-generic-procedure.

```
generic-procedure-applicable? generic operands
```

Returns '#t' if generic is applicable to operands (which must be a list of objects), and '#f' otherwise.

```
condition-type:no-applicable-methods operator operands
```

This condition type is signalled when a generic procedure is applied and there are no applicable methods for the given operands. The condition’s operator field contains the generic procedure and the operands field contains the given operands.
condition-type: extra-applicable-methods operator operands

This condition type is signalled when a generic procedure is applied and there are more than one applicable methods for the given operands. The condition’s operator field contains the generic procedure and the operands field contains the given operands.

12.6.2 Method Generators

Generic-procedure methods are dynamically chosen by generators, which are procedures of two arguments. Each generic procedure has a set of associated generators. Whenever the procedure is applied, each associated generator is applied to two arguments: the generic procedure and a list of the dispatch tags for the operands. The return value from the generator is either a method (a procedure accepting that number of arguments) or ‘#f’. In order for the application to succeed, exactly one of the generic procedure’s generators must return a method.

Once a method has been chosen, it is cached. A subsequent call to the generic procedure with operands of the same types will reuse that cached method. Consequently, it is important that generators be functional: they must always compute the same value from the same arguments.

add-generic-procedure-generator generic generator

Adds generator to generic’s set of generators and returns an unspecified value.

remove-generic-procedure-generator generic generator

Removes generator from generic’s set of generators and returns an unspecified value.

remove-generic-procedure-generators generic tags

Calls each of generic’s set of generators on tags and removes each generator that returns a method. Returns an unspecified value.

generic-procedure-generator-list generic

Returns a list of generic’s generators.

As a convenience, each generic procedure can have a default generator, which is called only when all of the other generators have returned ‘#f’. When created, a generic procedure has no default generator.

generic-procedure-default-generator generic

Returns generic’s default generator.

set-generic-procedure-default-generator! generic generator

Sets generic’s default generator to generator and returns an unspecified value.

12.6.3 Dispatch Tags

A dispatch tag is an object that represents the “type” of an object, for the purposes of generic dispatch. Every object has an associated dispatch tag. Built-in objects like pairs or booleans have predefined tags, while dynamically typed objects like records have tags that are created as needed.

dispatch-tag object

Returns the dispatch tag for object.
(dispatch-tag #f) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 17 (boolean)]
(dispatch-tag #t) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 17 (boolean)]
(dispatch-tag (list)) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 18 (null)]
(dispatch-tag (list 3)) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 19 (pair list)]

**built-in-dispatch-tag name** [procedure]
Returns the built-in dispatch tag called name. Name must be a symbol that is the name of a known built-in dispatch tag.

(built-in-dispatch-tag 'boolean) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 17 (boolean)]
(built-in-dispatch-tag 'null) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 18 (null)]
(built-in-dispatch-tag 'pair) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 19 (pair list)]
(built-in-dispatch-tag 'list) ⇒ #[dispatch-tag 19 (pair list)]

**built-in-dispatch-tags** [procedure]
Returns a list of the built-in dispatch tags.

**record-type-dispatch-tag record-type** [procedure]
Returns the dispatch tag associate with record-type. See See Section 10.4 [Records], page 138, for more information about record types.

**dispatch-tag? object** [procedure]
Returns ‘#t’ if object is a dispatch tag, and ‘#f’ otherwise.

**guarantee-dispatch-tag object caller** [procedure]
Signals an error if object is not a dispatch tag. Caller is a symbol that is printed as part of the error message and is intended to be the name of the procedure where the error occurs.
13 Environments

13.1 Environment Operations

Environments are first-class objects in MIT/GNU Scheme. An environment consists of some bindings and possibly a parent environment, from which other bindings are inherited. The operations in this section reveal the frame-like structure of environments by permitting you to examine the bindings of a particular environment separately from those of its parent.

There are several types of bindings that can occur in an environment. The most common is the simple variable binding, which associates a value (any Scheme object) with an identifier (a symbol). A variable binding can also be unassigned, which means that it has no value. An unassigned variable is bound, in that is will shadow other bindings of the same name in ancestor environments, but a reference to that variable will signal an error of type condition-type:unassigned-variable. An unassigned variable can be assigned (using set! or environment-assign!) to give it a value.

In addition to variable bindings, an environment can also have keyword bindings. A keyword binding associates a syntactic keyword (usually a macro transformer) with an identifier. Keyword bindings are special in that they are considered “bound”, but ordinary variable references don’t work on them. So an attempt to reference or assign a keyword binding results in an error of type condition-type:macro-binding. However, keyword bindings can be redefined using define or environment-define.

\[
\text{environment? } \text{object} \\
\text{environment-has-parent? } \text{environment} \\
\text{environment-parent } \text{environment} \\
\text{environment-bound-names } \text{environment} \\
\text{environment-macro-names } \text{environment} \\
\text{environment-bindings } \text{environment}
\]

These procedures are defined as follows:

- \text{environment? } \text{object}
  
  Returns \#t if \text{object} is an environment; otherwise returns \#f.

- \text{environment-has-parent? } \text{environment}
  
  Returns \#t if \text{environment} has a parent environment; otherwise returns \#f.

- \text{environment-parent } \text{environment}
  
  Returns the parent environment of \text{environment}. It is an error if \text{environment} has no parent.

- \text{environment-bound-names } \text{environment}
  
  Returns a newly allocated list of the names (symbols) that are bound by \text{environment}. This does not include the names that are bound by the parent environment of \text{environment}. It does include names that are unassigned or keywords in \text{environment}.

- \text{environment-macro-names } \text{environment}
  
  Returns a newly allocated list of the names (symbols) that are bound to syntactic keywords in \text{environment}.

- \text{environment-bindings } \text{environment}
  
  Returns a newly allocated list of the bindings of \text{environment}; does not include the bindings of the parent environment. Each element of this list takes one of two forms: \((\text{symbol})\) indicates that \text{symbol} is bound but unassigned, while \((\text{symbol } \text{object})\) indicates that \text{symbol} is bound, and its value is \text{object}.
environment-reference-type environment symbol

Returns a symbol describing the reference type of symbol in environment or one of its ancestor environments. The result is one of the following:

- **normal**: means symbol is a variable binding with a normal value.
- **unassigned**: means symbol is a variable binding with no value.
- **macro**: means symbol is a keyword binding.
- **unbound**: means symbol has no associated binding.

environment-bound? environment symbol

Returns #t if symbol is bound in environment or one of its ancestor environments; otherwise returns #f. This is equivalent to

```
(not (eq? 'unbound
  (environment-reference-type environment symbol)))
```

environment-assigned? environment symbol

Returns #t if symbol is bound in environment or one of its ancestor environments, and has a normal value. Returns #f if it is bound but unassigned. Signals an error if it is unbound or is bound to a keyword.

environment-lookup environment symbol

Symbol must be bound to a normal value in environment or one of its ancestor environments. Returns the value to which it is bound. Signals an error if unbound, unassigned, or a keyword.

environment-lookup-macro environment symbol

If symbol is a keyword binding in environment or one of its ancestor environments, returns the value of the binding. Otherwise, returns #f. Does not signal any errors other than argument-type errors.

environment-assignable? environment symbol

Symbol must be bound in environment or one of its ancestor environments. Returns #t if the binding may be modified by side effect.

environment-assign! environment symbol object

Symbol must be bound in environment or one of its ancestor environments, and must be assignable. Modifies the binding to have object as its value, and returns an unspecified result.

environment-definable? environment symbol

Returns #t if symbol is definable in environment, and #f otherwise. At present, this is false for environments generated by application of compiled procedures, and true for all other environments.

environment-define environment symbol object

Defines symbol to be bound to object in environment, and returns an unspecified value. Signals an error if symbol isn’t definable in environment.
environment-define-macro  environment symbol transformer  [procedure]
  Defines symbol to be a keyword bound to transformer in environment, and returns an unspecified value. Signals an error if symbol isn’t definable in environment. The type of transformer is defined by the syntax engine and is not checked by this procedure. If the type is incorrect this will subsequently signal an error during syntax expansion.

eval  expression environment  [procedure]
  Evaluates expression, a list-structure representation (sometimes called s-expression representation) of a Scheme expression, in environment. You rarely need eval in ordinary programs; it is useful mostly for evaluating expressions that have been created “on the fly” by a program. eval is relatively expensive because it must convert expression to an internal form before it is executed.

  (define foo (list '+ 1 2))
  (eval foo (the-environment)) ⇒ 3

13.2 Environment Variables

The user-initial-environment is where the top-level read-eval-print (REP) loop evaluates expressions and binds definitions. It is a child of system-global-environment, which is where all of the Scheme system definitions are bound. All of the bindings in system-global-environment are available when the current environment is user-initial-environment. However, any new bindings that you create in the REP loop (with define forms or by loading files containing define forms) occur in user-initial-environment.

system-global-environment  [variable]
  The variable system-global-environment is bound to the distinguished environment that’s the ancestor of most other environments (except for those created by make-root-top-level-environment). It is the parent environment of user-initial-environment. Primitives, system procedures, and most syntactic keywords are bound (and sometimes closed) in this environment.

user-initial-environment  [variable]
  The variable user-initial-environment is bound to the default environment in which typed expressions are evaluated by the top-level REP loop.

Although all bindings in system-global-environment are visible to the REP loop, definitions that are typed at, or loaded by, the REP loop occur in the user-initial-environment. This is partly a safety measure: if you enter a definition that happens to have the same name as a critical system procedure, your definition will be visible only to the procedures you define in the user-initial-environment; the MIT/GNU Scheme system procedures, which are defined in system-global-environment, will continue to see the original definition.

13.3 REPL Environment

nearest-repl/environment  [procedure]
  Returns the current REP loop environment (i.e. the current environment of the closest enclosing REP loop). When Scheme first starts up, this is the same as user-initial-environment.
ge  environment  [procedure]
Changes the current REP loop environment to environment. Environment can be either an environment or a procedure object. If it’s a procedure, the environment in which that procedure was closed is the new environment.

13.4 Top-level Environments

The operations in this section manipulate top-level environments, as opposed to environments created by the application of procedures. For historical reasons, top-level environments are referred to as interpreter environments.

the-environment  [special form]
Returns the current environment. This form may only be evaluated in a top-level environment. An error is signalled if it appears elsewhere.

top-level-environment?  object  [procedure]
interpreter-environment?  object  [procedure]
 Returns #t if object is an top-level environment; otherwise returns #f.

extend-top-level-environment  environment  [names  [values]]  [procedure]
make-top-level-environment  [names  [values]]  [procedure]
make-root-top-level-environment  [names  [values]]  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated top-level environment. extend-top-level-environment creates an environment that has parent environment, make-top-level-environment creates an environment that has parent system-global-environment, and make-root-top-level-environment creates an environment that has no parent.

The optional arguments names and values are used to specify initial bindings in the new environment. If specified, names must be a list of symbols, and values must be a list of objects. If only names is specified, each name in names will be bound in the environment, but unassigned. If names and values are both specified, they must be the same length, and each name in names will be bound to the corresponding value in values. If neither names nor values is specified, the environment will have no initial bindings.

link-variables  environment1  symbol1  environment2  symbol2  [procedure]
Defines symbol1 in environment1 to have the same binding as symbol2 in environment2, and returns an unspecified value. Prior to the call, symbol2 must be bound in environment2, but the type of binding is irrelevant; it may be a normal binding, an unassigned binding, or a keyword binding. Signals an error if symbol1 isn’t definable in environment1, or if symbol2 is unbound in environment2.

By “the same binding”, we mean that the value cell is shared between the two environments. If a value is assigned to symbol1 in environment1, a subsequent reference to symbol2 in environment2 will see that value, and vice versa.

unbind-variable  environment  symbol  [procedure]
If symbol is bound in environment or one of its ancestor environments, removes the binding, so that subsequent accesses to that symbol behave as if the binding never existed. Returns #t if there was a binding prior to the call, and #f if there wasn’t.
14 Input/Output

This chapter describes the procedures that are used for input and output (I/O). The chapter first describes ports and how they are manipulated, then describes the I/O operations. Finally, some low-level procedures are described that permit the implementation of custom ports and high-performance I/O.

14.1 Ports

Scheme uses ports for I/O. A port, which can be treated like any other Scheme object, serves as a source or sink for data. A port must be open before it can be read from or written to. The standard I/O port, console-i/o-port, is opened automatically when you start Scheme. When you use a file for input or output, you need to explicitly open and close a port to the file (with procedures described in this chapter). Additional procedures let you open ports to strings.

Many input procedures, such as read-char and read, read data from the current input port by default, or from a port that you specify. The current input port is initially console-i/o-port, but Scheme provides procedures that let you change the current input port to be a file or string.

Similarly, many output procedures, such as write-char and display, write data to the current output port by default, or to a port that you specify. The current output port is initially console-i/o-port, but Scheme provides procedures that let you change the current output port to be a file or string.

All ports read or write only ISO-8859-1 characters.

Every port is either an input port, an output port, or both. The following predicates distinguish all of the possible cases.

\textbf{port?} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if \textit{object} is a port, otherwise returns \#f.

\textbf{input-port?} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if \textit{object} is an input port, otherwise returns \#f. Any object satisfying this predicate also satisfies port?.

\textbf{output-port?} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if \textit{object} is an output port, otherwise returns \#f. Any object satisfying this predicate also satisfies port?.

\textbf{i/o-port?} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

Returns \#t if \textit{object} is both an input port and an output port, otherwise returns \#f. Any object satisfying this predicate also satisfies port?, input-port?, and output-port?.

\textbf{guarantee-port} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

\textbf{guarantee-input-port} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}

\textbf{guarantee-output-port} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \text{[procedure]}
guarantee-i/o-port object

These procedures check the type of object, signalling an error of type condition-type:wrong-type-argument if it is not a port, input port, output port, or I/O port, respectively. Otherwise they return object.

The next five procedures return the runtime system’s standard ports. All of the standard ports are dynamically bound by the REP loop; this means that when a new REP loop is started, for example by an error, each of these ports is dynamically bound to the I/O port of the REP loop. When the REP loop exits, the ports revert to their original values.

current-input-port

Returns the current input port. This is the default port used by many input procedures. Initially, current-input-port returns the value of console-i/o-port.

current-output-port

Returns the current output port. This is the default port used by many output procedures. Initially, current-output-port returns the value of console-i/o-port.

notification-output-port

Returns an output port suitable for generating “notifications”, that is, messages to the user that supply interesting information about the execution of a program. For example, the load procedure writes messages to this port informing the user that a file is being loaded. Initially, notification-output-port returns the value of console-i/o-port.

trace-output-port

Returns an output port suitable for generating “tracing” information about a program’s execution. The output generated by the trace procedure is sent to this port. Initially, trace-output-port returns the value of console-i/o-port.

interaction-i/o-port

Returns an I/O port suitable for querying or prompting the user. The standard prompting procedures use this port by default (see Section 14.8 [Prompting], page 198). Initially, interaction-i/o-port returns the value of console-i/o-port.

with-input-from-port input-port thunk

with-output-to-port output-port thunk

with-notification-output-port output-port thunk

with-trace-output-port output-port thunk

with-interaction-i/o-port i/o-port thunk

Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. Each of these procedures binds one of the standard ports to its first argument, calls thunk with no arguments, restores the port to its original value, and returns the result that was yielded by thunk. This temporary binding is performed the same way as dynamic binding of a variable, including the behavior in the presence of continuations (see Section 2.3 [Dynamic Binding], page 18).

with-input-from-port binds the current input port, with-output-to-port binds the current output port, with-notification-output-port binds the “notification” output port, with-trace-output-port binds the “trace” output port, and with-interaction-i/o-port binds the “interaction” I/O port.
set-current-input-port! input-port  [procedure]
set-current-output-port! output-port [procedure]
set-notification-output-port! output-port [procedure]
set-trace-output-port! output-port  [procedure]
set-interaction-i/o-port! i/o-port  [procedure]

Each of these procedures alters the binding of one of the standard ports and returns an unspecified value. The binding that is modified corresponds to the name of the procedure.

console-i/o-port  [variable]
console-i/o-port is an I/O port that communicates with the “console”. Under unix, the console is the controlling terminal of the Scheme process. Under Windows, the console is the window that is created when Scheme starts up.

This variable is rarely used; instead programs should use one of the standard ports defined above. This variable should not be modified.

close-port port  [procedure]
Closes port and returns an unspecified value. If port is a file port, the file is closed.

close-input-port port  [procedure]
Closes port and returns an unspecified value. Port must be an input port or an I/O port; if it is an I/O port, then only the input side of the port is closed.

close-output-port port  [procedure]
Closes port and returns an unspecified value. Port must be an output port or an I/O port; if it is an I/O port, then only the output side of the port is closed.

14.2 File Ports

Before Scheme can access a file for reading or writing, it is necessary to open a port to the file. This section describes procedures used to open ports to files. Such ports are closed (like any other port) by close-port. File ports are automatically closed if and when they are reclaimed by the garbage collector.

Before opening a file for input or output, by whatever method, the filename argument is converted to canonical form by calling the procedure merge-pathnames with filename as its sole argument. Thus, filename can be either a string or a pathname, and it is merged with the current pathname defaults to produce the pathname that is then opened.

Any file can be opened in one of two modes, normal or binary. Normal mode is for accessing text files, and binary mode is for accessing other files. Unix does not distinguish these modes, but Windows do: in normal mode, their file ports perform newline translation, mapping between the carriage-return/linefeed sequence that terminates text lines in files, and the \newline that terminates lines in Scheme. In binary mode, such ports do not perform newline translation. Unless otherwise mentioned, the procedures in this section open files in normal mode.

open-input-file filename  [procedure]
Takes a filename referring to an existing file and returns an input port capable of delivering characters from the file. If the file cannot be opened, an error of type condition-type:file-operation-error is signalled.
open-output-file filename [append?]

Takes a filename referring to an output file to be created and returns an output port capable of writing characters to a new file by that name. If the file cannot be opened, an error of type condition-type:file-operation-error is signalled.

The optional argument append? is an MIT/GNU Scheme extension. If append? is given and not #f, the file is opened in append mode. In this mode, the contents of the file are not overwitten; instead any characters written to the file are appended to the end of the existing contents. If the file does not exist, append mode creates the file and writes to it in the normal way.

open-i/o-file filename

Takes a filename referring to an existing file and returns an I/O port capable of both reading and writing the file. If the file cannot be opened, an error of type condition-type:file-operation-error is signalled.

This procedure is often used to open special files. For example, under unix this procedure can be used to open terminal device files, PTY device files, and named pipes.

open-binary-input-file filename
open-binary-output-file filename [append?]
open-binary-i/o-file filename

These procedures open files in binary mode. In all other respects they are identical to open-input-file, open-output-file, and open-i/o-file, respectively.

close-all-open-files

This procedure closes all file ports that are open at the time that it is called, and returns an unspecified value.

call-with-input-file filename procedure

call-with-output-file filename procedure

These procedures call procedure with one argument: the port obtained by opening the named file for input or output, respectively. If the file cannot be opened, an error of type condition-type:file-operation-error is signalled. If procedure returns, then the port is closed automatically and the value yielded by procedure is returned. If procedure does not return, then the port will not be closed automatically unless it is reclaimed by the garbage collector.¹

call-with-binary-input-file filename procedure
call-with-binary-output-file filename procedure

These procedures open files in binary mode. In all other respects they are identical to call-with-input-file and call-with-output-file, respectively.

¹ Because Scheme’s escape procedures have unlimited extent, it is possible to escape from the current continuation but later to escape back in. If implementations were permitted to close the port on any escape from the current continuation, then it would be impossible to write portable code using both call-with-current-continuation and call-with-input-file or call-with-output-file.
with-input-from-file filename thunk
with-output-to-file filename thunk

Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. The file is opened for input or output, an
input or output port connected to it is made the default value returned by current-
input-port or current-output-port, and the thunk is called with no arguments.
When the thunk returns, the port is closed and the previous default is restored. with-
input-from-file and with-output-to-file return the value yielded by thunk. If
an escape procedure is used to escape from the continuation of these procedures, their
behavior is implementation-dependent; in that situation MIT/GNU Scheme leaves the
files open.

with-input-from-binary-file filename thunk
with-output-to-binary-file filename thunk

These procedures open files in binary mode. In all other respects they are identical
to with-input-from-file and with-output-to-file, respectively.

14.3 String Ports

This section describes the simplest kinds of ports: input ports that read their input from
given strings, and output ports that accumulate their output and return it as a string. It
also describes “truncating” output ports, which can limit the length of the resulting string
to a given value.

open-input-string string [start [end]]

Returns a new string port that delivers characters from string. The optional argu-
ments start and end may be used to specify that the string port delivers charac-
ters from a substring of string; if not given, start defaults to 0 and end defaults to
(string-length string).

with-input-from-string string thunk

Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. with-input-from-string creates a
new input port that reads from string, makes that port the current input port, and
calls thunk. When thunk returns, with-input-from-string restores the previous
current input port and returns the result yielded by thunk.

(with-input-from-string "(a b c) (d e f)" read) ⇒ (a b c)

Note: this procedure is equivalent to:

(with-input-from-port (open-input-string string) thunk)

open-output-string
get-output-string

open-output-string returns a new output port that accumulates in a buffer every-
thing that is written to it. The accumulated output can subsequently be obtained by
calling get-output-string on the port.

call-with-output-string procedure

Procedure is called with one argument, an output port. The value yielded by pro-
cedure is ignored. When procedure returns, call-with-output-string returns the
port’s accumulated output as a newly allocated string. This is equivalent to:
(define (call-with-output-string procedure)
  (let ((port (open-output-string)))
    (procedure port)
    (get-output-string port)))

with-output-to-string thunk
[procedure]
Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. with-output-to-string creates a new
output port that accumulates output, makes that port the default value returned by
current-output-port, and calls thunk with no arguments. When thunk returns,
with-output-to-string restores the previous default and returns the accumulated
output as a newly allocated string.

(with-output-to-string
  (lambda ()
    (write 'abc))) ⇒ "abc"

Note: this procedure is equivalent to:

(call-with-output-string
  (lambda (port)
    (with-output-to-port port thunk)))

with-output-to-truncated-string k thunk
[procedure]
Similar to with-output-to-string, except that the output is limited to k characters.
If thunk attempts to write more than k characters, it will be aborted by invoking an
escape procedure that returns from with-output-to-truncated-string.
The value of this procedure is a pair; the car of the pair is #t if thunk attempted
to write more than k characters, and #f otherwise. The cdr of the pair is a newly
allocated string containing the accumulated output.

This procedure is helpful for displaying circular lists, as shown in this example:

(define inf (list 'inf))
(with-output-to-truncated-string 40
  (lambda ()
    (write inf))) ⇒ (#f . "(inf)"
(set-cdr! inf inf)
(with-output-to-truncated-string 40
  (lambda ()
    (write inf))) ⇒ (#t . "(inf inf inf inf inf inf inf inf inf)

write-to-string object [k]
[procedure]
Writes object to a string output port, and returns the resulting newly allocated string.
If k is supplied and not #f, this procedure is equivalent to

(with-output-to-truncated-string k
  (lambda ()
    (write object)))
otherwise it is equivalent to

(with-output-to-string
  (lambda ()
    (write object)))
14.4 Input Procedures

This section describes the procedures that read input. Input procedures can read either from the current input port or from a given port. Remember that to read from a file, you must first open a port to the file.

Input ports can be divided into two types, called interactive and non-interactive. Interactive input ports are ports that read input from a source that is time-dependent; for example, a port that reads input from a terminal or from another program. Non-interactive input ports read input from a time-independent source, such as an ordinary file or a character string.

All optional arguments called input-port, if not supplied, default to the current input port.

**read-char [input-port]**

Returns the next character available from input-port, updating input-port to point to the following character. If no more characters are available, an end-of-file object is returned.

In MIT/GNU Scheme, if input-port is an interactive input port and no characters are immediately available, read-char will hang waiting for input, even if the port is in non-blocking mode.

**peek-char [input-port]**

Returns the next character available from input-port, without updating input-port to point to the following character. If no more characters are available, an end-of-file object is returned.\(^2\)

In MIT/GNU Scheme, if input-port is an interactive input port and no characters are immediately available, peek-char will hang waiting for input, even if the port is in non-blocking mode.

**char-ready? [input-port]**

Returns #t if a character is ready on input-port and returns #f otherwise. If char-ready? returns #t then the next read-char operation on input-port is guaranteed not to hang. If input-port is a file port at end of file then char-ready? returns #t.\(^3\)

**read [input-port [environment]]**

Converts external representations of Scheme objects into the objects themselves. read returns the next object parsable from input-port, updating input-port to point to the first character past the end of the written representation of the object. If an end of file is encountered in the input before any characters are found that can begin

---

\(^2\) The value returned by a call to peek-char is the same as the value that would have been returned by a call to read-char on the same port. The only difference is that the very next call to read-char or peek-char on that input-port will return the value returned by the preceding call to peek-char. In particular, a call to peek-char on an interactive port will hang waiting for input whenever a call to read-char would have hung.

\(^3\) char-ready? exists to make it possible for a program to accept characters from interactive ports without getting stuck waiting for input. Any input editors associated with such ports must make sure that characters whose existence has been asserted by char-ready? cannot be rubbed out. If char-ready? were to return #f at end of file, a port at end of file would be indistinguishable from an interactive port that has no ready characters.
an object, \texttt{read} returns an end-of-file object. The \textit{input-port} remains open, and
further attempts to read will also return an end-of-file object. If an end of file is
encountered after the beginning of an object’s written representation, but the written
representation is incomplete and therefore not parsable, an error is signalled.

\textit{Environment} is used to look up the values of control variables such as
‘\texttt{*parser-radix*}’. If not supplied, it defaults to the REP environment.

\begin{description}
\item[\texttt{eof-object? object}] [procedure]
\end{description}

\texttt{eof-object? object} returns \texttt{#t} if \texttt{object} is an end-of-file object; otherwise returns \texttt{#f}.

\begin{description}
\item[\texttt{read-char-no-hang [input-port]}] [procedure]
\end{description}

\texttt{read-char-no-hang [input-port]} If \texttt{input-port} can deliver a character without blocking, this procedure acts exactly like
\texttt{read-char}, immediately returning that character. Otherwise, \texttt{#f} is returned, unless
\texttt{input-port} is a file port at end of file, in which case an end-of-file object is returned.
In no case will this procedure block waiting for input.

\begin{description}
\item[\texttt{read-string char-set [input-port]}] [procedure]
\end{description}

\texttt{read-string char-set [input-port]} Reads characters from \texttt{input-port} until it finds a terminating character that is a
member of \texttt{char-set} (see Section 5.6 \textit{[Character Sets]}, page 84) or encounters end of
file. The port is updated to point to the terminating character, or to end of file if
no terminating character was found. \texttt{read-string} returns the characters, up to but
excluding the terminating character, as a newly allocated string.
This procedure ignores the blocking mode of the port, blocking unconditionally until it
sees either a delimiter or end of file. If end of file is encountered before any characters
are read, an end-of-file object is returned.
On many input ports, this operation is significantly faster than the following equiva-
lent code using \texttt{peek-char} and \texttt{read-char}:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (read-string char-set input-port)
  (let ((char (peek-char input-port)))
    (if (eof-object? char)
      char
      (list->string
        (let loop ((char char))
          (if (or (eof-object? char)
                  (char-set-member? char-set char))
          ',())
          (begin
          (read-char input-port)
          (cons char
          (loop (peek-char input-port))))))))
\end{verbatim}

\begin{description}
\item[\texttt{read-line [input-port]}] [procedure]
\end{description}

\texttt{read-line} reads a single line of text from \texttt{input-port}, and returns that line as a newly
allocated string. The \texttt{\textbackslash newline} terminating the line, if any, is discarded and does
not appear in the returned string.
This procedure ignores the blocking mode of the port, blocking unconditionally until
it has read an entire line. If end of file is encountered before any characters are read,
an end-of-file object is returned.
read-string!  string [input-port]  [procedure]
read-substring! string start end [input-port]  [procedure]

read-string! and read-substring! fill the specified region of string with characters read from input-port until the region is full or else there are no more characters available from the port. For read-string!, the region is all of string, and for read-substring!, the region is that part of string specified by start and end.

The returned value is the number of characters filled into the region. However, there are several interesting cases to consider:

- If read-string! (read-substring!) is called when input-port is at “end-of-file”, then the returned value is 0. Note that “end-of-file” can mean a file port that is at the file’s end, a string port that is at the string’s end, or any other port that will never produce more characters.

- If input-port is an interactive port (e.g. a terminal), and one or more characters are immediately available, the region is filled using the available characters. The procedure then returns immediately, without waiting for further characters, even if the number of available characters is less than the size of the region. The returned value is the number of characters actually filled in.

- If input-port is an interactive port and no characters are immediately available, the result of the operation depends on the blocking mode of the port. If the port is in non-blocking mode, read-string! (read-substring!) immediately returns the value #f. Otherwise, the operation blocks until a character is available. As soon as at least one character is available, the region is filled using the available characters. The procedure then returns immediately, without waiting for further characters, even if the number of available characters is less than the size of the region. The returned value is the number of characters actually filled in.

The importance of read-string! and read-substring! are that they are both flexible and extremely fast, especially for large amounts of data.

The following variables may be bound or assigned to change the behavior of the read procedure. They are looked up in the environment that is passed to read, and so may have different values in different environments. It is recommended that the global bindings of these variables be left unchanged; make local changes by shadowing the global bindings in nested environments.

*parser-radix*  [variable]

This variable defines the radix used by the reader when it parses numbers. This is similar to passing a radix argument to string->number. The value of this variable must be one of 2, 8, 10, or 16; any other value is ignored, and the reader uses radix 10.

Note that much of the number syntax is invalid for radices other than 10. The reader detects cases where such invalid syntax is used and signals an error. However, problems can still occur when *parser-radix* is set to 16, because syntax that normally denotes symbols can now denote numbers (e.g. abc). Because of this, it is usually undesirable to set this variable to anything other than the default.

The default value of this variable is 10.
*parser-canonicalize-symbols?*  [variable]
This variable controls how the parser handles case-sensitivity of symbols. If it is bound to its default value of \#t, symbols read by the parser are converted to lower case before being interned. Otherwise, symbols are interned without case conversion.
In general, it is a bad idea to use this feature, as it doesn’t really make Scheme case-sensitive, and therefore can break features of the Scheme runtime that depend on case-insensitive symbols.

14.5 Output Procedures
Output ports may or may not support buffering of output, in which output characters are collected together in a buffer and then sent to the output device all at once. (Most of the output ports implemented by the runtime system support buffering.) Sending all of the characters in the buffer to the output device is called flushing the buffer. In general, output procedures do not flush the buffer of an output port unless the buffer is full.

However, the standard output procedures described in this section perform what is called discretionary flushing of the buffer. Discretionary output flushing works as follows. After a procedure performs its output (writing characters to the output buffer), it checks to see if the port implements an operation called discretionary-flush-output. If so, then that operation is invoked to flush the buffer. At present, only the console port defines discretionary-flush-output; this is used to guarantee that output to the console appears immediately after it is written, without requiring calls to flush-output.

All optional arguments called output-port, if not supplied, default to the current output port.

**write-char** char [output-port]  [procedure]
Writes char (the character itself, not a written representation of the character) to output-port, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value.

**write-string** string [output-port]  [procedure]
Writes string to output-port, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value. This is equivalent to writing the contents of string, one character at a time using write-char, except that it is usually much faster.

**write-substring** string start end [output-port]  [procedure]
Writes the substring defined by string, start, and end to output-port, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value. This is equivalent to writing the contents of the substring, one character at a time using write-char, except that it is usually much faster.

**write** object [output-port]  [procedure]
Writes a written representation of object to output-port, and returns an unspecified value. If object has a standard external representation, then the written representation generated by write shall be parsable by read into an equivalent object. Thus strings that appear in the written representation are enclosed in doublequotes, and within those strings backslash and doublequote are escaped by backslashes. write performs discretionary output flushing and returns an unspecified value.
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**display** *object [output-port]*  
[procedure]  
Writes a representation of *object* to *output-port*. Strings appear in the written representation as if written by **write-string** instead of by **write**. Character objects appear in the representation as if written by **write-char** instead of by **write**. **display** performs discretionary output flushing and returns an unspecified value.\(^4\)

**newline** *output-port*  
[procedure]  
Writes an end-of-line to *output-port*, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value. Equivalent to (**write-char #\newline output-port**).

**fresh-line** *output-port*  
[procedure]  
Most output ports are able to tell whether or not they are at the beginning of a line of output. If *output-port* is such a port, this procedure writes an end-of-line to the port only if the port is not already at the beginning of a line. If *output-port* is not such a port, this procedure is identical to **newline**. In either case, **fresh-line** performs discretionary output flushing and returns an unspecified value.

**write-line** *object [output-port]*  
[procedure]  
Like **write**, except that it writes an end-of-line to *output-port* after writing *object*’s representation. This procedure performs discretionary output flushing and returns an unspecified value.

**flush-output** *output-port*  
[procedure]  
If *output-port* is buffered, this causes the contents of its buffer to be written to the output device. Otherwise it has no effect. Returns an unspecified value.

**beep** *output-port*  
[procedure]  
Performs a “beep” operation on *output-port*, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value. On the console port, this usually causes the console bell to beep, but more sophisticated interactive ports may take other actions, such as flashing the screen. On most output ports, e.g. file and string output ports, this does nothing.

**clear** *output-port*  
[procedure]  
“Clears the screen” of *output-port*, performs discretionary output flushing, and returns an unspecified value. On a terminal or window, this has a well-defined effect. On other output ports, e.g. file and string output ports, this does nothing.

**pp** *object [output-port [as-code?]]*  
[procedure]  
**pp** prints *object* in a visually appealing and structurally revealing manner on *output-port*. If *object* is a procedure, **pp** attempts to print the source text. If the optional argument *as-code?* is true, **pp** prints lists as Scheme code, providing appropriate indentation; by default this argument is false. **pp** performs discretionary output flushing and returns an unspecified value.

The following variables may be dynamically bound to change the behavior of the **write** and **display** procedures.

\(^4\) **write** is intended for producing machine-readable output and **display** is for producing human-readable output.
*unparser-radix*  
This variable specifies the default radix used to print numbers. Its value must be one of the exact integers 2, 8, 10, or 16; the default is 10. If *unparser-radix* is not 10, numbers are prefixed to indicate their radix.

*unparser-list-breadth-limit*  
This variable specifies a limit on the length of the printed representation of a list or vector; for example, if the limit is 4, only the first four elements of any list are printed, followed by ellipses to indicate any additional elements. The value of this variable must be an exact non-negative integer, or #f meaning no limit; the default is #f.

```
(fluid-let ((*unparser-list-breadth-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string '(a b c d)))
⇒ "(a b c d)"
(fluid-let ((*unparser-list-breadth-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string '(a b c d e)))
⇒ "(a b c d ...)"
```

*unparser-list-depth-limit*  
This variable specifies a limit on the nesting of lists and vectors in the printed representation. If lists (or vectors) are more deeply nested than the limit, the part of the representation that exceeds the limit is replaced by ellipses. The value of this variable must be an exact non-negative integer, or #f meaning no limit; the default is #f.

```
(fluid-let ((*unparser-list-depth-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string '((((a))) b c d)))
⇒ "((((a))) b c d)"
(fluid-let ((*unparser-list-depth-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string '((((a))) b c d)))
⇒ "((((...))) b c d)"
```

*unparser-string-length-limit*  
This variable specifies a limit on the length of the printed representation of strings. If a string's length exceeds this limit, the part of the printed representation for the characters exceeding the limit is replaced by ellipses. The value of this variable must be an exact non-negative integer, or #f meaning no limit; the default is #f.

```
(fluid-let ((*unparser-string-length-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string "abcd"))
⇒ "\abcd"
(fluid-let ((*unparser-string-length-limit* 4))
  (write-to-string "abcde"))
⇒ "\abcd..."
```

*unparse-with-maximum-readability*  
This variable, which takes a boolean value, tells the printer to use a special printed representation for objects that normally print in a form that cannot be recognized by read. These objects are printed using the representation #@[n], where n is the result of calling hash on the object to be printed. The reader recognizes this syntax, calling unhash on n to get back the original object. Note that this printed representation
can only be recognized by the Scheme program in which it was generated, because these hash numbers are different for each invocation of Scheme.

14.6 Format

The procedure format is very useful for producing nicely formatted text, producing good-looking messages, and so on. MIT/GNU Scheme’s implementation of format is similar to that of Common Lisp, except that Common Lisp defines many more directives.\(^5\)

format is a run-time-loadable option. To use it, execute

```
(load-option 'format)
```

once before calling it.

```
format destination control-string argument . . .
```

[procedure]

Writes the characters of control-string to destination, except that a tilde (\~) introduces a format directive. The character after the tilde, possibly preceded by prefix parameters and modifiers, specifies what kind of formatting is desired. Most directives use one or more arguments to create their output; the typical directive puts the next argument into the output, formatted in some special way. It is an error if no argument remains for a directive requiring an argument, but it is not an error if one or more arguments remain unprocessed by a directive.

The output is sent to destination. If destination is \#f, a string is created that contains the output; this string is returned as the value of the call to format. In all other cases format returns an unspecified value. If destination is \#t, the output is sent to the current output port. Otherwise, destination must be an output port, and the output is sent there.

This procedure performs discretionary output flushing (see Section 14.5 [Output Procedures], page 192).

A format directive consists of a tilde (\~), optional prefix parameters separated by commas, optional colon (:) and at-sign (@) modifiers, and a single character indicating what kind of directive this is. The alphabetic case of the directive character is ignored.

The prefix parameters are generally integers, notated as optionally signed decimal numbers. If both the colon and at-sign modifiers are given, they may appear in either order.

In place of a prefix parameter to a directive, you can put the letter ‘V’ (or ‘v’), which takes an argument for use as a parameter to the directive. Normally this should be an exact integer. This feature allows variable-width fields and the like. You can also use the character ‘#’ in place of a parameter; it represents the number of arguments remaining to be processed.

It is an error to give a format directive more parameters than it is described here as accepting. It is also an error to give colon or at-sign modifiers to a directive in a combination not specifically described here as being meaningful.

\~A The next argument, which may be any object, is printed as if by display.

\~mincolA inserts spaces on the right, if necessary, to make the width at

\(^5\) This description of format is adapted from Common Lisp, The Language, second edition, section 22.3.3.
least \texttt{mincol} columns. The \texttt{@} modifier causes the spaces to be inserted on the left rather than the right.

\texttt{~S} \hspace{1cm} The next \texttt{argument}, which may be any object, is printed as if by \texttt{write}.  
\texttt{~mincolS} inserts spaces on the right, if necessary, to make the width at least \texttt{mincol} columns. The \texttt{@} modifier causes the spaces to be inserted on the left rather than the right.

\texttt{~}\hspace{1cm} This outputs a \texttt{\#newline} character. \texttt{~n\%} outputs \texttt{n} newlines. No \texttt{argument} is used. Simply putting a newline in \texttt{control-string} would work, but \texttt{~\%} is often used because it makes the control string look nicer in the middle of a program.

\texttt{~} \hspace{1cm} This outputs a tilde. \texttt{~n\texttt{newline}} outputs \texttt{n} tildes.

\texttt{~newline} \hspace{1cm} Tilde immediately followed by a newline ignores the newline and any following non-newline whitespace characters. With an \texttt{@}, the newline is left in place, but any following whitespace is ignored. This directive is typically used when \texttt{control-string} is too long to fit nicely into one line of the program:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (type-clash-error procedure arg spec actual)
  (format #t "~%Procedure ~S~%requires its %A argument ~
to be of type ~S,~%but it was called with ~
an argument of type ~S.~%"
   procedure arg spec actual)
(type-clash-error 'vector-ref
  "first"
  'integer
  'vector)

prints

Procedure vector-ref
requires its first argument to be of type integer,
but it was called with an argument of type vector.

Note that in this example newlines appear in the output only as specified by the \texttt{~\%} directives; the actual newline characters in the control string are suppressed because each is preceded by a tilde.
\end{verbatim}

\subsection{14.7 Custom Output}

MIT/GNU Scheme provides hooks for specifying that certain kinds of objects have special written representations. There are no restrictions on the written representations, but only a few kinds of objects may have custom representation specified for them, specifically: records (see \textit{Section 10.4 [Records], page 138}), vectors that have special tags in their zeroth elements (see \textit{Chapter 8 [Vectors], page 125}), and pairs that have special tags in their
car fields (see Chapter 7 [Lists], page 109). There is a different procedure for specifying the written representation of each of these types.

\textbf{set-record-type-unparser-method!} \texttt{record-type unparser-method} \hspace{1em} [procedure]

Changes the unparser method of the type represented by \texttt{record-type} to be \texttt{unparser-method}, and returns an unspecified value. Subsequently, when the unparser encounters a record of this type, it will invoke \texttt{unparser-method} to generate the written representation.

\textbf{unparser/set-tagged-vector-method!} \texttt{tag unparser-method} \hspace{1em} [procedure]

Changes the unparser method of the vector type represented by \texttt{tag} to be \texttt{unparser-method}, and returns an unspecified value. Subsequently, when the unparser encounters a vector with \texttt{tag} as its zero-th element, it will invoke \texttt{unparser-method} to generate the written representation.

\textbf{unparser/set-tagged-pair-method!} \texttt{tag unparser-method} \hspace{1em} [procedure]

Changes the unparser method of the pair type represented by \texttt{tag} to be \texttt{unparser-method}, and returns an unspecified value. Subsequently, when the unparser encounters a pair with \texttt{tag} in its car field, it will invoke \texttt{unparser-method} to generate the written representation.

An \textit{unparser method} is a procedure that is invoked with two arguments: an unparser state and an object. An unparser method generates a written representation for the object, writing it to the output port specified by the unparser state. The value yielded by an unparser method is ignored. Note that an unparser state is not an output port, rather it is an object that contains an output port as one of its components. Application programs generally do not construct or examine unparser state objects, but just pass them along.

There are two ways to create an unparser method (which is then registered by one of the above procedures). The first, and easiest, is to use \textbf{standard-unparser-method}. The second is to define your own method using the procedure \textbf{with-current-unparser-state}. We encourage the use of the first method, as it results in a more uniform appearance for objects. Many predefined datatypes, for example procedures and environments, already have this appearance.

\textbf{standard-unparser-method} \texttt{name procedure} \hspace{1em} [procedure]

Returns a standard unparser method. \texttt{Name} may be any object, and is used as the name of the type with which the unparser method is associated; \texttt{name} is usually a symbol. \texttt{Procedure} must be \#f or a procedure of two arguments.

If \texttt{procedure} is \#f, the returned method generates an external representation of this form:

\begin{verbatim}
  #[name hash]
\end{verbatim}

Here \texttt{name} is the external representation of the argument \texttt{name}, as generated by \texttt{write},\textsuperscript{6} and \texttt{hash} is the external representation of an exact non-negative integer unique to the object being printed (specifically, it is the result of calling \texttt{hash} on the object). Subsequently, the expression

\textsuperscript{6} Except that if the argument \texttt{name} is a string, its external representation is generated by \texttt{write-string}.  

is notation for the object. If procedure is supplied, the returned method generates a slightly different external representation:

```
#[name hash output]
```

Here name and hash are as above, and output is the output generated by procedure. The representation is constructed in three stages:

1. The first part of the format (up to output) is written to the output port specified by the unparser state. This is "#[", name, " ", and hash.
2. Procedure is invoked on two arguments: the object and an output port.
3. The closing bracket is written to the output port.

The following procedure is useful for writing more general kinds of unparser methods.

```scheme
with-current-unparser-state unparser-state procedure
```

This procedure calls procedure with one argument, the output port from unparser-state. Additionally, it arranges for the remaining components of unparser-state to be given to the printer when they are needed. The procedure generates some output by writing to the output port using the usual output operations, and the value yielded by procedure is returned from with-current-unparser-state.

The port passed to procedure should only be used within the dynamic extent of procedure.

### 14.8 Prompting

This section describes procedures that prompt the user for input. Why should the programmer use these procedures when it is possible to do prompting using ordinary input and output procedures? One reason is that the prompting procedures are more succinct. However, a second and better reason is that the prompting procedures can be separately customized for each user interface, providing more natural interaction. The interfaces for Edwin and for GNU Emacs have already been customized in this fashion; because Edwin and Emacs are very similar editors, their customizations provide very similar behavior.

Each of these procedure accepts an optional argument called port, which if given must be an I/O port. If not given, this port defaults to the value of (interaction-i/o-port); this is initially the console I/O port.

```scheme
prompt-for-command-expression prompt [port [environment]]
```

Prompts the user for an expression that is to be executed as a command. This is the procedure called by the REP loop to read the user’s expressions.

If prompt is a string, it is used verbatim as the prompt string. Otherwise, it must be a pair whose car is the symbol ‘standard’ and whose cdr is a string; in this case the prompt string is formed by prepending to the string the current REP loop “level number” and a space. Also, a space is appended to the string, unless it already ends in a space or is an empty string.

If environment is given, it is passed as the second argument to read.
The default behavior of this procedure is to print a fresh line, a newline, and the
prompt string; flush the output buffer; then read an object and return it.
Under Edwin and Emacs, before the object is read, the interaction buffer is put into
a mode that allows expressions to be edited and submitted for input using specific
editor commands. The first expression that is submitted is returned as the value of
this procedure.

**prompt-for-command-char** `prompt [port]` [procedure]
Prompts the user for a single character that is to be executed as a command; the
returned character is guaranteed to satisfy `char-graphic?`. If at all possible, the
character is read from the user interface using a mode that reads the character as a
single keystroke; in other words, it should not be necessary for the user to follow the
character with a carriage return or something similar.
This is the procedure called by `debug` and `where` to read the user’s commands.
If `prompt` is a string, it is used verbatim as the prompt string. Otherwise, it must
be a pair whose car is `standard` and whose cdr is a string; in this case the prompt
string is formed by prepending to the string the current REP loop “level number” and
a space. Also, a space is appended to the string, unless it already ends in a space or
is an empty string.
The default behavior of this procedure is to print a fresh line, a newline, and the
prompt string; flush the output buffer; read a character in raw mode, echo that
character, and return it.
Under Edwin and Emacs, instead of reading a character, the interaction buffer is put
into a mode in which graphic characters submit themselves as input. After this mode
change, the first such character submitted is returned as the value of this procedure.

**prompt-for-expression** `prompt [port [environment]]` [procedure]
Prompts the user for an expression.
The prompt string is formed by appending a colon and a space to `prompt`, unless `prompt` already ends in a space or is the null string.
If `environment` is given, it is passed as the second argument to `read`.
The default behavior of this procedure is to print a fresh line, a newline, and the
prompt string; flush the output buffer; then read an object and return it.
Under Edwin and Emacs, the expression is read in the minibuffer.

**prompt-for-evaluated-expression** `prompt [environment [port]]` [procedure]
Prompts the user for an evaluated expression. Calls `prompt-for-expression` to read
an expression, then evaluates the expression using `environment`; if `environment` is not
given, the REP loop environment is used.

**prompt-for-confirmation** `prompt [port]` [procedure]
Prompts the user for confirmation. The result yielded by this procedure is a boolean.
The prompt string is formed by appending the string " (y or n)? " to `prompt`, unless `prompt` already ends in a space or is the null string.
The default behavior of this procedure is to print a fresh line, a newline, and the
prompt string; flush the output buffer; then read a character in raw mode. If the
character is \#\y, \#\Y, or \#\space, the procedure returns \#t; If the character is \#\n, \#\N, or \#\rubout, the procedure returns \#f. Otherwise the prompt is repeated.

Under Edwin or Emacs, the confirmation is read in the minibuffer.

14.9 Port Primitives

This section describes the low-level operations that can be used to build and manipulate I/O ports.

The purpose of these operations is twofold: to allow programmers to construct new kinds of I/O ports, and to provide faster I/O operations than those supplied by the standard high level procedures. The latter is useful because the standard I/O operations provide defaulting and error checking, and sometimes other features, which are often unnecessary. This interface provides the means to bypass such features, thus improving performance.

The abstract model of an I/O port, as implemented here, is a combination of a set of named operations and a state. The state is an arbitrary object, the meaning of which is determined by the operations. The operations are defined by a mapping from names to procedures.

The set of named operations is represented by an object called a port type. A port type is constructed from a set of named operations, and is subsequently used to construct a port. The port type completely specifies the behavior of the port. Port types also support a simple form of inheritance, allowing you to create new ports that are similar to existing ports.

The port operations are divided into two classes:

Standard operations

There is a specific set of standard operations for input ports, and a different set for output ports. Applications can assume that the standard input operations are implemented for all input ports, and likewise the standard output operations are implemented for all output ports.

Custom operations

Some ports support additional operations. For example, ports that implement output to terminals (or windows) may define an operation named y-size that returns the height of the terminal in characters. Because only some ports will implement these operations, programs that use custom operations must test each port for their existence, and be prepared to deal with ports that do not implement them.

14.9.1 Port Types

The procedures in this section provide means for constructing port types with standard and custom operations, and accessing their operations.

\texttt{make-port-type operations port-type} [procedure]

Creates and returns a new port type. Operations must be a list; each element is a list of two elements, the name of the operation (a symbol) and the procedure that implements it. Port-type is either \#f or a port type; if it is a port type, any operations implemented by \texttt{port-type} but not specified in operations will be implemented by the resulting port type.
Operations need not contain definitions for all of the standard operations; the procedure will provide defaults for any standard operations that are not defined. At a minimum, the following operations must be defined: for input ports, read-char and peek-char; for output ports, either write-char or write-substring. I/O ports must supply the minimum operations for both input and output.

If an operation in operations is defined to be #f, then the corresponding operation in port-type is not inherited.

If read-char is defined in operations, then any standard input operations defined in port-type are ignored. Likewise, if write-char or write-substring is defined in operations, then any standard output operations defined in port-type are ignored. This feature allows overriding the standard operations without having to enumerate them.

port-type? object  [procedure]
input-port-type? object  [procedure]
output-port-type? object  [procedure]
i/o-port-type? object  [procedure]

These predicates return #t if object is a port type, input-port type, output-port type, or I/O-port type, respectively. Otherwise, they return #f.

port-type/operations port-type  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated list containing all of the operations implemented by port-type. Each element of the list is a list of two elements — the name and its associated operation.

port-type/operation-names port-type  [procedure]
Returns a newly allocated list whose elements are the names of the operations implemented by port-type.

port-type/operation port-type symbol  [procedure]
Returns the operation named symbol in port-type. If port-type has no such operation, returns #f.

14.9.2 Constructors and Accessors for Ports

The procedures in this section provide means for constructing ports, accessing the type of a port, and manipulating the state of a port.

make-port port-type state  [procedure]
Returns a new port with type port-type and the given state. The port will be an input, output, or I/O port according to port-type.

port/type port  [procedure]
Returns the port type of port.

port/state port  [procedure]
Returns the state component of port.

set-port/state! port object  [procedure]
Changes the state component of port to be object. Returns an unspecified value.
port/operation port symbol
   Equivalent to
   (port-type/operation (port/type port) symbol)

port/operation-names port
   Equivalent to
   (port-type/operation-names (port/type port))

make-eof-object input-port
   Returns an object that satisfies the predicate eof-object?. This is sometimes useful when building input ports.

14.9.3 Input Port Operations

This section describes the standard operations on input ports. Following that, some useful custom operations are described.

read-char input-port
   Removes the next character available from input-port and returns it. If input-port has no more characters and will never have any (e.g. at the end of an input file), this operation returns an end-of-file object. If input-port has no more characters but will eventually have some more (e.g. a terminal where nothing has been typed recently), and it is in non-blocking mode, #f is returned; otherwise the operation hangs until input is available.

peek-char input-port
   Reads the next character available from input-port and returns it. The character is not removed from input-port, and a subsequent attempt to read from the port will get that character again. In other respects this operation behaves like read-char.

char-ready? input-port k
   char-ready? returns #t if at least one character is available to be read from input-port. If no characters are available, the operation waits up to k milliseconds before returning #f, returning immediately if any characters become available while it is waiting.

read-string input-port char-set
   These operations are like read-char, except that they read or discard multiple characters at once. All characters up to, but excluding, the first character in char-set (or end of file) are read from input-port. read-string returns these characters as a newly allocated string, while discard-chars discards them and returns an unspecified value. These operations hang until sufficient input is available, even if input-port is in non-blocking mode. If end of file is encountered before any input characters, read-string returns an end-of-file object.

discard-chars input-port char-set
   These operations are like read-char, except that they read or discard multiple characters at once. All characters up to, but excluding, the first character in char-set (or end of file) are read from input-port. read-string returns these characters as a newly allocated string, while discard-chars discards them and returns an unspecified value. These operations hang until sufficient input is available, even if input-port is in non-blocking mode. If end of file is encountered before any input characters, read-string returns an end-of-file object.

read-substring input-port string start end
   Reads characters from input-port into the substring defined by string, start, and end until either the substring has been filled or there are no more characters available. Returns the number of characters written to the substring.
If *input-port* is an interactive port, and at least one character is immediately available, the available characters are written to the substring and this operation returns immediately. If no characters are available, and *input-port* is in blocking mode, the operation blocks until at least one character is available. Otherwise, the operation returns #f immediately.

This is an extremely fast way to read characters from a port.

```scheme
(input-port/read-char input-port)  ;; [procedure]
(input-port/peek-char input-port)  ;; [procedure]
(input-port/char-ready? input-port k)  ;; [procedure]
(input-port/read-string input-port char-set)  ;; [procedure]
(input-port/discard-chars input-port char-set)  ;; [procedure]
(input-port/read-substring input-port string start end)  ;; [procedure]
```

Each of these procedures invokes the respective operation on *input-port*. For example, the following are equivalent:

```scheme
((input-port/read-char input-port)
  ((port/operation input-port 'read-char) input-port))
```

The following custom operations are implemented for input ports to files, and will also work with some other kinds of input ports:

- **eof?** *input-port*  
  Returns #t if *input-port* is known to be at end of file, otherwise it returns #f.

- **chars-remaining** *input-port*  
  Returns an estimate of the number of characters remaining to be read from *input-port*. This is useful only when *input-port* is a file port in binary mode; in other cases, it returns #f.

- **buffered-input-chars** *input-port*  
  Returns the number of unread characters that are stored in *input-port*’s buffer. This will always be less than or equal to the buffer’s size.

- **input-buffer-size** *input-port*  
  Returns the maximum number of characters that *input-port*’s buffer can hold.

- **set-input-buffer-size** *input-port* size  
  Resizes *input-port*’s buffer so that it can hold at most size characters. Characters in the buffer are discarded. Size must be an exact non-negative integer.

### 14.9.4 Output Port Operations

This section describes the standard operations on output ports. Following that, some useful custom operations are described.

- **write-char** *output-port* char  
  Writes char to *output-port* and returns an unspecified value.

- **write-substring** *output-port* string start end  
  Writes the substring specified by string, start, and end to *output-port* and returns an unspecified value. Equivalent to writing the characters of the substring, one by one, to *output-port*, but is implemented very efficiently.
fresh-line output-port  
Most output ports are able to tell whether or not they are at the beginning of a line of output. If output-port is such a port, end-of-line is written to the port only if the port is not already at the beginning of a line. If output-port is not such a port, an end-of-line is unconditionally written to the port. Returns an unspecified value.

flush-output output-port  
If output-port is buffered, this causes its buffer to be written out. Otherwise it has no effect. Returns an unspecified value.

discretionary-flush-output output-port  
Normally, this operation does nothing. However, ports that support discretionary output flushing implement this operation identically to flush-output.

output-port/write-char output-port char  
(output-port/write-char output-port char)
(output-port/write-substring output-port string start end)
(output-port/fresh-line output-port)
(output-port/flush-output output-port)
(output-port/discretionary-flush-output output-port)
Each of these procedures invokes the respective operation on output-port. For example, the following are equivalent:

(output-port/write-char output-port char)
((port/operation output-port 'write-char) output-port char)

output-port/write-string output-port string  
Writes string to output-port. Equivalent to

(output-port/write-substring output-port string 0 (string-length string))

The following custom operations are generally useful.

buffered-output-chars output-port  
Returns the number of unwritten characters that are stored in output-port’s buffer. This will always be less than or equal to the buffer’s size.

output-buffer-size output-port  
Returns the maximum number of characters that output-port’s buffer can hold.

set-output-buffer-size output-port size  
Resizes output-port’s buffer so that it can hold at most size characters. Characters in the buffer are discarded. Size must be an exact non-negative integer.

x-size output-port  
Returns an exact positive integer that is the width of output-port in characters. If output-port has no natural width, e.g. if it is a file port, #f is returned.
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\textbf{y-size output-port} \quad \text{[operation on output port]}

Returns an exact positive integer that is the height of output-port in characters. If output-port has no natural height, e.g. if it is a file port, \texttt{#f} is returned.

\textbf{output-port/x-size output-port} \quad \text{[procedure]}

This procedure invokes the custom operation whose name is the symbol \texttt{x-size}, if it exists. If the \texttt{x-size} operation is both defined and returns a value other than \texttt{#f}, that value is returned as the result of this procedure. Otherwise, \textbf{output-port/x-size} returns a default value (currently 80).

\texttt{output-port/x-size} is useful for programs that tailor their output to the width of the display (a fairly common practice). If the output device is not a display, such programs normally want some reasonable default width to work with, and this procedure provides exactly that.

\textbf{output-port/y-size output-port} \quad \text{[procedure]}

This procedure invokes the custom operation whose name is the symbol \texttt{y-size}, if it exists. If the \texttt{y-size} operation is defined, the value it returns is returned as the result of this procedure; otherwise, \texttt{#f} is returned.

14.9.5 Blocking Mode

An interactive port is always in one of two modes: \texttt{blocking} or \texttt{non-blocking}. This mode is independent of the terminal mode: each can be changed independent of the other. Furthermore, if it is an interactive I/O port, there are separate blocking modes for input and for output.

If an input port is in blocking mode, attempting to read from it when no input is available will cause Scheme to “block”, i.e. suspend itself, until input is available. If an input port is in non-blocking mode, attempting to read from it when no input is available will cause the reading procedure to return immediately, indicating the lack of input in some way (exactly how this situation is indicated is separately specified for each procedure or operation).

An output port in blocking mode will block if the output device is not ready to accept output. In non-blocking mode it will return immediately after performing as much output as the device will allow (again, each procedure or operation reports this situation in its own way).

Interactive ports are initially in blocking mode; this can be changed at any time with the procedures defined in this section.

These procedures represent blocking mode by the symbol \texttt{blocking}, and non-blocking mode by the symbol \texttt{nonblocking}. An argument called \texttt{mode} must be one of these symbols. A \texttt{port} argument to any of these procedures may be any port, even if that port does not support blocking mode; in that case, the port is not modified in any way.

\textbf{port/input-blocking-mode port} \quad \text{[procedure]}

Returns the input blocking mode of \texttt{port}.

\textbf{port/set-input-blocking-mode port mode} \quad \text{[procedure]}

Changes the input blocking mode of \texttt{port} to be \texttt{mode}. Returns an unspecified value.
port/with-input-blocking-mode port mode thunk

Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. port/with-input-blocking-mode binds the input blocking mode of port to be mode, executes thunk, restores the input blocking mode of port to what it was when port/with-input-blocking-mode was called, and returns the value that was yielded by thunk. This binding is performed by dynamic-wind, which guarantees that the input blocking mode is restored if thunk escapes from its continuation.

port/output-blocking-mode port

Returns the output blocking mode of port.

port/set-output-blocking-mode port mode

Changes the output blocking mode of port to be mode. Returns an unspecified value.

port/with-output-blocking-mode port mode thunk

Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. port/with-output-blocking-mode binds the output blocking mode of port to be mode, executes thunk, restores the output blocking mode of port to what it was when port/with-output-blocking-mode was called, and returns the value that was yielded by thunk. This binding is performed by dynamic-wind, which guarantees that the output blocking mode is restored if thunk escapes from its continuation.

14.9.6 Terminal Mode

A port that reads from or writes to a terminal has a terminal mode; this is either cooked or raw. This mode is independent of the blocking mode: each can be changed independent of the other. Furthermore, a terminal I/O port has independent terminal modes both for input and for output.

A terminal port in cooked mode provides some standard processing to make the terminal easy to communicate with. For example, under unix, cooked mode on input reads from the terminal a line at a time and provides rubout processing within the line, while cooked mode on output might translate linefeeds to carriage-return/linefeed pairs. In general, the precise meaning of cooked mode is operating-system dependent, and furthermore might be customizable by means of operating system utilities. The basic idea is that cooked mode does whatever is necessary to make the terminal handle all of the usual user-interface conventions for the operating system, while keeping the program’s interaction with the port as normal as possible.

A terminal port in raw mode disables all of that processing. In raw mode, characters are directly read from and written to the device without any translation or interpretation by the operating system. On input, characters are available as soon as they are typed, and are not echoed on the terminal by the operating system. In general, programs that put ports in raw mode have to know the details of interacting with the terminal. In particular, raw mode is used for writing programs such as text editors.

Terminal ports are initially in cooked mode; this can be changed at any time with the procedures defined in this section.

These procedures represent cooked mode by the symbol cooked, and raw mode by the symbol raw. Additionally, the value #f represents “no mode”; it is the terminal mode of a port that is not a terminal. An argument called mode must be one of these three values.
A port argument to any of these procedures may be any port, even if that port does not support terminal mode; in that case, the port is not modified in any way.

```scheme
port/input-terminal-mode port
  Returns the input terminal mode of port.

port/set-input-terminal-mode port mode
  Changes the input terminal mode of port to be mode. Returns an unspecified value.

port/with-input-terminal-mode port mode thunk
  Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. port/with-input-terminal-mode binds the input terminal mode of port to be mode, executes thunk, restores the input terminal mode of port to what it was when port/with-input-terminal-mode was called, and returns the value that was yielded by thunk. This binding is performed by dynamic-wind, which guarantees that the input terminal mode is restored if thunk escapes from its continuation.

port/output-terminal-mode port
  Returns the output terminal mode of port.

port/set-output-terminal-mode port mode
  Changes the output terminal mode of port to be mode. Returns an unspecified value.

port/with-output-terminal-mode port mode thunk
  Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments. port/with-output-terminal-mode binds the output terminal mode of port to be mode, executes thunk, restores the output terminal mode of port to what it was when port/with-output-terminal-mode was called, and returns the value that was yielded by thunk. This binding is performed by dynamic-wind, which guarantees that the output terminal mode is restored if thunk escapes from its continuation.
```

### 14.10 Parser Buffers

The parser buffer mechanism facilitates construction of parsers for complex grammars. It does this by providing an input stream with unbounded buffering and backtracking. The amount of buffering is under program control. The stream can backtrack to any position in the buffer.

The mechanism defines two data types: the parser buffer and the parser-buffer pointer. A parser buffer is like an input port with buffering and backtracking. A parser-buffer pointer is a pointer into the stream of characters provided by a parser buffer.

Note that all of the procedures defined here consider a parser buffer to contain a stream of 8-bit characters in the ISO-8859-1 character set, except for match-utf8-char-in-alphabet which treats it as a stream of Unicode characters encoded as 8-bit bytes in the UTF-8 encoding.

There are several constructors for parser buffers:

```scheme
input-port->parser-buffer port
  Returns a parser buffer that buffers characters read from port.
```
substring->parser-buffer string start end  [procedure]
Returns a parser buffer that buffers the characters in the argument substring. This is equivalent to creating a string input port and calling input-port->parser-buffer, but it runs faster and uses less memory.

string->parser-buffer string  [procedure]
Like substring->parser-buffer but buffers the entire string.

source->parser-buffer source  [procedure]
Returns a parser buffer that buffers the characters returned by calling source. Source is a procedure of three arguments: a string, a start index, and an end index (in other words, a substring specifier). Each time source is called, it writes some characters in the substring, and returns the number of characters written. When there are no more characters available, it returns zero. It must not return zero in any other circumstance.

Parser buffers and parser-buffer pointers may be distinguished from other objects:

parser-buffer? object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a parser buffer, otherwise returns #f.

parser-buffer-pointer? object  [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a parser-buffer pointer, otherwise returns #f.

Characters can be read from a parser buffer much as they can be read from an input port. The parser buffer maintains an internal pointer indicating its current position in the input stream. Additionally, the buffer remembers all characters that were previously read, and can look at characters arbitrarily far ahead in the stream. It is this buffering capability that facilitates complex matching and backtracking.

read-parser-buffer-char buffer  [procedure]
Returns the next character in buffer, advancing the internal pointer past that character. If there are no more characters available, returns #f and leaves the internal pointer unchanged.

peek-parser-buffer-char buffer  [procedure]
Returns the next character in buffer, or #f if no characters are available. Leaves the internal pointer unchanged.

parser-buffer-ref buffer index  [procedure]
Returns a character in buffer. Index is a non-negative integer specifying the character to be returned. If index is zero, returns the next available character; if it is one, returns the character after that, and so on. If index specifies a position after the last character in buffer, returns #f. Leaves the internal pointer unchanged.

The internal pointer of a parser buffer can be read or written:

get-parser-buffer-pointer buffer  [procedure]
Returns a parser-buffer pointer object corresponding to the internal pointer of buffer.
set-parser-buffer-pointer!  buffer pointer  [procedure]
Sets the internal pointer of buffer to the position specified by pointer. Pointer must
have been returned from a previous call of get-parser-buffer-pointer on buffer. Additionally, if some of buffer’s characters have been discarded by discard-parser-buffer-head!, pointer must be outside the range that was discarded.

get-parser-buffer-tail  buffer pointer  [procedure]
Returns a newly-allocated string consisting of all of the characters in buffer that fall
between pointer and buffer’s internal pointer. Pointer must have been returned from
a previous call of get-parser-buffer-pointer on buffer. Additionally, if some of
buffer’s characters have been discarded by discard-parser-buffer-head!, pointer
must be outside the range that was discarded.

discard-parser-buffer-head!  buffer  [procedure]
Discards all characters in buffer that have already been read; in other words, all
characters prior to the internal pointer. After this operation has completed, it is no
longer possible to move the internal pointer backwards past the current position by
calling set-parser-buffer-pointer!.

The next rather large set of procedures does conditional matching against the contents
of a parser buffer. All matching is performed relative to the buffer’s internal pointer, so
the first character to be matched against is the next character that would be returned
by peek-parser-buffer-char. The returned value is always #t for a successful match,
and #f otherwise. For procedures whose names do not end in ‘-no-advance’, a successful
match also moves the internal pointer of the buffer forward to the end of the matched text;
otherwise the internal pointer is unchanged.

match-parser-buffer-char  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-char-ci  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-not-char  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-not-char-ci  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-char-no-advance  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-not-char-no-advance  buffer char  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-not-char-ci-no-advance  buffer char  [procedure]

Each of these procedures compares a single character in buffer to char. The basic comparison match-parser-buffer-char compares the character to char using char=? . The procedures whose names contain the ‘-ci’ modifier do case-insensitive comparison (i.e. they use char-ci=?). The procedures whose names contain the ‘not-’ modifier are successful if the character doesn’t match char.

match-parser-buffer-char-in-set  buffer char-set  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-char-in-set-no-advance  buffer char-set  [procedure]

These procedures compare the next character in buffer against char-set using char-set-member?.

match-parser-buffer-string  buffer string  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-string-ci  buffer string  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-string-no-advance  buffer string  [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-string-ci-no-advance buffer string [procedure]
These procedures match string against buffer’s contents. The ‘-ci’ procedures do case-insensitive matching.

match-parser-buffer-substring buffer string start end [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-substring-ci buffer string start end [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-substring-no-advance buffer string start end [procedure]
match-parser-buffer-substring-ci-no-advance buffer string start [procedure]

These procedures match the specified substring against buffer’s contents. The ‘-ci’ procedures do case-insensitive matching.

match-utf8-char-in-alphabet buffer alphabet [procedure]
This procedure treats buffer’s contents as UTF-8 encoded Unicode characters and matches the next such character against alphabet, which must be a Unicode alphabet (see Section 5.7 [Unicode], page 86). UTF-8 represents characters with 1 to 6 bytes, so a successful match can move the internal pointer forward by as many as 6 bytes.

Parser Language

Although it is possible to write parsers using the parser-buffer abstraction (see Section 14.10 [Parser Buffers], page 207), it is tedious. The problem is that the abstraction isn’t closely matched to the way that people think about syntactic structures. In this section, we introduce a higher-level mechanism that greatly simplifies the implementation of a parser.

The parser language described here allows the programmer to write BNF-like specifications that are translated into efficient Scheme code at compile time. The language is declarative, but it can be freely mixed with Scheme code; this allows the parsing of grammars that aren’t conveniently described in the language.

The language also provides backtracking. For example, this expression matches any sequence of alphanumeric characters followed by a single alphabetic character:

```scheme
(*matcher
  (seq (* (char-set char-set:alphanumeric))
       (char-set char-set:alphabetic)))
```
The way that this works is that the matcher matches alphanumeric characters in the input stream until it finds a non-alphanumeric character. It then tries to match an alphabetic character, which of course fails. At this point, if it matched at least one alphanumeric character, it backtracks: the last matched alphanumeric is “unmatched”, and it again attempts to match an alphabetic character. The backtracking can be arbitrarily deep; the matcher will continue to back up until it finds a way to match the remainder of the expression.

So far, this sounds a lot like regular-expression matching (see Section 6.8 [Regular Expressions], page 100). However, there are some important differences.

- The parser language uses a Scheme-like syntax that is easier to read and write than regular-expression notation.
- The language provides macros so that common syntactic constructs can be abstracted.
- The language mixes easily with Scheme code, allowing the full power of Scheme to be applied to program around limitations in the parser language.
- The language provides expressive facilities for converting syntax into parsed structure. It also makes it easy to convert parsed strings into meaningful objects (e.g. numbers).
- The language is compiled into machine language; regular expressions are usually interpreted.

Here is an example that shows off several of the features of the parser language. The example is a parser for XML start tags:

```scheme
(*parser
  (with-pointer p
    (seq "<
      parse-name
      parse-attribute-list
      (alt (match ">")
        (match "/>")
        (sexp
          (lambda (b)
            (error
              (string-append
                "Unterminated start tag at 
                (parser-buffer-position-string p)")))))))
```

This shows that the basic description of a start tag is very similar to its BNF. Non-terminal symbols `parse-name` and `parse-attribute-list` do most of the work, and the noise strings "<" and ">" are the syntactic markers delimiting the form. There are two alternate endings for start tags, and if the parser doesn’t find either of the endings, the Scheme code (wrapped in `sexp`) is run to signal an error. The error procedure `error` takes a pointer `p`, which it uses to indicate the position in the input stream at which the error occurred. In this case, that is the beginning of the start tag, i.e. the position of the leading "<" marker.

This example still looks pretty complicated, mostly due to the error-signalling code. In practice, this is abstracted into a macro, after which the expression is quite succinct:
The bracket macro captures the pattern of a bracketed item, and hides much of the detail.

The parser language actually consists of two languages: one for defining matchers, and one for defining parsers. The languages are intentionally very similar, and are meant to be used together. Each sub-language is described below in its own section.

The parser language is a run-time-loadable option; to use it, execute

```
(load-option '*parser)
```

once before compiling any code that uses the language.

### 14.11.1 *Matcher

The matcher language is a declarative language for specifying a matcher procedure. A matcher procedure is a procedure that accepts a single parser-buffer argument and returns a boolean value indicating whether the match it performs was successful. If the match succeeds, the internal pointer of the parser buffer is moved forward over the matched text. If the match fails, the internal pointer is unchanged.

For example, here is a matcher procedure that matches the character ‘a’:

```
(lambda (b) (match-parser-buffer-char b #\a))
```

Here is another example that matches two given characters, c1 and c2, in sequence:

```
(lambda (b)
  (let ((p (get-parser-buffer-pointer b)))
    (if (match-parser-buffer-char b c1)
      (if (match-parser-buffer-char b c2)
        #t
        (begin
          (set-parser-buffer-pointer! b p)
          #f))
      #f))
)
```

This is code is clear, but has lots of details that get in the way of understanding what it is doing. Here is the same example in the matcher language:

```
(*matcher (seq (char c1) (char c2)))
```

This is much simpler and more intuitive. And it generates virtually the same code:

```
(pp (*matcher (seq (char c1) (char c2))))
```

```scheme
- (lambda ([b1])
  (let ([p1] (get-parser-buffer-pointer ![b1]))
    (and (match-parser-buffer-char ![b1] c1)
      (if (match-parser-buffer-char ![b1] c2)
        #t
        (begin
          (set-parser-buffer-pointer! ![b1] ![p1])
          #f)))))
```
Now that we have seen an example of the language, it’s time to look at the detail. The *matcher special form is the interface between the matcher language and Scheme.

*matcher mexp

The operand mexp is an expression in the matcher language. The *matcher expression expands into Scheme code that implements a matcher procedure.

Here are the predefined matcher expressions. New matcher expressions can be defined using the macro facility (see Section 14.11.3 [Parser-language Macros], page 218). We will start with the primitive expressions.

**char expression**

These expressions match a given character. In each case, the expression operand is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a character at run time. The `not-char` expressions match any character other than the given one.

**string expression**

These expressions match a given string. The expression operand is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a string at run time. The `string-ci` expression does case-insensitive matching.

**char-set expression**

These expressions match a single character that is a member of a given character set. The expression operand is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a character set at run time.

**alphabet expression**

These expressions match a single character that is a member of a given Unicode alphabet (see Section 5.7 [Unicode], page 86). The expression operand is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to an alphabet at run time.

**end-of-input**

The end-of-input expression is successful only when there are no more characters available to be matched.

**discard-matched**

The discard-matched expression always successfully matches the null string. However, it isn’t meant to be used as a matching expression; it is used for its effect. discard-matched causes all of the buffered text prior to this point to be discarded (i.e. it calls discard-parser-buffer-head! on the parser buffer).

Note that discard-matched may not be used in certain places in a matcher expression. The reason for this is that it deliberately discards information needed for backtracking, so it may not be used in a place where subsequent backtracking will need to back over it. As a rule of thumb, use discard-matched only in the last operand of a seq or alt expression (including any seq or alt expressions in which it is indirectly contained).
In addition to the above primitive expressions, there are two convenient abbreviations. A character literal (e.g. ‘#\A’) is a legal primitive expression, and is equivalent to a `char` expression with that literal as its operand (e.g. `'(char #\A)`). Likewise, a string literal is equivalent to a `string` expression (e.g. `'(string "abc")`).

Next there are several combinator expressions. These closely correspond to similar combinator expressions in regular expressions. Parameters named `mexp` are arbitrary expressions in the matcher language.

`seq mexp`...

This matches each `mexp` operand in sequence. For example,

```
(seq (char-set char-set:alphabetic)
     (char-set char-set:numeric))
```

matches an alphabetic character followed by a numeric character, such as ‘H4’.

Note that if there are no `mexp` operands, the `seq` expression successfully matches the null string.

`alt mexp`...

This attempts to match each `mexp` operand in order from left to right. The first one that successfully matches becomes the match for the entire `alt` expression.

The `alt` expression participates in backtracking. If one of the `mexp` operands matches, but the overall match in which this expression is embedded fails, the backtracking mechanism will cause the `alt` expression to try the remaining `mexp` operands. For example, if the expression

```
(seq (alt "ab" "a") "b")
```

is matched against the text ‘abc’, the `alt` expression will initially match its first operand. But it will then fail to match the second operand of the `seq` expression. This will cause the `alt` to be restarted, at which time it will match ‘a’, and the overall match will succeed.

Note that if there are no `mexp` operands, the `alt` match will always fail.

`* mexp`

This matches zero or more occurrences of the `mexp` operand. (Consequently this match always succeeds.)

The `*` expression participates in backtracking; if it matches `N` occurrences of `mexp`, but the overall match fails, it will backtrack to `N-1` occurrences and continue. If the overall match continues to fail, the `*` expression will continue to backtrack until there are no occurrences left.

`+ mexp`

This matches one or more occurrences of the `mexp` operand. It is equivalent to

```
(seq mexp (* mexp))
```

`? mexp`

This matches zero or one occurrences of the `mexp` operand. It is equivalent to

```
(alt mexp (seq))
```
sexp expression

The sexp expression allows arbitrary Scheme code to be embedded inside a matcher. The expression operand must evaluate to a matcher procedure at run time; the procedure is called to match the parser buffer. For example,

\[
\begin{aligned}
(*matcher
  (seq "a"
    (sexp parse-foo)
    "b"))
\end{aligned}
\]

expands to

\[
\begin{aligned}
(lambda (#[b1])
  (let ((#[p1] (get-parser-buffer-pointer #[b1])))
    (and (match-parser-buffer-char #[b1] #\a)
         (if (parse-foo #[b1])
             (if (match-parser-buffer-char #[b1] #\b)
                 #t
                 (begin
                   (set-parser-buffer-pointer! #[b1] #[p1])
                   #f))
             (begin
               (set-parser-buffer-pointer! #[b1] #[p1])
               #f))))
\end{aligned}
\]

The case in which expression is a symbol is so common that it has an abbreviation: \((sexp symbol)\) may be abbreviated as just symbol.

with-pointer identifier mexp

The with-pointer expression fetches the parser buffer’s internal pointer (using get-parser-buffer-pointer), binds it to identifier, and then matches the pattern specified by mexp. Identifier must be a symbol.

This is meant to be used on conjunction with sexp, as a way to capture a pointer to a part of the input stream that is outside the sexp expression. An example of the use of with-pointer appears above (see [with-pointer example], page 211).

14.11.2 *Parser

The parser language is a declarative language for specifying a parser procedure. A parser procedure is a procedure that accepts a single parser-buffer argument and parses some of the input from the buffer. If the parse is successful, the procedure returns a vector of objects that are the result of the parse, and the internal pointer of the parser buffer is advanced past the input that was parsed. If the parse fails, the procedure returns #f and the internal pointer is unchanged. This interface is much like that of a matcher procedure, except that on success the parser procedure returns a vector of values rather than #t.

The *parser special form is the interface between the parser language and Scheme.

*parser pexp

The operand pexp is an expression in the parser language. The *parser expression expands into Scheme code that implements a parser procedure.
There are several primitive expressions in the parser language. The first two provide a bridge to the matcher language (see Section 14.11.1 [*Matcher], page 212):

**match mexp**

The *match* expression performs a match on the parser buffer. The match to be performed is specified by *mexp*, which is an expression in the matcher language. If the match is successful, the result of the *match* expression is a vector of one element: a string containing that text.

**noise mexp**

The *noise* expression performs a match on the parser buffer. The match to be performed is specified by *mexp*, which is an expression in the matcher language. If the match is successful, the result of the *noise* expression is a vector of zero elements.

(In other words, the text is matched and then thrown away.)

The *mexp* operand is often a known character or string, so in the case that *mexp* is a character or string literal, the *noise* expression can be abbreviated as the literal. In other words, `(noise "foo")` can be abbreviated just `"foo"`.

**values expression ...**

Sometimes it is useful to be able to insert arbitrary values into the parser result. The *values* expression supports this. The *expression* arguments are arbitrary Scheme expressions that are evaluated at run time and returned in a vector. The *values* expression always succeeds and never modifies the internal pointer of the parser buffer.

**discard-matched**

The *discard-matched* expression always succeeds, returning a vector of zero elements. In all other respects it is identical to the *discard-matched* expression in the matcher language.

Next there are several combinator expressions. Parameters named *pexp* are arbitrary expressions in the parser language. The first few combinators are direct equivalents of those in the matcher language.

**seq pexp ...**

The *seq* expression parses each of the *pexp* operands in order. If all of the *pexp* operands successfully match, the result is the concatenation of their values (by *vector-append*).

**alt pexp ...**

The *alt* expression attempts to parse each *pexp* operand in order from left to right. The first one that successfully parses produces the result for the entire *alt* expression. Like the *alt* expression in the matcher language, this expression participates in backtracking.

*** pexp**

The * expression parses zero or more occurrences of *pexp*. The results of the parsed occurrences are concatenated together (by *vector-append*) to produce the expression’s result.

Like the * expression in the matcher language, this expression participates in backtracking.
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+ pexp

The * expression parses one or more occurrences of pexp. It is equivalent to

\[(\text{seq } pexp (* pexp))\]

? pexp

The * expression parses zero or one occurrences of pexp. It is equivalent to

\[(\text{alt } pexp (\text{seq}))\]

The next three expressions do not have equivalents in the matcher language. Each accepts a single pexp argument, which is parsed in the usual way. These expressions perform transformations on the returned values of a successful match.

\[\text{transform expression pexp}\]

The transform expression performs an arbitrary transformation of the values returned by parsing pexp. Expression is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a procedure at run time. If pexp is successfully parsed, the procedure is called with the vector of values as its argument, and must return a vector or #f. If it returns a vector, the parse is successful, and those are the resulting values. If it returns #f, the parse fails and the internal pointer of the parser buffer is returned to what it was before pexp was parsed.

For example:

\[(\text{transform (lambda (v) (if (= 0 (vector-length v)) #f v)) ...})\]

\[\text{encapsulate expression pexp}\]

The encapsulate expression transforms the values returned by parsing pexp into a single value. Expression is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a procedure at run time. If pexp is successfully parsed, the procedure is called with the vector of values as its argument, and may return any Scheme object. The result of the encapsulate expression is a vector of length one containing that object. (And consequently encapsulate doesn’t change the success or failure of pexp, only its value.)

For example:

\[(\text{encapsulate vector->list ...})\]

\[\text{map expression pexp}\]

The map expression performs a per-element transform on the values returned by parsing pexp. Expression is a Scheme expression that must evaluate to a procedure at run time. If pexp is successfully parsed, the procedure is mapped (by vector-map) over the values returned from the parse. The mapped values are returned as the result of the map expression. (And consequently map doesn’t change the success or failure of pexp, nor the number of values returned.)

For example:

\[(\text{map string->symbol ...})\]

Finally, as in the matcher language, we have sexp and with-pointer to support embedding Scheme code in the parser.
The `sexp` expression allows arbitrary Scheme code to be embedded inside a parser. The `expression` operand must evaluate to a parser procedure at run time; the procedure is called to parse the parser buffer. This is the parser-language equivalent of the `sexp` expression in the matcher language.

The case in which `expression` is a symbol is so common that it has an abbreviation: ‘`(sexp symbol)`’ may be abbreviated as just `symbol`.

The `with-pointer` expression fetches the parser buffer’s internal pointer (using `get-parser-buffer-pointer`), binds it to `identifier`, and then parses the pattern specified by `pexp`. `Identifier` must be a symbol. This is the parser-language equivalent of the `with-pointer` expression in the matcher language.

### 14.11.3 Parser-language Macros

The parser and matcher languages provide a macro facility so that common patterns can be abstracted. The macro facility allows new expression types to be independently defined in the two languages. The macros are defined in hierarchically organized tables, so that different applications can have private macro bindings.

These special forms are used to define macros in the matcher and parser language, respectively. `Formals` is like the `formals` list of a `define` special form, and `expression` is a Scheme expression.

If `formals` is a list (or improper list) of symbols, the first symbol in the list is the name of the macro, and the remaining symbols are interpreted as the `formals` of a lambda expression. A lambda expression is formed by combining the latter `formals` with the `expression`, and this lambda expression, when evaluated, becomes the `expander`. The defined macro accepts the same number of operands as the expander. A macro instance is expanded by applying the expander to the list of operands; the result of the application is interpreted as a replacement expression for the macro instance.

If `formals` is a symbol, it is the name of the macro. In this case, the expander is a procedure of no arguments whose body is `expression`. When the `formals` symbol appears by itself as an expression in the language, the expander is called with no arguments, and the result is interpreted as a replacement expression for the symbol.

These procedures provide a procedural interface to the macro-definition mechanism. `Identifier` must be a symbol, and `expander` must be an expander procedure, as defined above. Instances of the `define-*matcher-macro` and `define-*parser-macro` special forms expand into calls to these procedures.

The remaining procedures define the interface to the parser-macros table abstraction. Each parser-macro table has a separate binding space for macros in the matcher and parser languages. However, the table inherits bindings from one specified table; it’s not possible
to inherit matcher-language bindings from one table and parser-language bindings from another.

\textbf{make-parser-macros} \textit{parent-table} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

Create and return a new parser-macro table that inherits from \textit{parent-table}. \textit{Parent-table} must be either a parser-macro table, or \texttt{#f}; usually it is specified as the value of \texttt{global-parser-macros}.

\textbf{parser-macros?} \textit{object} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

This is a predicate for parser-macro tables.

\textbf{global-parser-macros} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

Return the global parser-macro table. This table is predefined and contains all of the bindings documented here.

There is a “current” table at all times, and macro definitions are always placed in this table. By default, the current table is the global macro table, but the following procedures allow this to be changed.

\textbf{current-parser-macros} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

Return the current parser-macro table.

\textbf{set-current-parser-macros!} \textit{table} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

Change the current parser-macro table to \textit{table}, which must satisfy \texttt{parser-macros?}.

\textbf{with-current-parser-macros} \textit{table thunk} \hspace{1cm} \textbf{[procedure]}

Bind the current parser-macro table to \textit{table}, call \textit{thunk} with no arguments, then restore the original table binding. The value returned by \textit{thunk} is the returned as the value of this procedure. \textit{Table} must satisfy \texttt{parser-macros?}, and \textit{thunk} must be a procedure of no arguments.

\section*{14.12 XML Support}

MIT/GNU Scheme provides a simple non-validating XML parser. This parser is believed to be conformant with XML 1.0. It passes all of the tests in the "xmltest" directory of the XML conformance tests (dated 2001-03-15). The parser supports XML namespaces; it doesn’t support external document type declarations (DTDs), and it doesn’t yet support XML 1.1. The output of the parser is a record tree that closely reflects the structure of the XML document.

MIT/GNU Scheme also provides support for writing an XML record tree to an output port. There is no guarantee that parsing an XML document and writing it back out will make a verbatim copy of the document. The output will be semantically identical but may have small syntactic differences. For example, entities are substituted during the parsing process.

The purpose of the XML support is to provide a mechanism for reading and writing simple XML documents. In the future this support may be further developed to support a standard interface such as DOM or SAX.

The XML support is a run-time-loadable option; to use it, execute

\begin{verbatim}
(load-option 'xml)
\end{verbatim}

once before running any code that uses it.
14.12.1 XML Input

The primary entry point for the XML parser is \texttt{read-xml}, which reads characters from a port and returns an XML document record. The character coding of the input is determined by reading some of the input stream and looking for a byte order mark and/or an encoding in the XML declaration. We support all ISO 8859 codings, as well as UTF-8, UTF-16, and UTF-32.

When an XHTML document is read, the parser provides entity definitions for all of the named XHTML characters; for example, it defines ‘\&nbsp;’ and ‘\&copy;’. In order for a document to be recognized as XHTML, it must contain an XHTML DTD, such as this:

\begin{verbatim}
<!DOCTYPE html
    PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Strict//EN"
    "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-strict.dtd">
\end{verbatim}

At present the parser recognizes XHTML Strict 1.0 and XHTML 1.1 documents.

\begin{verbatim}
(read-xml port [pi-handlers])
\end{verbatim}

Read an XML document from \texttt{port} and return the corresponding XML document record.

\texttt{Pi-handlers}, if specified, must be an association list. Each element of \texttt{pi-handlers} must be a list of two elements: a symbol and a procedure. When the parser encounters processing instructions with a name that appears in \texttt{pi-handlers}, the procedure is called with one argument, which is the text of the processing instructions. The procedure must return a list of XML structure records that are legal for the context of the processing instructions.

\begin{verbatim}
(read-xml-file pathname [pi-handlers])
\end{verbatim}

This convenience procedure simplifies reading XML from a file. It is roughly equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
(define (read-xml-file pathname #!optional pi-handlers)
    (call-with-input-file pathname
        (lambda (port)
            (read-xml port pi-handlers))))
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
(string->xml string [start [end [pi-handlers]]])
\end{verbatim}

This convenience procedure simplifies reading XML from a string. The \texttt{string} argument may be a string or a wide string. It is roughly equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
(define (string->xml string #!optional start end pi-handlers)
    (read-xml (open-input-string string start end)
        pi-handlers))
\end{verbatim}

14.12.2 XML Output

The following procedures serialize XML document records into character sequences. All are virtually identical except for the way that the character sequence is represented.

Each procedure will accept either an \texttt{xml-document} record or any of the other XML record types. This makes it possible to write fragments of XML documents, although you should keep in mind that such fragments aren’t documents and won’t generally be accepted by any XML parser.
If the xml being written is an xml-document record, the procedures write-xml and write-xml-file will look for a contained xml-declaration record and its encoding attribute. If the encoding is a supported value, the output will be encoded as specified; otherwise it will be encoded as UTF-8.

When an XHTML document record is written, named XHTML characters are translated into their corresponding entities. For example, the character ‘\U+00A0’ is written as ‘&nbsp;’. In order for an XML document record to be recognized as XHTML, it must have a DTD record that satisfies the predicate html-dtd?.

write-xml xml port  
Write xml to port. Note that character encoding will only be done if port supports it.

write-xml-file xml pathname  
Write xml to the file specified by pathname. Roughly equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
(define (write-xml-file xml pathname)
  (call-with-output-file pathname
    (lambda (port)
      (write-xml xml port))))
\end{verbatim}

xml->wide-string xml  
Convert xml to a wide string. No character encoding is used, since wide strings can represent all characters without encoding. Roughly equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
(define (xml->wide-string xml)
  (call-with-wide-output-string
    (lambda (port)
      (write-xml xml port))))
\end{verbatim}

xml->string xml  
Convert xml to a character string encoded as UTF-8. Roughly equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
(define (xml->string xml)
  (wide-string->utf8-string (xml->wide-string xml)))
\end{verbatim}

14.12.3 XML Names

MIT/GNU Scheme implements XML names in a slightly complex way. Unfortunately, this complexity is a direct consequence of the definition of XML names rather than a mis-feature of this implementation.

The reason that XML names are complex is that XML namespace support, which was added after XML was standardized, is not very well integrated with the core XML definition. The most obvious problem is that names can’t have associated namespaces when they appear in the DTD of a document, even if the body of the document uses them. Consequently, it must be possible to compare non-associated names with associated names.

An XML name consists of two parts: the qname, which is a symbol, possibly including a namespace prefix; and the Uniform Resource Identifier (URI), which identifies an optional namespace.
make-xml-name qname uri

Creates and returns an XML name. Qname must be a symbol whose name satisfies string-is-xml-name?. Uri must satisfy either absolute-uri? or null-xml-namespace-uri?. The returned value is an XML name that satisfies xml-name?.

If uri is the null namespace (satisfies null-xml-namespace-uri?), the returned value is a symbol equivalent to qname. This means that an ordinary symbol can be used as an XML name when there is no namespace associated with the name.

For convenience, qname may be a string, in which case it is converted to a symbol using make-xml-qname.

For convenience, uri may be any object that ->uri is able to convert to a URI record, provided the resulting URI meets the above restrictions.

xml-name? object

Returns #t if object is an XML name, and #f otherwise.

xml-name->symbol xml-name

Returns the symbol part of xml-name.

xml-name-uri xml-name

Returns the URI of xml-name. The result always satisfies absolute-uri? or null-xml-namespace-uri?.

xml-name-string xml-name

Returns the qname of xml-name as a string. Equivalent to

(symbol-name (xml-name->symbol xml-name))

The next two procedures get the prefix and local part of an XML name, respectively. The prefix of an XML name is the part of the qname to the left of the colon, while the local part is the part of the qname to the right of the colon. If there is no colon in the qname, the local part is the entire qname, and the prefix is the null symbol (i.e. '|'').

xml-name-prefix xml-name

Returns the prefix of xml-name as a symbol.

xml-name-local xml-name

Returns the local part of xml-name as a symbol.

The next procedure compares two XML names for equality. The rules for equality are slightly complex, in order to permit comparing names in the DTD with names in the document body. So, if both of the names have non-null namespace URIs, then the names are equal if and only if their local parts are equal and their URIs are equal. (The prefixes of the names are not considered in this case.) Otherwise, the names are equal if and only if their qnames are equal.

xml-name=? xml-name-1 xml-name-2

Returns #t if xml-name-1 and xml-name-2 are the same name, and #f otherwise.

These next procedures define the data abstraction for qnames. While qnames are represented as symbols, only symbols whose names satisfy string-is-xml-name? are qnames.
make-xml-qname string

String must satisfy string-is-xml-name?. Returns the qname corresponding to string (the symbol whose name is string).

xml-qname? object

Returns #t if object is a qname, otherwise returns #f.

xml-qname-prefix qname

Returns the prefix of qname as a symbol.

xml-qname-local qname

Returns the local part of qname as a symbol.

The prefix of a qname or XML name may be absent if there is no colon in the name. The absent, or null, prefix is abstracted by the next two procedures. Note that the null prefix is a symbol, just like non-null prefixes.

null-xml-name-prefix

Returns the null prefix.

null-xml-name-prefix? object

Returns #t if object is the null prefix, otherwise returns #f.

The namespace URI of an XML name may be null, meaning that there is no namespace associated with the name. This namespace is represented by a relative URI record whose string representation is the null string.

null-xml-namespace-uri

Returns the null namespace URI record.

null-xml-namespace-uri? object

Returns #t if object is the null namespace URI record, otherwise returns #f.

The following values are two distinguished URI records.

xml-uri

xml-uri is the URI reserved for use by the XML recommendation. This URI must be used with the 'xml' prefix.

xmlns-uri

xmlns-uri is the URI reserved for use by the XML namespace recommendation. This URI must be used with the 'xmlns' prefix.

make-xml-nmtoken string

xml-nmtoken? object

string-is-xml-name? string

string-is-xml-nmtoken? string
14.12.4 XML Structure

The output from the XML parser and the input to the XML output procedure is a complex data structure composed of a hierarchy of typed components. Each component is a record whose fields correspond to parts of the XML structure that the record represents. There are no special operations on these records; each is a tuple with named subparts. The root record type is \texttt{xml-document}, which represents a complete XML document.

Each record type \texttt{type} has the following associated bindings:

- \texttt{<type>} is a variable bound to the record-type descriptor for \texttt{type}. The record-type descriptor may be used as a specializer in SOS method definitions, which greatly simplifies code to dispatch on these types.

- \texttt{type?} is a predicate for records of type \texttt{type}. It accepts one argument, which can be any object, and returns \#t if the object is a record of this type, or \#f otherwise.

- \texttt{make-type} is a constructor for records of type \texttt{type}. It accepts one argument for each field of \texttt{type}, in the same order that they are written in the type description, and returns a newly-allocated record of that type.

- \texttt{type-field} is an accessor procedure for the field \texttt{field} in records of type \texttt{type}. It accepts one argument, which must be a record of that type, and returns the contents of the corresponding field in the record.

- \texttt{set-type-field!} is a modifier procedure for the field \texttt{field} in records of type \texttt{type}. It accepts two arguments: the first must be a record of that type, and the second is a new value for the corresponding field. The record’s field is modified to have the new value.

\begin{verbatim}
xml-document  declaration misc-1 dtd misc-2 root misc-3  \[record type\]
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{xml-document} record is the top-level record representing a complete XML document. \texttt{Declaration} is either an \texttt{xml-declaration} object or \#f. \texttt{Dtd} is either an \texttt{xml-dtd} object or \#f. \texttt{Root} is an \texttt{xml-element} object. \texttt{Misc-1}, \texttt{misc-2}, and \texttt{misc-3} are lists of miscellaneous items; a miscellaneous item is either an \texttt{xml-comment} object, an \texttt{xml-processing-instructions} object, or a string of whitespace.

\begin{verbatim}
xml-declaration  version encoding standalone  \[record type\]
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{xml-declaration} record represents the ‘\texttt{<?xml ... ?>>}’ declaration that optionally appears at the beginning of an XML document. \texttt{Version} is a version string, typically "1.0". \texttt{Encoding} is either an encoding string or \#f. \texttt{Standalone} is either "yes", "no", or \#f.

\begin{verbatim}
xml-element  name attributes contents  \[record type\]
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{xml-element} record represents general XML elements; the bulk of a typical XML document consists of these elements. \texttt{Name} is the element name (an XML name). \texttt{Attributes} is a list of XML attribute objects. \texttt{Contents} is a list of the contents of the element. Each element of this list is either a string, an \texttt{xml-element} record or an \texttt{xml-processing-instructions} record.
xml-processing-instructions name text  

The xml-processing-instructions record represents processing instructions, which have the form ‘<?name ... ?>’. These instructions are intended to contain non-XML data that will be processed by another interpreter; for example they might contain PHP programs. The name field is the processor name (a symbol), and the text field is the body of the instructions (a string).

xml-dtd root external internal  

The xml-dtd record represents a document type declaration. The root field is an XML name for the root element of the document. External is either an xml-external-id record or #f. Internal is a list of DTD element records (e.g. xml-!element, xml-!attlist, etc.).

The remaining record types are valid only within a DTD.

xml-!element name content-type  

The xml-!element record represents an element-type declaration. Name is the XML name of the type being declared (a symbol). Content-type describes the type and can have several different values, as follows:

- The XML names ‘EMPTY’ and ‘ANY’ correspond to the XML keywords of the same name.
- A list ‘(MIX type ...)’ corresponds to the ‘(#PCDATA | type | ...)’ syntax.

xml-!attlist name definitions  

The xml-!attlist record represents an attribute-list declaration. Name is the XML name of the type for which attributes are being declared (a symbol). Definitions is a list of attribute definitions, each of which is a list of three elements (name type default). Name is an XML name for the name of the attribute (a symbol). Type describes the attribute type, and can have one of the following values:

- A list ‘(NOTATION name1 name2 ...)’ corresponds to the ‘NOTATION (name1 | name2 ... )’ syntax.
- A list ‘(ENUMERATED name1 name2 ...)’ corresponds to the ‘(name1 | name2 ... )’ syntax.

Default describes the default value for the attribute, and can have one of the following values:

- The XML names ‘#REQUIRED’ and ‘#IMPLIED’ correspond to the XML keywords of the same names.
- A list ‘(#FIXED value)’ corresponds to the ‘#FIXED "value"’ syntax. Value is represented as a string.
- A list ‘(DEFAULT value)’ corresponds to the ‘"value"’ syntax. Value is represented as a string.

xml-!entity name value  

The xml-!entity record represents a general entity declaration. Name is an XML name for the entity. Value is the entity’s value, either a string or an xml-external-id record.
xml-parameter-!entity  name value
   The xml-parameter-!entity record represents a parameter entity declaration. Name is an XML name for the entity. Value is the entity’s value, either a string or an xml-external-id record.

xml-unparsed-!entity  name id notation
   The xml-unparsed-!entity record represents an unparsed entity declaration. Name is an XML name for the entity. Id is an xml-external-id record. Notation is an XML name for the notation.

xml-!notation  name id
   The xml-!notation record represents a notation declaration. Name is an XML name for the notation. Id is an xml-external-id record.

xml-external-id  id uri
   The xml-external-id record is a reference to an external DTD. This reference consists of two parts: id is a public ID literal, corresponding to the ‘PUBLIC’ keyword, while uri is a system literal, corresponding to the ‘SYSTEM’ keyword. Either or both may be present, depending on the context. Id is represented as a string, while uri is represented as a URI record.
15 Operating-System Interface

The Scheme standard provides a simple mechanism for reading and writing files: file ports. MIT/GNU Scheme provides additional tools for dealing with other aspects of the operating system:

- **Pathnames** are a reasonably operating-system independent tool for manipulating the component parts of file names. This can be useful for implementing defaulting of file name components.
- Control over the *current working directory*: the place in the file system from which relative file names are interpreted.
- Procedures that rename, copy, delete, and test for the existence of files. Also, procedures that return detailed information about a particular file, such as its type (directory, link, etc.) or length.
- Procedures for reading the contents of a directory.
- Procedures for obtaining times in various formats, converting between the formats, and generating human-readable time strings.
- Procedures to run other programs as subprocesses of Scheme, to read their output, and write input to them.
- A means to determine the operating system Scheme is running under.

15.1 Pathnames

MIT/GNU Scheme programs need to use names to designate files. The main difficulty in dealing with names of files is that different file systems have different naming formats for files. For example, here is a table of several file systems (actually, operating systems that provide file systems) and what equivalent file names might look like for each one:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOPS-20</td>
<td>&lt;LISPIO&gt;FORMAT.FASL.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOPS-10</td>
<td>FORMAT.FAS[1,4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITS</td>
<td>LISPIO;FORMAT.FASL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MULTICS</td>
<td>&gt;udd&gt;LispIO&gt;format.fasl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TENEX</td>
<td>&lt;LISPIO&gt;FORMAT.FASL;13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAX/VMS</td>
<td>[LISPIO]FORMAT.FAS;13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIX</td>
<td>/usr/lispio/format.fasl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOS</td>
<td>C:\USR\LISPIO\FORMAT.FAS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It would be impossible for each program that deals with file names to know about each different file name format that exists; a new operating system to which Scheme was ported might use a format different from any of its predecessors. Therefore, MIT/GNU Scheme provides *two* ways to represent file names: *filenames* (also called *namestrings*), which are strings in the implementation-dependent form customary for the file system, and *pathnames*, which are special abstract data objects that represent file names in an implementation-independent way. Procedures are provided to convert between these two representations, and all manipulations of files can be expressed in machine-independent terms by using pathnames.
In order to allow MIT/GNU Scheme programs to operate in a network environment that may have more than one kind of file system, the pathname facility allows a file name to specify which file system is to be used. In this context, each file system is called a host, in keeping with the usual networking terminology.¹

Note that the examples given in this section are specific to unix pathnames. Pathnames for other operating systems have different external representations.

### 15.1.1 Filenames and Pathnames

Pathname objects are usually created by parsing filenames (character strings) into component parts. MIT/GNU Scheme provides operations that convert filenames into pathnames and vice versa.

#### `->pathname object`

Returns a pathname that is the equivalent of `object`. `Object` must be a pathname or a string. If `object` is a pathname, it is returned. If `object` is a string, this procedure returns the pathname that corresponds to the string; in this case it is equivalent to `(parse-namestring object #f #f)`.

- `(->pathname "foo")` ⇒ `#[pathname 65 "foo"]`
- `(->pathname "/usr/morris")` ⇒ `#[pathname 66 "/usr/morris"]`

#### `parse-namestring thing [host [defaults]]`

This turns `thing` into a pathname. `Thing` must be a pathname or a string. If `thing` is a pathname, it is returned. If `thing` is a string, this procedure returns the pathname that corresponds to the string, parsed according to the syntax of the file system specified by `host`.

This procedure does not do defaulting of pathname components.

The optional arguments are used to determine what syntax should be used for parsing the string. In general this is only really useful if your implementation of MIT/GNU Scheme supports more than one file system, otherwise you would use `->pathname`. If given, `host` must be a host object or `#f`, and `defaults` must be a pathname. `Host` specifies the syntax used to parse the string. If `host` is not given or `#f`, the host component from `defaults` is used instead; if `defaults` is not given, the host component from `*default-pathname-defaults*` is used.

#### `->namestring pathname`

`->namestring` returns a newly allocated string that is the filename corresponding to `pathname`.

- `(->namestring (->pathname "/usr/morris/minor.van"))` ⇒ `"/usr/morris/minor.van"`

#### `pathname-simplify pathname`

Returns a pathname that locates the same file or directory as `pathname`, but is in some sense simpler. Note that `pathname-simplify` might not always be able to simplify the pathname, e.g. on Unix with symbolic links the directory `'/usr/morris/.../'` need not be the same as `'/usr/'`. In cases of uncertainty the behavior is conservative, returning the original or a partly simplified pathname.

¹ This introduction is adapted from Common Lisp, The Language, second edition, section 23.1.
(pathname-simplify "./usr/morris/./morris/dance")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/morris/dance"]

15.1.2 Components of Pathnames

A pathname object always has six components, described below. These components are the common interface that allows programs to work the same way with different file systems; the mapping of the pathname components into the concepts peculiar to each file system is taken care of by the Scheme implementation.

**host**

The name of the file system on which the file resides. In the current implementation, this component is always a host object that is filled in automatically by the runtime system. When specifying the host component, use either #f or the value of the variable local-host.

**device**

Corresponds to the “device” or “file structure” concept in many host file systems: the name of a (logical or physical) device containing files. This component is the drive letter for PC file systems, and is unused for unix file systems.

**directory**

Corresponds to the “directory” concept in many host file systems: the name of a group of related files (typically those belonging to a single user or project). This component is always used for all file systems.

**name**

The name of a group of files that can be thought of as conceptually the “same” file. This component is always used for all file systems.

**type**

Corresponds to the “filetype” or “extension” concept in many host file systems. This says what kind of file this is. Files with the same name but different type are usually related in some specific way, such as one being a source file, another the compiled form of that source, and a third the listing of error messages from the compiler. This component is currently used for all file systems, and is formed by taking the characters that follow the last dot in the namestring.

**version**

Corresponds to the “version number” concept in many host file systems. Typically this is a number that is incremented every time the file is modified. This component is currently unused for all file systems.

Note that a pathname is not necessarily the name of a specific file. Rather, it is a specification (possibly only a partial specification) of how to access a file. A pathname need not correspond to any file that actually exists, and more than one pathname can refer to the same file. For example, the pathname with a version of newest may refer to the same file as a pathname with the same components except a certain number as the version. Indeed, a pathname with version newest may refer to different files as time passes, because the meaning of such a pathname depends on the state of the file system. In file systems with such facilities as “links”, multiple file names, logical devices, and so on, two pathnames that look quite different may turn out to address the same file. To access a file given a pathname, one must do a file-system operation such as open-input-file.

Two important operations involving pathnames are parsing and merging. Parsing is the conversion of a filename (which might be something supplied interactively by the users when asked to supply the name of a file) into a pathname object. This operation is implementation-dependent, because the format of filenames is implementation-dependent.
Merging takes a pathname with missing components and supplies values for those components from a source of default values.

Not all of the components of a pathname need to be specified. If a component of a pathname is missing, its value is `#f`. Before the file system interface can do anything interesting with a file, such as opening the file, all the missing components of a pathname must be filled in. Pathnames with missing components are used internally for various purposes; in particular, parsing a namestring that does not specify certain components will result in a pathname with missing components.

Any component of a pathname may be the symbol `unspecific`, meaning that the component simply does not exist, for file systems in which such a value makes no sense. For example, unix and Windows file systems usually do not support version numbers, so the version component for such a host might be `unspecific`.²

In addition to `#f` and `unspecific`, the components of a pathname may take on the following meaningful values:

- **host**
  An implementation-defined type which may be tested for using the `host?` predicate.

- **device**
  On systems that support this component (Windows), it may be specified as a string containing a single alphabetic character, for which the alphabetic case is ignored.

- **directory**
  A non-empty list, which represents a **directory path**: a sequence of directories, each of which has a name in the previous directory, the last of which is the directory specified by the entire path. Each element in such a path specifies the name of the directory relative to the directory specified by the elements to its left. The first element of the list is either the symbol `absolute` or the symbol `relative`. If the first element in the list is the symbol `absolute`, then the directory component (and subsequently the pathname) is `absolute`; the first component in the sequence is to be found at the “root” of the file system. If the directory is `relative` then the first component is to be found in some as yet unspecified directory; typically this is later specified to be the current working directory.

  Aside from `absolute` and `relative`, which may only appear as the first element of the list, each subsequent element in the list is either: a string, which is a literal component; the symbol `wild`, meaningful only when used in conjunction with the directory reader; or the symbol `up`, meaning the next directory is the “parent” of the previous one. `up` corresponds to the file ‘..’ in unix and PC file systems.

² This description is adapted from *Common Lisp, The Language*, second edition, section 23.1.1.
In other words, a non-hierarchical file system is treated as if it were hierarchical, but the hierarchical features are unused. This representation is somewhat inconvenient for such file systems, but it discourages programmers from making code depend on the lack of a file hierarchy.

name
A string, which is a literal component; or the symbol \texttt{wild}, meaningful only when used in conjunction with the directory reader.

type
A string, which is a literal component; or the symbol \texttt{wild}, meaningful only when used in conjunction with the directory reader.

version
An exact positive integer, which is a literal component; the symbol \texttt{newest}, which means to choose the largest available version number for that file; the symbol \texttt{oldest}, which means to choose the smallest version number; or the symbol \texttt{wild}, meaningful only when used in conjunction with the directory reader. In the future some other possible values may be added, e.g. \texttt{installed}. Note that currently no file systems support version numbers; thus this component is not used and should be specified as \#f.

\texttt{make-pathname} host device directory name type version

Returns a pathname object whose components are the respective arguments. Each argument must satisfy the restrictions for the corresponding component, which were outlined above.

\begin{verbatim}
(make-pathname #f
  #f
  '(absolute "usr" "morris")
  "foo"
  "scm"
  #f)
⇒ #[/pathname 67 "/usr/morris/foo.scm"]
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{pathname-host} pathname
\texttt{pathname-device} pathname
\texttt{pathname-directory} pathname
\texttt{pathname-name} pathname
\texttt{pathname-type} pathname
\texttt{pathname-version} pathname

Returns a particular component of \texttt{pathname}.

\begin{verbatim}
(define x (->pathname "/usr/morris/foo.scm"))
(pathname-host x) ⇒ #[/host 1]
(pathname-device x) ⇒ unspecified
(pathname-directory x) ⇒ (absolute "usr" "morris")
(pathname-name x) ⇒ "foo"
(pathname-type x) ⇒ "scm"
(pathname-version x) ⇒ unspecified
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{pathname-new-device} pathname device
\texttt{pathname-new-directory} pathname directory
\texttt{pathname-new-name} pathname name
**pathname-new-type** *pathname type*  
**pathname-new-version** *pathname version*  
Returns a new copy of *pathname* with the respective component replaced by the second argument. *Pathname* is unchanged. Portable programs should not explicitly replace a component with **unspecific** because this might not be permitted in some situations.

```
(define p (->pathname "/usr/blisp/rel15"))
```

```
p ⇒ #[pathname 71 "/usr/blisp/rel15"]
```

```
(pathname-new-name p "rel100")
```

```
⇒ #[pathname 72 "/usr/blisp/rel100"]
```

```
(pathname-new-directory p '(relative "test" "morris"))
```

```
⇒ #[pathname 73 "test/morris/rel15"]
```

```
p ⇒ #[pathname 71 "/usr/blisp/rel15"]
```

**pathname-default-device** *pathname device*  
**pathname-default-directory** *pathname directory*  
**pathname-default-name** *pathname name*  
**pathname-default-type** *pathname type*  
**pathname-default-version** *pathname version*  
These operations are similar to the **pathname-new-component** operations, except that they only change the specified component if it has the value **#f** in *pathname*.

### 15.1.3 Operations on Pathnames

**pathname?** *object*  
Returns **#t** if *object* is a pathname; otherwise returns **#f**.

**pathname=?** *pathname1 pathname2*  
Returns **#t** if *pathname1* is equivalent to *pathname2*; otherwise returns **#f**. Pathnames are equivalent if all of their components are equivalent, hence two pathnames that are equivalent must identify the same file or equivalent partial pathnames. However, the converse is not true: non-equivalent pathnames may specify the same file (e.g. via absolute and relative directory components), and pathnames that specify no file at all (e.g. name and directory components unspecified) may be equivalent.

**pathname-absolute?** *pathname*  
Returns **#t** if *pathname* is an absolute rather than relative pathname object; otherwise returns **#f**. Specifically, this procedure returns **#t** when the directory component of *pathname* is a list starting with the symbol **absolute**, and returns **#f** in all other cases. All pathnames are either absolute or relative, so if this procedure returns **#f**, the argument is a relative pathname.

**directory-pathname?** *pathname*  
Returns **#t** if *pathname* has only directory components and no file components. This is roughly equivalent to

```
(define (directory-pathname? pathname)
  (string-null? (file-namestring pathname)))
```
except that it is faster.

**pathname-wild? pathname**  
[procedure]  
Returns `#t` if `pathname` contains any wildcard components; otherwise returns `#f`.

**merge-pathnames pathname [defaults [default-version]]**  
[procedure]  
Returns a pathname whose components are obtained by combining those of `pathname` and `defaults`. Defaults `defaults` to the value of `*default-pathname-defaults*` and `default-version` defaults to `newest`.

The pathnames are combined by components: if `pathname` has a non-missing component, that is the resulting component, otherwise the component from `defaults` is used. The default version can be `#f` to preserve the information that the component was missing from `pathname`. The directory component is handled specially: if both pathnames have directory components that are lists, and the directory component from `pathname` is relative (i.e. starts with `relative`), then the resulting directory component is formed by appending `pathname`’s component to `defaults`’s component.

For example:

```scheme
(define path1 (->pathname "scheme/foo.scm"))
(define path2 (->pathname "/usr/morris"))
(path1) ⇒ #[(pathname 74 "scheme/foo.scm")]
(path2) ⇒ #[(pathname 75 "/usr/morris")]
(merge-pathnames path1 path2) ⇒ #[(pathname 76 "/usr/scheme/foo.scm")]
(merge-pathnames path2 path1) ⇒ #[(pathname 77 "/usr/morris.scm")]
```

The merging rules for the version are more complex and depend on whether `pathname` specifies a name. If `pathname` does not specify a name, then the version, if not provided, will come from `defaults`. However, if `pathname` does specify a name then the version is not affected by `defaults`. The reason is that the version “belongs to” some other file name and is unlikely to have anything to do with the new one. Finally, if this process leaves the version missing, then `default-version` is used.

The net effect is that if the user supplies just a name, then the host, device, directory and type will come from `defaults`, but the version will come from `default-version`. If the user supplies nothing, or just a directory, the name, type and version will come over from `defaults` together.

**`*default-pathname-defaults*`**  
[variable]  
This is the default pathname-defaults pathname; if any pathname primitive that needs a set of defaults is not given one, it uses this one. `set-working-directorypathname!` sets this variable to a new value, computed by merging the new working directory with the variable’s old value.

**pathname-default pathname device directory name type version**  
[procedure]  
This procedure defaults all of the components of `pathname` simultaneously. It could have been defined by:
(define (pathname-default pathname
  device directory name type version)
  (make-pathname (pathname-host pathname)
  (or (pathname-device pathname) device)
  (or (pathname-directory pathname) directory)
  (or (pathname-name pathname) name)
  (or (pathname-type pathname) type)
  (or (pathname-version pathname) version)))

file-namestring pathname
  [procedure]
directory-namestring pathname
  [procedure]
host-namestring pathname
  [procedure]
enough-namestring pathname [defaults]
  [procedure]

These procedures return a string corresponding to a subset of the pathname information. file-namestring returns a string representing just the name, type and version components of pathname; the result of directory-namestring represents just the host, device, and directory components; and host-namestring returns a string for just the host portion.

enough-namestring takes another argument, defaults. It returns an abbreviated namestring that is just sufficient to identify the file named by pathname when considered relative to the defaults (which defaults to *default-pathname-defaults*).

(file-namestring "/usr/morris/minor.van")
⇒ "minor.van"
(directory-namestring "/usr/morris/minor.van")
⇒ "/usr/morris/"
(enough-namestring "/usr/morris/men")
⇒ "men" ;perhaps

file-pathname pathname
  [procedure]
directory-pathname pathname
  [procedure]
enough-pathname pathname [defaults]
  [procedure]

These procedures return a pathname corresponding to a subset of the pathname information. file-pathname returns a pathname with just the name, type and version components of pathname. The result of directory-pathname is a pathname containing the host, device and directory components of pathname.

enough-pathname takes another argument, defaults. It returns an abbreviated pathname that is just sufficient to identify the file named by pathname when considered relative to the defaults (which defaults to *default-pathname-defaults*).

These procedures are similar to file-namestring, directory-namestring and enough-namestring, but they return pathnames instead of strings.

directory-pathname-as-file pathname
  [procedure]

Returns a pathname that is equivalent to pathname, but in which the directory component is represented as a file. The last directory is removed from the directory component and converted into name and type components. This is the inverse operation to pathname-as-directory.
(directory-pathname-as-file (-> pathname "/usr/blisp/")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/blisp"]

pathname-as-directory pathname
    [procedure]
Returns a pathname that is equivalent to pathname, but in which any file components
have been converted to a directory component. If pathname does not have name,
type, or version components, it is returned without modification. Otherwise, these
file components are converted into a string, and the string is added to the end of the
list of directory components. This is the inverse operation to directory-pathname-
as-file.

(pathname-as-directory (-> pathname "/usr/blisp/rel5")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/blisp/rel5/"]

15.1.4 Miscellaneous Pathname Procedures
This section gives some standard operations on host objects, and some procedures that
return some useful pathnames.

local-host
    [variable]
This variable has as its value the host object that describes the local host’s file system.

host? object
    [procedure]
Returns #t if object is a pathname host; otherwise returns #f.

host=? host1 host2
    [procedure]
Returns #t if host1 and host2 denote the same pathname host; otherwise returns #f.

init-file-pathname [host]
    [procedure]
Returns a pathname for the user’s initialization file on host. The host argument
defaults to the value of local-host. If the initialization file does not exist this
procedure returns #f.

Under Unix, the init file is called ‘.scheme.init’; under Windows, the init file is
called ‘scheme.ini’. In either case, it is located in the user’s home directory, which
is computed by user-homedir-pathname.

user-homedir-pathname [host]
    [procedure]
Returns a pathname for the user’s “home directory” on host. The host argument
defaults to the value of local-host. The concept of a “home directory” is itself
somewhat implementation-dependent, but it should be the place where the user keeps
personal files, such as initialization files and mail.

Under Unix, the user’s home directory is specified by the HOME environment variable.
If this variable is undefined, the user name is computed using the getlogin system
call, or if that fails, the getuid system call. The resulting user name is passed to the
getpwnam system call to obtain the home directory.

Under Windows, several heuristics are tried to find the user’s home directory. The
user’s home directory is computed by examining several environment variables, in the
following order:

- HOMEDRIVE and HOMEPATH are both defined and ‘%HOMEDRIVE%\%HOMEPATH%’ is an
existing directory. (These variables are automatically defined by Windows NT.)
• HOME is defined and ‘%HOME%’ is an existing directory.
• USERDIR and USERNAME are defined and ‘%USERDIR%\%USERNAME%’ is an existing directory.
• USERDIR and USER are defined and ‘%USERDIR%\%USER%’ is an existing directory.
• USERNAME is defined and ‘%USERNAME%’ is an existing directory on the Windows system drive.
• USER is defined and ‘%USER%’ is an existing directory on the Windows system drive.
• Finally, if all else fails, the Windows system drive is used as the home directory.

\[ \text{system-library-pathname } \text{pathname} \]  
Locates pathname in MIT/GNU Scheme’s system library directory. An error of type \text{condition-type:file-operation-error} is signalled if pathname cannot be located on the library search path.

\[(\text{system-library-pathname }"\text{compiler.com}"
\Rightarrow \#[\text{pathname }45 \"/usr/local/lib/mit-scheme/compiler.com\"]\]

\[ \text{system-library-directory-pathname } \text{pathname} \]  
Locates the pathname of an MIT/GNU Scheme system library directory. An error of type \text{condition-type:file-operation-error} is signalled if pathname cannot be located on the library search path.

\[(\text{system-library-directory-pathname }"\text{options}"
\Rightarrow \#[\text{pathname }44 \"/usr/local/lib/mit-scheme/options/\"]\]

15.2 Working Directory

When MIT/GNU Scheme is started, the current working directory (or simply, working directory) is initialized in an operating-system dependent manner; usually, it is the directory in which Scheme was invoked. The working directory can be determined from within Scheme by calling the \text{pwd} procedure, and changed by calling the \text{cd} procedure. Each REP loop has its own working directory, and inferior REP loops initialize their working directory from the value in effect in their superior at the time they are created.

\[ \text{working-directory-pathname} \]  
\[ \text{pwd} \]  
Returns the current working directory as a pathname that has no name, type, or version components, just host, device, and directory components. \text{pwd} is an alias for \text{working-directory-pathname}; the long name is intended for programs and the short name for interactive use.

\[ \text{set-working-directory-pathname! } \text{filename} \]  
\[ \text{cd } \text{filename} \]  
Makes filename the current working directory and returns the new current working directory as a pathname. Filename is coerced to a pathname using \text{pathname-as-directory}. \text{cd} is an alias for \text{set-working-directory-pathname!}; the long name is intended for programs and the short name for interactive use.
Additionally, `set-working-directory-pathname!` modifies the value of `*default-pathname-defaults*` by merging the new working directory into it. When this procedure is executed in the top-level REP loop, it changes the working directory of the running Scheme executable.

```
(set-working-directory-pathname! "/usr/morris/blisp")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/morris/blisp/"
(set-working-directory-pathname! "~")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/morris/"
```

This procedure signals an error if `filename` does not refer to an existing directory.

If `filename` describes a relative rather than absolute pathname, this procedure interprets it as relative to the current working directory, before changing the working directory.

```
(working-directory-pathname)
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/morris/"
(set-working-directory-pathname! "foo")
⇒ #[pathname "/usr/morris/foo/"
```

`with-working-directory-pathname` 

```
with-working-directory-pathname filename thunk
```

This procedure temporarily rebinds the current working directory to `filename`, invokes `thunk` (a procedure of no arguments), then restores the previous working directory and returns the value yielded by `thunk`. `Filename` is coerced to a pathname using `pathname-as-directory`. In addition to binding the working directory, `with-working-directory-pathname` also binds the variable `*default-pathname-defaults*`, merging the old value of that variable with the new working directory pathname. Both bindings are performed in exactly the same way as dynamic binding of a variable (see Section 2.3 [Dynamic Binding], page 18).

### 15.3 File Manipulation

This section describes procedures that manipulate files and directories. Any of these procedures can signal a number of errors for many reasons. The specifics of these errors are much too operating-system dependent to document here. However, if such an error is signalled by one of these procedures, it will be of type `condition-type:file-operation-error`.

```
file-exists? filename
file-exists-direct? filename
file-exists-indirect? filename
```

These procedures return `#t` if `filename` is an existing file or directory; otherwise they return `#f`. In operating systems that support symbolic links, if the file is a symbolic link, `file-exists-direct?` tests for the existence of the link, while `file-exists-indirect?` and `file-exists?` test for the existence of the file pointed to by the link.

```
copy-file source-filename target-filename
```

Makes a copy of the file named by `source-filename`. The copy is performed by creating a new file called `target-filename`, and filling it with the same data as `source-filename`. 
rename-file source-filename target-filename

Changes the name of source-filename to be target-filename. In the unix implementation, this will not rename across file systems.

delete-file filename

Deletes the file named filename.

delete-file-no-errors filename

Like delete-file, but returns a boolean value indicating whether an error occurred during the deletion. If no errors occurred, #t is returned. If an error of type condition-type:file-error or condition-type:port-error is signalled, #f is returned.

hard-link-file source-filename target-filename

Makes a hard link from source-filename to target-filename. This operation gives the file specified by source-filename a new name, in addition to the old name.

This currently works only on unix systems. It is further restricted to work only when source-filename and target-filename refer to names in the same file system.

soft-link-file source-filename target-filename

Creates a new soft link called target-filename that points at the file source-filename. (Soft links are also sometimes called symbolic links.) Note that source-filename will be interpreted as a string (although you may specify it as a pathname object, if you wish). The contents of this string will be stored in the file system as the soft link. When a file operation attempts to open the link, the contents of the link are interpreted relative to the link’s location at that time.

This currently works only on unix systems.

make-directory filename

Creates a new directory named filename. Signals an error if filename already exists, or if the directory cannot be created.

delete-directory filename

Deletes the directory named filename. Signals an error if the directory does not exist, is not a directory, or contains any files or subdirectories.

->truename filename

This procedure attempts to discover and return the “true name” of the file associated with filename within the file system. An error of type condition-type:file-operation-error is signalled if the appropriate file cannot be located within the file system.

call-with-temporary-file-pathname procedure

Calls temporary-file-pathname to create a temporary file, then calls procedure with one argument, the pathname referring to that file. When procedure returns, if the temporary file still exists, it is deleted; then, the value yielded by procedure is returned. If procedure escapes from its continuation, and the file still exists, it is deleted.
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**temporary-file-pathname** [directory]  [procedure]

Creates a new empty temporary file and returns a pathname referring to it. The temporary file is created with Scheme’s default permissions, so barring unusual circumstances it can be opened for input and/or output without error. The temporary file will remain in existence until explicitly deleted. If the file still exists when the Scheme process terminates, it will be deleted.

If directory is specified, the temporary file will be stored there. If it is not specified, or if it is #f, the temporary file will be stored in the directory returned by temporary-directory-pathname.

**temporary-directory-pathname**  [procedure]

Returns the pathname of an existing directory that can be used to store temporary files. These directory names are tried, in order, until a writeable directory is found:

- The directories specified by the environment variables TMPDIR, TEMP, or TMP.
- Under unix, the directories ‘/var/tmp’, ‘/usr/tmp’, or ‘/tmp’.
- Under Windows, the following directories on the system drive: ‘\temp’, ‘\tmp’, or ‘\’.
- Under Windows, the current directory, as specified by *default-pathname-defaults*.

**file-directory? filename**  [procedure]

Returns #t if the file named filename exists and is a directory. Otherwise returns #f. In operating systems that support symbolic links, if filename names a symbolic link, this examines the file linked to, not the link itself.

This is equivalent to

```
(eq? 'directory (file-type-indirect filename))
```

**file-regular? filename**  [procedure]

Returns #t if the file named filename exists and is a regular file (i.e. not a directory, symbolic link, device file, etc.). Otherwise returns #f. In operating systems that support symbolic links, if filename names a symbolic link, this examines the file linked to, not the link itself.

This is equivalent to

```
(eq? 'regular (file-type-indirect filename))
```

**file-symbolic-link? filename**  [procedure]

In operating systems that support symbolic links, if the file named filename exists and is a symbolic link, this procedure returns the contents of the symbolic link as a newly allocated string. The returned value is the name of the file that the symbolic link points to and must be interpreted relative to the directory of filename. If filename either does not exist or is not a symbolic link, or if the operating system does not support symbolic links, this procedure returns #f.

**file-type-direct filename**  [procedure]

**file-type-indirect filename**  [procedure]

If the file named filename exists, file-type-direct returns a symbol specifying what type of file it is. For example, if filename refers to a directory, the symbol directory is returned. If filename doesn’t refer to an existing file, #f is returned.
If \textit{filename} refers to a symbolic link, \texttt{file-type-direct} returns the type of the link itself, while \texttt{file-type-indirect} returns the type of the file linked to.

At this time, the symbols that can be returned are the following. The names are intended to be self-explanatory. Most of these names can only be returned on particular operating systems, and so the operating-system name is prefixed to the name.

\begin{itemize}
  \item regular
  \item directory
  \item unix-symbolic-link
  \item unix-character-device
  \item unix-block-device
  \item unix-named-pipe
  \item unix-socket
  \item win32-named-pipe
\end{itemize}

\texttt{file-readable? \hspace{1em} filename} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} Returns \texttt{#t} if \textit{filename} names a file that can be opened for input; i.e. a \textit{readable} file. Otherwise returns \texttt{#f}.

\texttt{file-writeable? \hspace{1em} filename} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} Returns \texttt{#t} if \textit{filename} names a file that can be opened for output; i.e. a \textit{writeable} file. Otherwise returns \texttt{#f}.

\texttt{file-executable? \hspace{1em} filename} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} Returns \texttt{#t} if \textit{filename} names a file that can be executed. Otherwise returns \texttt{#f}. Under unix, an executable file is identified by its mode bits. Under Windows, an executable file has one of the file extensions \texttt{.exe}, \texttt{.com}, or \texttt{.bat}.

\texttt{file-access \hspace{1em} filename \hspace{1em} mode} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} \textit{Mode} must be an exact integer between 0 and 7 inclusive; it is a bitwise-encoded predicate selector with 1 meaning “executable”, 2 meaning “writeable”, and 4 meaning “readable”. \texttt{file-access} returns \texttt{#t} if \textit{filename} exists and satisfies the predicates selected by \textit{mode}. For example, if \textit{mode} is 5, then \textit{filename} must be both readable and executable. If \textit{filename} doesn’t exist, or if it does not satisfy the selected predicates, \texttt{#f} is returned.

\texttt{file-eq? \hspace{1em} filename1 \hspace{1em} filename2} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} Determines whether \textit{filename1} and \textit{filename2} refer to the same file. Under unix, this is done by comparing the inodes and devices of the two files. Under Windows, this is done by comparing the filename strings.

\texttt{file-modes \hspace{1em} filename} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[procedure]} \hspace{1em} If \textit{filename} names an existing file, \texttt{file-modes} returns an exact non-negative integer encoding the file’s permissions. The encoding of this integer is operating-system dependent. Under unix, it is the least-significant 12 bits of the \texttt{st_mode} element of the \texttt{struct stat} structure. Under Windows, it is the file attribute bits, which are described below. If \textit{filename} does not name an existing file, \texttt{#f} is returned.
set-file-modes! filename modes  [procedure]
   Filename must name an existing file. Modes must be an exact non-negative integer
   that could have been returned by a call to file-modes. set-file-modes! modifies
   the file’s permissions to be those encoded by modes.

nt-file-mode/read-only  [variable]
nt-file-mode/hidden  [variable]
nt-file-mode/system  [variable]
nt-file-mode/directory  [variable]
nt-file-mode/archive  [variable]
nt-file-mode/normal  [variable]
nt-file-mode/temporary  [variable]
nt-file-mode/compressed  [variable]
   The values of these variables are the “mode bits” that comprise the value returned
   by file-modes under Windows. These bits are small integers that are combined by
   adding to form a complete set of modes. The integer zero represents a set of modes
   in which none of these bits are set.

file-modification-time filename  [procedure]
   Returns the modification time of filename as an exact non-negative integer. The result
   may be compared to other file times using ordinary integer arithmetic. If filename
   names a file that does not exist, file-modification-time returns #f.
   In operating systems that support symbolic links, if filename names a symbolic
   link, file-modification-time returns the modification time of the file linked to.
   An alternate procedure, file-modification-time-direct, returns the modification
   time of the link itself; in all other respects it is identical to file-modification-
   time. For symmetry, file-modification-time-indirect is a synonym of file-
   modification-time.

file-access-time filename  [procedure]
   Returns the access time of filename as an exact non-negative integer. The result may
   be compared to other file times using ordinary integer arithmetic. If filename
   names a file that does not exist, file-access-time returns #f.
   In operating systems that support symbolic links, if filename names a symbolic link,
   file-access-time returns the access time of the file linked to. An alternate pro-
   cedure, file-access-time-direct, returns the access time of the link itself; in all
   other respects it is identical to file-access-time. For symmetry, file-access-
   time-indirect is a synonym of file-access-time.

set-file-times! filename access-time modification-time  [procedure]
   Filename must name an existing file, while access-time and modification-time must
   be valid file times that might have been returned by file-access-time and file-
   modification-time, respectively. set-file-times! alters the access and modification
   times of the file specified by filename to the values given by access-time and
   modification-time, respectively. For convenience, either of the time arguments may be
   specified as #f; in this case the corresponding time is not changed. set-file-times!
   returns an unspecified value.
current-file-time  
Returns the current time as an exact non-negative integer, in the same format used by the above file-time procedures. This number can be compared to other file times using ordinary arithmetic operations.

file-touch filename  
_Touches_ the file named _filename_. If the file already exists, its modification time is set to the current file time and #f is returned. Otherwise, the file is created and #t is returned. This is an atomic test-and-set operation, so it is useful as a synchronization mechanism.

file-length filename  
Returns the length, in bytes, of the file named _filename_ as an exact non-negative integer.

file-attributes filename  
This procedure determines if the file named _filename_ exists, and returns information about it if so; if the file does not exist, it returns #f.

In operating systems that support symbolic links, if _filename_ names a symbolic link, _file-attributes_ returns the attributes of the link itself. An alternate procedure, _file-attributes-indirect_, returns the attributes of the file linked to; in all other respects it is identical to _file-attributes_. For symmetry, _file-attributes-direct_ is a synonym of _file-attributes_.

The information returned by _file-attributes_ is decoded by accessor procedures. The following accessors are defined in all operating systems:

file-attributes/type attributes  
The file type: #t if the file is a directory, a character string (the name linked to) if a symbolic link, or #f for all other types of file.

file-attributes/access-time attributes  
The last access time of the file, an exact non-negative integer.

file-attributes/modification-time attributes  
The last modification time of the file, an exact non-negative integer.

file-attributes/change-time attributes  
The last change time of the file, an exact non-negative integer.

file-attributes/length attributes  
The length of the file in bytes.

file-attributes/mode-string attributes  
The mode string of the file, a newly allocated string showing the file’s mode bits. Under unix, this string is in unix format. Under Windows, this string shows the standard “DOS” attributes in their usual format.

file-attributes/n-links attributes  
The number of links to the file, an exact positive integer. Under Windows, this is always 1.
The following additional accessors are defined under Unix:

```scheme
(file-attributes/uid attributes) [procedure]
The user id of the file’s owner, an exact non-negative integer.
```

```scheme
(file-attributes/gid attributes) [procedure]
The group id of the file’s group, an exact non-negative integer.
```

```scheme
(file-attributes/inode-number attributes) [procedure]
The inode number of the file, an exact non-negative integer.
```

The following additional accessor is defined under Windows:

```scheme
(file-attributes/modes attributes) [procedure]
The attribute bits of the file. This is an exact non-negative integer containing the
file’s attribute bits, exactly as specified by the operating system’s API.
```

### 15.4 Directory Reader

```scheme
directory-read directory [sort?] [procedure]
Directory must be an object that can be converted into a pathname by
->pathname. The directory specified by directory is read, and the contents of the
directory is returned as a newly allocated list of absolute pathnames. The result
is sorted according to the usual sorting conventions for directories, unless sort?
is specified as #f. If directory has name, type, or version components, the returned
list contains only those pathnames whose name, type, and version components match
those of directory; wild or #f as one of these components means “match anything”.
The Windows implementation supports “globbing”, in which the characters * and ?
are interpreted to mean “match anything” and “match any character”, respectively.
This “globbing” is supported only in the file part of directory.
```

### 15.5 Date and Time

MIT/GNU Scheme provides a simple set of procedures for manipulating date and time
information. There are four time representations, each of which serves a different purpose.
Each representation may be converted to any of the others.

The primary time representation, universal time, is an exact non-negative integer counting
the number of seconds that have elapsed since midnight January 1, 1900 UTC. (UTC
stands for Coordinated Universal Time, and is the modern name for Greenwich Mean Time.)
This format is produced by `get-universal-time` and `decoded-time->universal-time`.

The second representation, decoded time, is a record structure in which the time is
broken down into components, such as month, minute, etc. Decoded time is always relative
to a particular time zone, which is a component of the structure. This format is produced
by `global-decoded-time` and `local-decoded-time`.

The third representation, file time, is an exact non-negative integer that is larger for
increasing time. Unlike universal time, this representation is operating-system depend-
ent. This format is produced by all of the file-attribute procedures, for example `file-
modification-time` and `file-attributes`. 
The fourth representation, the time string, is an external representation for time. This format is defined by RFC-822, Standard for the format of ARPA Internet text messages, with the modification that years are represented as four-digit numbers rather than two-digit numbers. This format is the standard format for Internet email and numerous other network protocols.

Within this section, argument variables named universal-time, decoded-time, file-time, and time-string are respectively required to be of the corresponding format.

15.5.1 Universal Time

get-universal-time [procedure]
Return the current time in universal format.

(get-universal-time) ⇒ 3131453078

epoch [variable]
epoch is the representation of midnight January 1, 1970 UTC in universal-time format.

epoch ⇒ 2208988800

15.5.2 Decoded Time

Objects representing standard time components, such as seconds and minutes, are required to be exact non-negative integers. Seconds and minutes must be inclusively between 0 and 59; hours between 0 and 23; days between 1 and 31; months between 1 and 12; years are represented in “four-digit” form, in which 1999 is represented as 1999 — not 99.

local-decoded-time [procedure]
Return the current time in decoded format. The decoded time is represented in the local time zone.

(pp (local-decoded-time))
- #[decoded-time 76]
- (second 2)
- (minute 12)
- (hour 11)
- (day 27)
- (month 4)
- (year 1999)
- (day-of-week 1)
- (daylight-savings-time 1)
- (zone 5)

global-decoded-time [procedure]
Return the current time in decoded format. The decoded time is represented in UTC.
make-decoded-time  second  minute  hour  day  month  year  [zone]  [procedure]
Return a new decoded-time object representing the given time. The arguments must be valid components according to the above rules, and must form a valid date.

If zone is not supplied or is #f, the resulting decoded time will be represented in the local time zone. Otherwise, zone must be a valid time zone, and the result will be represented in that zone.

Warning: because this procedure depends on the operating system’s runtime library, it is not capable of representing all dates. In particular, on most unix systems, it is not possible to encode dates that occur prior to midnight, January 1, 1970 UTC. Attempting to do this will signal an error.
decoded-time/second decoded-time [procedure]
decoded-time/minute decoded-time [procedure]
decoded-time/hour decoded-time [procedure]
decoded-time/day decoded-time [procedure]
decoded-time/month decoded-time [procedure]
decoded-time/year decoded-time [procedure]

Return the corresponding component of decoded-time.

(decoded-time/second (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ 17
(decoded-time/year (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ 1999
(decoded-time/day (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ 26

decoded-time/day-of-week decoded-time [procedure]
Return the day of the week on which decoded-time falls, encoded as an exact integer between 0 (Monday) and 6 (Sunday), inclusive.

(decoded-time/day-of-week (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ 4

decoded-time/daylight-savings-time? decoded-time [procedure]
Return #t if decoded-time is represented using daylight savings time. Otherwise return #f.

(decoded-time/daylight-savings-time? (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ #f

decoded-time/zone decoded-time [procedure]
Return the time zone in which decoded-time is represented. This is an exact rational number between -24 and +24 inclusive, that when multiplied by 3600 is an integer. The value is the number of hours west of UTC.

(decoded-time/zone (local-decoded-time)) ⇒ 5

time-zone? object [procedure]
Returns #t if object is an exact number between -24 and +24 inclusive, that when multiplied by 3600 is an integer.

(time-zone? -5) ⇒ #t
(time-zone? 11/2) ⇒ #t
(time-zone? 11/7) ⇒ #f

month/max-days month [procedure]
Returns the maximum number of days possible in month. Month must be an exact integer between 1 and 12 inclusive.

(month/max-days 2) ⇒ 29
(month/max-days 3) ⇒ 31
(month/max-days 4) ⇒ 30

15.5.3 File Time
As stated above, file time is operating-system dependent. As of this writing, two formats are used. For unix and Windows systems, file time is the number of seconds since midnight January 1, 1970 UTC (the standard unix time convention).

The following procedures generate their results in file-time format:
file-access-time
file-access-time-direct
file-access-time-indirect
file-modification-time
file-modification-time-direct
file-modification-time-indirect
file-attributes/access-time
file-attributes/modification-time
file-attributes/change-time

Additionally, set-file-times! accepts its time arguments in file-time format.

15.5.4 Time-Format Conversion

The procedures described in this section convert times from one format to another.

universal-time->local-decoded-time universal-time [procedure]
universal-time->global-decoded-time universal-time [procedure]

Converts an argument in universal-time format to decoded-time format. The result is in the local time zone or UTC, respectively.

```
(pp (universal-time->local-decoded-time (get-universal-time)))
⇒ #[decoded-time 21]
⇒ (second 23)
⇒ (minute 57)
⇒ (hour 17)
⇒ (day 29)
⇒ (month 4)
⇒ (year 1999)
⇒ (day-of-week 3)
⇒ (daylight-savings-time 1)
⇒ (zone 5)
```

```
(pp (universal-time->global-decoded-time
     (get-universal-time)))
⇒ #[decoded-time 22]
⇒ (second 27)
⇒ (minute 57)
⇒ (hour 21)
⇒ (day 29)
⇒ (month 4)
⇒ (year 1999)
⇒ (day-of-week 3)
⇒ (daylight-savings-time 0)
⇒ (zone 0)
```

universal-time->file-time universal-time [procedure]

Converts an argument in universal-time format to file-time format.

```
(universal-time->file-time (get-universal-time))
⇒ 925422988
```
universal-time->local-time-string universal-time

Converts an argument in universal-time format to a time string. The result is in the
local time zone or UTC, respectively.

```
(universal-time->local-time-string (get-universal-time))
⇒ "Thu, 29 Apr 1999 17:55:31 -0400"
(universal-time->global-time-string (get-universal-time))
⇒ "Thu, 29 Apr 1999 21:55:51 +0000"
```

decoded-time->universal-time decoded-time

Converts an argument in decoded-time format to universal-time format.

```
(decoded-time->universal-time (local-decoded-time))
⇒ 3134411942
(decoded-time->universal-time (global-decoded-time))
⇒ 3134411947
```

decoded-time->file-time decoded-time

Converts an argument in decoded-time format to file-time format.

```
(decoded-time->file-time (local-decoded-time))
⇒ 925423191
(decoded-time->file-time (global-decoded-time))
⇒ 925423195
```

decoded-time->string decoded-time

Convert an argument in decoded-time format to a time string.

```
(decoded-time->string (local-decoded-time))
⇒ "Thu, 29 Apr 1999 18:00:43 -0400"
(decoded-time->string (global-decoded-time))
⇒ "Thu, 29 Apr 1999 22:00:46 +0000"
```

file-time->universal-time file-time

Converts an argument in universal-time format to file-time format.

```
(file-time->universal-time (file-modification-time "/"))
⇒ 3133891907
```

file-time->local-decoded-time file-time

Converts an argument in file-time format to decoded-time format. The result is in
the local time zone or UTC, respectively.

```
(file-time->global-decoded-time file-time)
⇒ 3133891907
```

file-time->global-decoded-time file-time

Converts an argument in file-time format to decoded-time format. The result is in
the local time zone or UTC, respectively.
file-time->local-time-string file-time

Converts an argument in file-time format to a time string. The result is in the local time zone or UTC, respectively.

(file-time->local-time-string (file-modification-time "/"))
⇒ "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 17:31:47 -0400"
(file-time->global-time-string (file-modification-time "/"))
⇒ "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 21:31:47 +0000"

string->universal-time time-string

Converts a time-string argument to universal-time format.

(string->universal-time "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 21:31:47 +0000")
⇒ 3133888307
(string->universal-time "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 17:31:47 -0400")
⇒ 3133888307

string->decoded-time time-string

Converts a time-string argument to decoded-time format.
(pp (string->decoded-time "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 17:31:47 -0400"))
  - #[decoded-time 30]
  - (second 47)
  - (minute 31)
  - (hour 17)
  - (day 23)
  - (month 4)
  - (year 1999)
  - (day-of-week 4)
  - (daylight-savings-time 0)
  - (zone 4)

string->file-time time-string
     [procedure]
     Converts a time-string argument to file-time format.
     (string->file-time "Fri, 23 Apr 1999 17:31:47 -0400")
     ⇒ 924899507

15.5.5 External Representation of Time

The normal external representation for time is the time string, as described above. The
procedures in this section generate alternate external representations of time which are more
verbose and may be more suitable for presentation to human readers.

decoded-time/date-string decoded-time
     [procedure]
decoded-time/time-string decoded-time
     [procedure]
     These procedures return strings containing external representations of the date and
time, respectively, represented by decoded-time. The results are implicitly in local
time.
     (decoded-time/date-string (local-decoded-time))
     ⇒ "Tuesday March 30, 1999"
     (decoded-time/time-string (local-decoded-time))
     ⇒ "11:22:38 AM"

day-of-week/long-string day-of-week
     [procedure]
day-of-week/short-string day-of-week
     [procedure]
     Returns a string representing the given day-of-week. The argument must be an exact
non-negative integer between 0 and 6 inclusive. day-of-week/long-string returns
a long string that fully spells out the name of the day. day-of-week/short-string
returns a shortened string that abbreviates the day to three letters.
     (day-of-week/long-string 0) ⇒ "Monday"
     (day-of-week/short-string 0) ⇒ "Mon"
     (day-of-week/short-string 3) ⇒ "Thu"

month/long-string month
     [procedure]
month/short-string month
     [procedure]
     Returns a string representing the given month. The argument must be an exact
non-negative integer between 1 and 12 inclusive. month/long-string returns a long
string that fully spells out the name of the month. month/short-string returns a
shortened string that abbreviates the month to three letters.
(month/long-string 1) ⇒ "January"
(month/short-string 1) ⇒ "Jan"
(month/short-string 10) ⇒ "Oct"

**time-zone->string**  [procedure]

Returns a string corresponding to the given time zone. This string is the same string that is used to generate RFC-822 time strings.

(time-zone->string 5) ⇒ "-0500"
(time-zone->string -4) ⇒ "+0400"
(time-zone->string 11/2) ⇒ "-0530"

### 15.6 Machine Time

The previous section dealt with procedures that manipulate clock time. This section describes procedures that deal with computer time: elapsed CPU time, elapsed real time, and so forth. These procedures are useful for measuring the amount of time it takes to execute code.

Some of the procedures in this section manipulate a time representation called *ticks*. A tick is a unit of time that is unspecified here but can be converted to and from seconds by supplied procedures. A count in ticks is represented as an exact integer. At present each tick is one millisecond, but this may change in the future.

**process-time-clock**  [procedure]

Returns the amount of process time, in ticks, that has elapsed since Scheme was started. Process time is measured by the operating system and is time during which the Scheme process is computing. It does not include time in system calls, but depending on the operating system it may include time used by subprocesses.

(process-time-clock) ⇒ 21290

**real-time-clock**  [procedure]

Returns the amount of real time, in ticks, that has elapsed since Scheme was started. Real time is the time measured by an ordinary clock.

(real-time-clock) ⇒ 33474836

**internal-time/ticks->seconds**  ticks  [procedure]

Returns the number of seconds corresponding to *ticks*. The result is always a real number.

(internal-time/ticks->seconds 21290) ⇒ 21.29
(internal-time/ticks->seconds 33474836) ⇒ 33474.836

**internal-time/seconds->ticks**  seconds  [procedure]

Returns the number of ticks corresponding to *seconds*. *Seconds* must be a real number.

(internal-time/seconds->ticks 20.88) ⇒ 20880
(internal-time/seconds->ticks 20.83) ⇒ 20830

**system-clock**  [procedure]

Returns the amount of process time, in seconds, that has elapsed since Scheme was started. Roughly equivalent to:
(internal-time/ticks->seconds (process-time-clock))

Example:

(system-clock) ⇒ 20.88

runtime [procedure]
Returns the amount of process time, in seconds, that has elapsed since Scheme was started. However, it does not include time spent in garbage collection.

(runtime) ⇒ 20.83

with-timings thunk receiver [procedure]
Calls thunk with no arguments. After thunk returns, receiver is called with three arguments describing the time spent while computing thunk: the elapsed run time, the amount of time spent in the garbage collector, and the elapsed real time. All three times are in ticks.

This procedure is most useful for doing performance measurements, and is designed to have relatively low overhead.

(with-timings
  (lambda () ... hairy computation ...)
  (lambda (run-time gc-time real-time)
    (write (internal-time/ticks->seconds run-time))
    (write-char #\space)
    (write (internal-time/ticks->seconds gc-time))
    (write-char #\space)
    (write (internal-time/ticks->seconds real-time))
    (newline)))

measure-interval runtime? procedure [procedure]
Calls procedure, passing it the current process time, in seconds, as an argument. The result of this call must be another procedure. When procedure returns, the resulting procedure is tail-recursively called with the ending time, in seconds, as an argument.

If runtime? is #f, the elapsed time is deducted from the elapsed system time returned by runtime.

While this procedure can be used for time measurement, its interface is somewhat clumsy for that purpose. We recommend that you use with-timings instead, because it is more convenient and has lower overhead.

(measure-interval #t
  (lambda (start-time)
    (let ((v ... hairy computation ...))
      (lambda (end-time)
        (write (- end-time start-time))
        (newline)
        v))))
15.7 Subprocesses

MIT/GNU Scheme provides the ability to run and control subprocesses. This support is divided into two parts: a low-level set of primitives that maps onto the underlying operating system’s process-control primitives, and a high-level set of procedures for starting a subprocess and running it to completion in a single call. Subprocesses that are run in the latter fashion are referred to as synchronous, because they are started and stopped in synchrony with a Scheme procedure call.

This chapter documents Scheme’s high-level synchronous-subprocess support. The low-level support is not documented but is available for those who are willing to read the source code.

Synchronous-subprocess support is a run-time-loadable option. To use it, execute

```
(load-option 'synchronous-subprocess)
```

once before calling it.

15.7.1 Subprocess Procedures

There are two commands for running synchronous subprocesses under Scheme. `run-shell-command` is very simple to use, provides access to all shell features, and is to be preferred in most situations. `run-synchronous-subprocess` allows direct execution of a program and precise control of the command-line arguments passed to the program, but does not provide file globbing, I/O redirection, or other shell features.

`run-shell-command` runs `command`, which must be a string. `Command` is passed to a command shell for interpretation; how the shell is chosen is detailed below.

The `options` are a sequence of keyword/value pairs that specify optional behavior. See below for more information about options.

`run-shell-command` waits until the subprocess completes its execution and returns the exit code from the subprocess. If the subprocess is killed or stopped, an error is signalled and the procedure does not return.

```
run-synchronous-subprocess program arguments option . . .
```

Runs `program`, passing it the given command-line `arguments`. `Program` must be either the name of a program on the path, or else a pathname to a specific program. `Arguments` must be a list of strings; each string is a single command-line argument to the program.

The `options` are a sequence of keyword/value pairs that specify optional behavior. See below for more information about options.

`run-synchronous-subprocess` waits until the subprocess completes its execution and returns the exit code from the subprocess. If the subprocess is killed or stopped, an error is signalled and the procedure does not return.

15.7.2 Subprocess Conditions

If a subprocess spawned by one of the above procedures is killed or suspended, then one of the following errors will be signalled.
**condition-type:**subprocess-signalled  
subprocess reason

This condition type is a subtype of condition-type:subprocess-abnormal-termination. It is signalled when the subprocess is killed.

Subprocess is an object that represents the subprocess involved. The internals of this object can be accessed but the interface is not documented at this time; see the source code for details.

Reason is interesting only on unix systems, where it is the signal that killed the process. On other systems it has a fixed value that conveys no useful information.

**condition-type:**subprocess-stopped  
subprocess reason

This condition type is a subtype of condition-type:subprocess-abnormal-termination. It is signalled when the subprocess is stopped or suspended.

Subprocess is an object that represents the subprocess involved. The internals of this object can be accessed but the interface is not documented at this time; see the source code for details.

Reason is interesting only on unix systems, where it is the signal that stopped the process. On other systems it has a fixed value that conveys no useful information.

**condition-type:**subprocess-abnormal-termination

This condition type is a subtype of condition-type:error. This is an abstract type that is never signalled. It is provided so that condition handlers can be bound to it.

### 15.7.3 Subprocess Options

The following subprocess options may be passed to run-shell-command or run-synchronous-subprocess. These options are passed as alternating keyword/value pairs, for example:

```scheme
(run-shell-command "ls /"
 'output my-output-port
 'output-buffer-size 8192)
```

The example shows a shell command being run with two options specified: output and output-buffer-size.

**input** port

Specifies the standard input of the subprocess. Port may be an input port, in which case characters are read from port and fed to the subprocess until port reaches end-of-file. Alternatively, port may be #f, indicating that the subprocess has no standard input.

The default value of this option is #f.

```scheme
(call-with-input-file "foo.in"
 (lambda (port)
      (run-shell-command "cat > /dev/null " 'input port)))
```

**input-line-translation** line-ending

Specifies how line-endings should be translated when writing characters to the subprocess. Ignored if the input option is #f. Line-ending must be either a string specifying
the line ending, or the symbol `default`, meaning to use the operating system’s standard line ending. In either case, newline characters to be written to the input port are translated to the specified line ending before being written.

The default value of this option is `default`. 

```scheme
(call-with-input-file "foo.in"
 (lambda (port)
   (run-shell-command "cat > /dev/null"
     'input port
     'input-line-translation "\r\n")))
```

### input-buffer-size n

Specifies the size of the input buffer for the standard input of the subprocess. (This is the buffer on the Scheme side, and has nothing to do with any buffering done on the subprocess side.) Ignored if the `input` option is `#f`. $n$ must be an exact positive integer specifying the number of characters the buffer can hold.

The default value of this option is 512.

```scheme
(call-with-input-file "foo.in"
 (lambda (port)
   (run-shell-command "cat > /dev/null"
     'input port
     'input-buffer-size 4096)))
```

### output port

Specifies the standard output and standard error of the subprocess. Port may be an output port, in which case characters are read from the subprocess and fed to port until the subprocess finishes. Alternatively, port may be `#f`, indicating that the subprocess has no standard output or standard error.

The default value of this option is the value of `(current-output-port)`.

```scheme
(call-with-output-file "foo.out"
 (lambda (port)
   (run-shell-command "ls -la /etc" 'output port)))
```

### output-line-translation line-ending

Specifies how line-endings should be translated when reading characters from the standard output of the subprocess. Ignored if the `output` option is `#f`. Line-ending must be either a string specifying the line ending, or the symbol `default`, meaning to use the operating system’s standard line ending. In either case, newline characters read from the subprocess port are translated to the specified line ending.

The default value of this option is `default`.

```scheme
(call-with-output-file "foo.out"
 (lambda (port)
   (run-shell-command "ls -la /etc"
     'output port
     'output-line-translation "\r\n")))
```
output-buffer-size $n$  
Specifies the size of the output buffer for the standard output of the subprocess. (This is the buffer on the Scheme side, and has nothing to do with any buffering done on the subprocess side.) Ignored if the output option is #f. $n$ must be an exact positive integer specifying the number of characters the buffer can hold.

The default value of this option is 512.

```
(call-with-output-file "foo.out"
  (lambda (port)
    (run-shell-command "ls -la /etc"
      'output port
      'output-buffer-size 4096)))
```

redisplay-hook thunk  
Specifies that thunk is to be run periodically when output from the subprocess is available. Thunk must be a procedure of no arguments, or #f indicating that no hook is supplied. This option is mostly useful for interactive systems. For example, the Edwin text editor uses this to update output buffers when running some subprocesses.

The default value of this option is #f.

```
(run-shell-command "ls -la /etc"
  'redisplay-hook
  (lambda ()
    (update-buffer-contents buffer)))
```

environment environment  
Specifies the environment variables that are to be used for the subprocess. Environment must be either a vector of strings or #f indicating the default environment. If it is a vector of strings, each string must be a name/value pair where the name and value are separated by an equal sign, for example, "foo=bar". To define a variable with no value, just omit the value, as in "foo=".

Note that the variable scheme-subprocess-environment is bound to the default subprocess environment.

The default value of this option is #f.

```
(run-shell-command "ls -la /etc"
  'environment
  (let* ((v scheme-subprocess-environment)
         (n (vector-length v))
         (v (vector-grow v (+ n 1))))
         (vector-set! v n "TERM=none")
         v))
```

working-directory pathname  
Specifies the working directory in which the subprocess will run.

The default value of this option is (working-directory-pathname).

```
(run-shell-command "ls -la" 'working-directory "/etc")
```
use-pty? boolean          [subprocess option]

This option is meaningful only on unix systems; on other systems it is ignored. Specifies whether to communicate with the subprocess using PTY devices; if true, PTYs will be used, otherwise pipes will be used.

The default value of this option is #f.

(run-shell-command "ls -la /etc" 'use-pty? #t)

shell-file-name pathname   [subprocess option]

Specifies the shell program to use for run-shell-command.

The default value of this option is (os/shell-file-name). This is the value of the environment variable SHELL, or if SHELL is not set, the value is operating-system dependent as follows:

- On unix systems, ‘/bin/sh’ is used.
- On Windows systems, the value of the environment variable COMSPEC is used. If that is not set, ‘cmd.exe’ is used for Windows NT, or ‘command.com’ is used for Windows 9x; in each case the shell is found by searching the path.

(run-shell-command "ls -la /etc"
                 'shell-file-name "/usr/local/bin/bash"

15.8 TCP Sockets

MIT/GNU Scheme provides access to sockets, which are a mechanism for inter-process communication. TCP stream sockets are supported, which communicate between computers over a TCP/IP network. TCP sockets are supported on all operating systems.

TCP sockets have two distinct interfaces: one interface to implement a client and another to implement a server. The basic protocol is that servers set up a listening port and wait for connections from clients. Implementation of clients is simpler and will be treated first.

The socket procedures accept two special arguments, called host-name and service. Host-name is a string which must be the name of an internet host. It is looked up using the ordinary lookup rules for your computer. For example, if your host is foo.mit.edu and host-name is "bar", then it specifies bar.mit.edu.

Service specifies the service to which you will connect. A networked computer normally provides several different services, such as telnet or FTP. Each service is associated with a unique port number; for example, the "www" service is associated with port 80. The service argument specifies the port number, either as a string, or directly as an exact non-negative integer. Port strings are decoded by the operating system using a table; for example, on unix the table is in "/etc/services". Usually you will use a port string rather than a number.

open-tcp-stream-socket host-name service [buffer-size [line-translation]]

open-tcp-stream-socket opens a connection to the host specified by host-name. Host-name is looked up using the ordinary lookup rules for your computer. The connection is established to the service specified by service. The returned value is an I/O port, to which you can read and write characters using ordinary Scheme I/O procedures such as read-char and write-char.
**Buffer-size** specifies the size of the read and write buffers used by the port; if this is unspecified or `#f`, the buffers will hold 4096 bytes.

**Line-translation** specifies how end-of-line characters will be translated when reading or writing to the socket. If this is unspecified or `#f`, then lines will be terminated by CR-LF, which is the standard for most internet protocols. Otherwise, it must be a string, which specifies the line-ending character sequence to use.

When you wish to close the connection, just use `close-port`.

As an example, here is how you can open a connection to a web server:

```
(open-tcp-stream-socket "web.mit.edu" "www")
```

Next we will treat setting up a TCP server, which is slightly more complicated. Creating a server is a two-part process. First, you must open a server socket, which causes the operating system to listen to the network on a port that you specify. Once the server socket is opened, the operating system will allow clients to connect to your computer on that port.

In the second step of the process, you accept the connection, which completes the connection initiated by the client, and allows you to communicate with the client. Accepting a connection does not affect the server socket; it continues to listen for additional client connections. You can have multiple client connections to the same server socket open simultaneously.

```
open-tcp-server-socket service [address]
```

This procedure opens a server socket that listens for connections to `service`; the socket will continue to listen until you close it. The returned value is a server socket object. An error is signalled if another process is already listening on the service. Additionally, ports whose number is less than 1024 are privileged on many operating systems, and cannot be used by non-privileged processes; if `service` specifies such a port and you do not have administrative privileges, an error may be signalled.

The optional argument `address` specifies the IP address on which the socket will listen. If this argument is not supplied or is given as `#f`, then the socket listens on all IP addresses for this machine. (This is equivalent to passing the result of calling `host-address-any`.)

```
tcp-server-connection-accept server-socket block? peer-address [line-translation]
```

Checks to see if a client has connected to `server-socket`. If so, an I/O port is returned. The returned port can be read and written using ordinary Scheme I/O procedures such as `read-char` and `write-char`.

The argument `block?` says what to do if no client has connected at the time of the call. If `#f`, it says to return immediately with two values of `#f`. Otherwise, the call waits until a client connects.

The argument `peer-address` is either `#f` or an IP address as allocated by `allocate-host-address`. If it is an IP address, the address is modified to be the address of the client making the connection.

The optional argument `line-translation` specifies how end-of-line characters will be translated when reading or writing to the returned socket. If this is unspecified or `#f`, then lines will be terminated by CR-LF, which is the standard for most internet
protocols. Otherwise, it must be a string, which specifies the line-ending character sequence to use.

Note that closing the port returned by this procedure does not affect server-socket; it just closes the particular client connection that was opened by the call. To close server-socket, use close-tcp-server-socket.

\texttt{close-tcp-server-socket server-socket}\hfill [procedure]

Closes the server socket server-socket. The operating system will cease listening for network connections to that service. Client connections to server-socket that have already been accepted will not be affected.

### 15.9 Miscellaneous OS Facilities

This section contains assorted operating-system facilities that don’t fit into other categories.

\texttt{microcode-id/operating-system}\hfill [variable]
\texttt{microcode-id/operating-system-name}\hfill [variable]

\texttt{microcode-id/operating-system} is bound to a symbol that specifies the type of operating system that Scheme is running under. There are two possible values: \texttt{unix} or \texttt{nt}.

\texttt{microcode-id/operating-system-name} is a string containing the same name as \texttt{microcode-id/operating-system}; the latter is created by interning the former as a symbol.

\texttt{microcode-id/operating-system-variant}\hfill [variable]

This variable is a string that identifies the particular variant of the operating system that Scheme is running under. Here are some of the possible values:

- "GNU/Linux"
- "MacOSX"
- "Microsoft Windows NT 4.0 (Build 1381; Service Pack 3)"

For Windows systems, it is recommended that you match on the prefix of this string and ignore the "Build" suffix. This is because the suffix may contain information about service packs or fixes, while the prefix will be constant for a particular version of Windows.

The next few procedures provide access to the domain name service (DNS), which maintains associations between internet host names such as \texttt{"www.swiss.ai.mit.edu"} and IP addresses, such as 18.23.0.16. In MIT/GNU Scheme, we represent an internet host name as a string, and an IP address as a byte vector of length 4 (byte vectors are just character strings that are accessed using \texttt{vector-8b-ref} rather than \texttt{string-ref}). The bytes in an IP address read in the same order as they do when written out:

\begin{verbatim}
(get-host-by-name "www.swiss") \Rightarrow #("\022\027\000\020")
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{get-host-by-name host-name}\hfill [procedure]

Looks up the internet host name host-name using the DNS, returning a vector of IP addresses for the corresponding host, or \texttt{#f} if there is no such host. Usually the returned vector has only one element, but if a host has more than one network interface, the vector might have more than one element.

\begin{verbatim}
(get-host-by-name "www.swiss") \Rightarrow #("\022\027\000\020")
\end{verbatim}
get-host-by-address ip-address

Does a reverse DNS lookup on ip-address, returning the internet host name corresponding to that address, or #f if there is no such host.

(get-host-by-address "\022\027\000\020") ⇒ "swissnet.ai.mit.edu"

canonical-host-name host-name

Finds the “canonical” internet host name for host-name. For example:

(cannotical-host-name "zurich") ⇒ "zurich.ai.mit.edu"
(cannotical-host-name "www.swiss") ⇒ "swissnet.ai.mit.edu"

In both examples, the default internet domain ‘ai.mit.edu’ is added to host-name. In the second example, "www.swiss" is an alias for another computer named "swissnet".

get-host-name

Returns the string that identifies the computer that MIT/GNU Scheme is running on. Usually this is an unqualified internet host name, i.e. the host name without the domain suffix:

(get-host-name) ⇒ "aarau"

os/hostame

Returns the canonical internet host name of the computer that MIT/GNU Scheme is running on. So, in contrast to the example for get-host-name:

(os/hostame) ⇒ "aarau.ai.mit.edu"

allocate-host-address

Allocates and returns an IP address object. This is just a string of a fixed length (current 4 bytes) into which an IP address may be stored. This procedure is used to generate an appropriate argument to be passed to tcp-server-connection-accept.

(allocate-host-address) ⇒ "Xe\034\241"

host-address-any

Return an IP address object that specifies “any host”. This object is useful only when passed as the address argument to open-tcp-server-socket.

(host-address-any) ⇒ "\000\000\000\000"

host-address-loopback

Return an IP address object that specifies the local loopback network interface. The loopback interface is a software network interface that can be used only for communicating between processes on the same computer. This address object is useful only when passed as the address argument to open-tcp-server-socket.

(host-address-loopback) ⇒ "\177\000\000\001"
Chapter 16: Error System

16 Error System

The MIT/GNU Scheme error system provides a uniform mechanism for the signalling of errors and other exceptional conditions. The simplest and most generally useful procedures in the error system are:

`error` is used to signal simple errors, specifying a message and some irritant objects (see Section 16.1 [Condition Signalling], page 262). Errors are usually handled by stopping the computation and putting the user in an error REPL.

`warn` is used to signal warnings (see Section 16.1 [Condition Signalling], page 262). Warnings are usually handled by printing a message on the console and continuing the computation normally.

`ignore-errors` is used to suppress the normal handling of errors within a given dynamic extent (see Section 16.3 [Condition Handling], page 265). Any error that occurs within the extent is trapped, returning immediately to the caller of `ignore-errors`.

More demanding applications require more powerful facilities. To give a concrete example, suppose you want floating-point division to return a very large number whenever the denominator is zero. This behavior can be implemented using the error system.

The Scheme arithmetic system can signal many different kinds of errors, including floating-point divide by zero. In our example, we would like to handle this particular condition specially, allowing the system to handle other arithmetic errors in its usual way.

The error system supports this kind of application by providing mechanisms for distinguishing different types of error conditions and for specifying where control should be transferred should a given condition arise. In this example, there is a specific object that represents the “floating-point divide by zero” condition type, and it is possible to dynamically specify an arbitrary Scheme procedure to be executed when a condition of that type is signalled. This procedure then finds the stack frame containing the call to the division operator, and returns the appropriate value from that frame.

Another useful kind of behavior is the ability to specify uniform handling for related classes of conditions. For example, it might be desirable, when opening a file for input, to gracefully handle a variety of different conditions associated with the file system. One such condition might be that the file does not exist, in which case the program will try some other action, perhaps opening a different file instead. Another related condition is that the file exists, but is read protected, so it cannot be opened for input. If these or any other related conditions occur, the program would like to skip this operation and move on to something else.

At the same time, errors unrelated to the file system should be treated in their usual way. For example, calling `car` on the argument 3 should signal an error. Or perhaps the name given for the file is syntactically incorrect, a condition that probably wants to be handled differently from the case of the file not existing.

To facilitate the handling of classes of conditions, the error system taxonomically organizes all condition types. The types are related to one another by taxonomical links, which specify that one type is a “kind of” another type. If two types are linked this way, one is considered to be a specialization of the other; or vice-versa, the second is a generalization.
of the first. In our example, all of the errors associated with opening an input file would be specializations of the condition type “cannot open input file”.

The taxonomy of condition types permits any condition type to have no more than one immediate generalization. Thus, the condition types form a forest (set of trees). While users can create new trees, the standard taxonomy (see Section 16.7 [Taxonomy], page 276) is rooted at condition-type:serious-condition, condition-type:warning, condition-type:simple-condition, and condition-type:breakpoint; users are encouraged to add new subtypes to these condition types rather than create new trees in the forest.

To summarize, the error system provides facilities for the following tasks. The sections that follow will describe these facilities in more detail.

Signalling a condition
A condition may be signalled in a number of different ways. Simple errors may be signalled, without explicitly defining a condition type, using error. The signal-condition procedure provides the most general signalling mechanism.

Handling a condition
The programmer can dynamically specify handlers for particular condition types or for classes of condition types, by means of the bind-condition-handler procedure. Individual handlers have complete control over the handling of a condition, and additionally may decide not to handle a particular condition, passing it on to previously bound handlers.

Restarting from a handler
The with-restart procedure provides a means for condition-signalling code to communicate to condition-handling code what must be done to proceed past the condition. Handlers can examine the restarts in effect when a condition was signalled, allowing a structured way to continue an interrupted computation.

Packaging condition state
Each condition is represented by an explicit object. Condition objects contain information about the nature of the condition, information that describes the state of the computation from which the condition arose, and information about the ways the computation can be restarted.

Classification of conditions
Each condition has a type, represented by a condition type object. Each condition type may be a specialization of some other condition types. A group of types that share a common generalization can be handled uniformly by specifying a handler for the generalization.

16.1 Condition Signalling
Once a condition instance has been created using make-condition (or any condition constructor), it can be signalled. The act of signalling a condition is separated from the act of creating the condition to allow more flexibility in how conditions are handled. For example, a condition instance could be returned as the value of a procedure, indicating that something unusual has happened, to allow the caller to clean up some state. The caller could then signal the condition once it is ready.
A more important reason for having a separate condition-signalling mechanism is that it allows *resignalling*. When a signalled condition has been caught by a particular handler, and the handler decides that it doesn’t want to process that particular condition, it can signal the condition again. This is one way to allow other handlers to get a chance to see the condition.

**error** reason argument ...  
[procedure]
This is the simplest and most common way to signal a condition that requires intervention before a computation can proceed (when intervention is not required, **warn** is more appropriate). **error** signals a condition (using **signal-condition**), and if no handler for that condition alters the flow of control (by invoking a restart, for example) it calls the procedure **standard-error-handler**, which normally prints an error message and stops the computation, entering an error **REPL**. Under normal circumstances **error** will not return a value (although an interactive debugger can be used to force this to occur).

Precisely what condition is signalled depends on the first argument to **error**. If **reason** is a condition, then that condition is signalled and the **arguments** are ignored. If **reason** is a condition type, then a new instance of this type is generated and signalled; the **arguments** are used to generate the values of the fields for this condition type (they are passed as the **field-plist** argument to **make-condition**). In the most common case, however, **reason** is neither a condition nor a condition type, but rather a string or symbol. In this case a condition of type **condition-type:simple-error** is created with the **message** field containing the **reason** and the **irritants** field containing the **arguments**.

**warn** reason argument ...  
[procedure]
When a condition is not severe enough to warrant intervention, it is appropriate to signal the condition with **warn** rather than **error**. As with **error**, **warn** first calls **signal-condition**; the condition that is signalled is chosen exactly as in **error** except that a condition of type **condition-type:simple-warning** is signalled if **reason** is neither a condition nor a condition type. If the condition is not handled, **warn** calls the procedure **standard-warning-handler**, which normally prints a warning message and continues the computation by returning from **warn**.

**warn** establishes a restart named **muffle-warning** before calling **signal-condition**. This allows a signal handler to prevent the generation of the warning message by calling **muffle-warning**. The value of a call to **warn** is unspecified.

**signal-condition** condition  
[procedure]
This is the fundamental operation for signalling a condition. The precise operation of **signal-condition** depends on the condition type of which **condition** is an instance, the condition types set by **break-on-signals**, and the handlers established by **bind-condition-handler** and **bind-default-condition-handler**.

If the **condition** is an instance of a type that is a specialization of any of the types specified by **break-on-signals**, then a breakpoint **REPL** is initiated. Otherwise (or when that **REPL** returns), the handlers established by **bind-condition-handler** are checked, most recent first. Each applicable handler is invoked, and the search for a handler continues if the handler returns normally. If all applicable handlers return,
then the applicable handlers established by \texttt{bind-default-condition-handler} are checked, again most recent first. Finally, if no handlers apply (or all return in a normal manner), \texttt{signal-condition} returns an unspecified value.

\textit{Note:} unlike many other systems, the MIT/GNU Scheme runtime library does not establish handlers of any kind. (However, the Edwin text editor uses condition handlers extensively.) Thus, calls to \texttt{signal-condition} will return to the caller unless there are user supplied condition handlers, as the following example shows:

\begin{verbatim}
(signal-condition
 (make-condition
  condition-type:error
  (call-with-current-continuation (lambda (x) x))
  () ; no restarts
  ())) ; no fields
⇒ unspecified
\end{verbatim}

\subsection*{16.2 Error Messages}

By convention, error messages (and in general, the reports generated by \texttt{write-condition-report}) should consist of one or more complete sentences. The usual rules for sentences should be followed: the first word of the sentence should be capitalized, and the sentence should be terminated by a period. The message should not contain extraneous whitespace such as line breaks or indentation.

The error system provides a simple formatting language that allows the programmer to have some control over the printing of error messages. This formatting language will probably be redesigned in a future release.

Error messages typically consist of a string describing the error, followed by some irritant objects. The string is printed using \texttt{display}, and the irritants are printed using \texttt{write}, typically with a space between each irritant. To allow simple formatting, we introduce a \texttt{noise} object, printed using \texttt{display}. The irritant list may contain ordinary objects interspersed with noise objects. Each noise object is printed using \texttt{display}, with no extra whitespace, while each normal object is printed using \texttt{write}, prefixed by a single space character.

Here is an example:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (error-within-procedure message irritant procedure)
  (error message
   irritant
   (error-irritant/noise "within procedure")
   procedure
   (error-irritant/noise ".")))
\end{verbatim}

This would format as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
(error-within-procedure "Bad widget" 'widget-32 'invert-widget) error
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Bad widget widget-32 within procedure invert-widget}.

Here are the operations supporting error messages:
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format-error-message message irritants port

Message is typically a string (although this is not required), irritants a list of irritant objects, and port an output port. Formats message and irritants to port in the standard way. Note that, during the formatting process, the depth and breadth to which lists are printed are each limited to small numbers, to guarantee that the output from each irritant is not arbitrarily large.

error-irritant/noise value

Creates and returns a noise object whose value is value.

16.3 Condition Handling

The occurrence of a condition is signalled using signal-condition. signal-condition attempts to locate and invoke a condition handler that is prepared to deal with the type of condition that has occurred. A condition handler is a procedure of one parameter, the condition that is being signalled. A procedure is installed as a condition handler by calling bind-condition-handler (to establish a handler that is in effect only while a particular thunk is executing) or bind-default-condition-handler (to establish a handler that is in effect permanently). As implied by the name, handlers created by bind-default-condition-handler are invoked only after all other applicable handlers have been invoked.

A handler may process a signal in any way it deems appropriate, but the common patterns are:

Ignore the condition.

By returning from the handler in the usual manner.

Handle the condition.

By doing some processing and then invoking a restart (or, less preferably, a continuation) that was established at some point prior to the call to signal-condition.

Resignal a condition.

By doing some processing and calling signal-condition with either the same condition or a newly created one. In order to support this, signal-condition runs handler in such a way that a subsequent call to signal-condition sees only the handlers that were established prior to this one.

As an aid to debugging condition handlers, Scheme maintains a set of condition types that will cause an interactive breakpoint to occur prior to normal condition signalling. That is, signal-condition creates a new REPL prior to its normal operation when its argument is a condition that is a specialization of any of these types. The procedure break-on-signals establishes this set of condition types.

ignore-errors thunk

Executes thunk with a condition handler that intercepts the signalling of any specialization of condition-type:error (including those produced by calls to error) and immediately terminates the execution of thunk and returns from the call to ignore-errors with the signalled condition as its value. If thunk returns normally, its value is returned from ignore-errors.
Notice that **ignore-errors** does not “turn off signalling” or condition handling. Condition handling takes place in the normal manner but conditions specialized from **condition-type:error** are trapped rather than propagated as they would be by default.

**bind-condition-handler** condition-types handler thunk

Invokes **thunk** after adding **handler** as a condition handler for the conditions specified by **condition-types**. **Condition-types** must be a list of condition types; signalling a condition whose type is a specialization of any of these types will cause the **handler** to be invoked. See **signal-condition** for a description of the mechanism used to invoke handlers.

By special extension, if **condition-types** is the empty list then the **handler** is called for all conditions.

**bind-default-condition-handler** condition-types handler

Installs **handler** as a (permanent) condition handler for the conditions specified by **condition-types**. **Condition-types** must be a list of condition types; signalling a condition whose type is a specialization of any of these types will cause the **handler** to be invoked. See **signal-condition** for a description of the mechanism used to invoke handlers.

By special extension, if **condition-types** is the empty list then the **handler** is called for all conditions.

**break-on-signals** condition-types

Arranges for **signal-condition** to create an interactive REPL before it signals a condition that is a specialization of any of the types in the list of **condition-types**. This can be extremely helpful when trying to debug code that uses custom condition handlers. In order to create a REPL when any condition type is signalled it is best to actually put a breakpoint on entry to **signal-condition**.

**standard-error-handler** condition

Called internally by **error** after it calls **signal-condition**. Normally creates a new REPL with the prompt "error>" (but see **standard-error-hook**). In order to simulate the effect of calling **error**, code may call **signal-condition** directly and then call **standard-error-handler** if **signal-condition** returns.

**standard-error-hook**

This variable controls the behavior of the procedure **standard-error-handler**, and hence **error**. It is intended to be bound with **fluid-let** and is normally **#f**. It may be changed to a procedure of one argument and will then be invoked (with **standard-error-hook** rebound to **#f**) by **standard-error-handler** just prior to starting the error REPL. It is passed one argument, the condition being signalled.

**standard-warning-handler** condition

This is the procedure called internally by **warn** after it calls **signal-condition**. The normal behavior of **standard-warning-handler** is to print a message (but see **standard-warning-hook**). More precisely, the message is printed to the port returned by **notification-output-port**. The message is formed by first printing the string
"Warning: " to this port, and then calling write-condition-report on condition and the port.

In order to simulate the effect of calling warn, code may call signal-condition directly and then call standard-warning-handler if signal-condition returns. (This is not sufficient to implement the muffle-warning protocol, however. For that purpose an explicit restart must be provided.)

**standard-warning-hook** [variable]

This variable controls the behavior of the procedure standard-warning-handler, and hence warn. It is intended to be bound with fluid-let and is normally #f. It may be changed to a procedure of one argument and will then be invoked (with standard-warning-hook rebound to #f) by standard-warning-handler in lieu of writing the warning message. It is passed one argument, the condition being signalled.

### 16.4 Restarts

The Scheme error system provides a mechanism, known as restarts, that helps coordinate condition-signalling code with condition-handling code. A module of code that detects and signals conditions can provide procedures (using with-simple-restart or with-restart) to be invoked by handlers that wish to continue, abort, or restart the computation. These procedures, called restart effectors, are encapsulated in restart objects.

When a condition object is created, it contains a set of restart objects, each of which contains a restart effector. Condition handlers can inspect the condition they are handling (using find-restart to find restarts by name, or condition/restarts to see the entire set), and they can invoke the associated effectors (using invoke-restart or invoke-restart-interactively). Effectors can take arguments, and these may be computed directly by the condition-handling code or by gathering them interactively from the user.

The names of restarts can be chosen arbitrarily, but the choice of name is significant. These names are used to coordinate between the signalling code (which supplies names for restarts) and the handling code (which typically chooses a restart effector by the name of its restart). Thus, the names specify the restart protocol implemented by the signalling code and invoked by the handling code. The protocol indicates the number of arguments required by the effector code as well as the semantics of the arguments.

Scheme provides a conventional set of names (hence, protocols) for common use. By choosing the names of restarts from this set, signalling code can indicate that it is able to perform a small set of fairly common actions (abort, continue, muffle-warning, retry, store-value, use-value). In turn, simple condition-handling code can look for the kind of action it wishes to perform and simply invoke it by name. All of Scheme’s conventional names are symbols, although in general restart names are not restricted to any particular data type. In addition, the object #f is reserved to indicate the “not for automated use” protocol: these restarts should be activated only under human control.

Restarts themselves are first-class objects. They encapsulate their name, a procedure (known as the effector) to be executed if they are invoked, and a thunk (known as the reporter) that can be invoked to display a description of the restart (used, for example, by the interactive debugger). Invoking a restart is an indication that a handler has chosen to accept control for a condition; as a consequence, the effector of the restart should not
return, since this would indicate that the handler declined to handle the condition. Thus, the effector should call a continuation captured before the condition-signalling process began. The most common pattern of usage by signalling code is encapsulated in with-simple-restart.

Within this chapter, a parameter named restarts will accept any of the following values:

- A list of restart objects.
- A condition. The procedure condition/restarts is called on the condition, and the resulting list of restarts is used in place of the condition.
- The symbol bound-restarts. The procedure bound-restarts is called (with no arguments), and the resulting list of restarts is used in place of the symbol.
- If the restarts parameter is optional and is not supplied, it is equivalent to having specified the symbol bound-restarts.

### 16.4.1 Establishing Restart Code

**with-simple-restart** name reporter thunk

Invokes thunk in a dynamic environment created by adding a restart named name to the existing named restarts. Reporter may be used during the execution of thunk to produce a description of the newly created restart; it must either be a procedure of one argument (a port) or a string. By convention, the description generated by reporter should be a short complete sentence, with first word capitalized and terminated by a period. The sentence should fit on one line with a little room to spare (see the examples below); usually this means that the sentence should be 70 characters or less in length.

If the restart created by with-simple-restart is invoked it simply aborts the computation in progress by returning an unspecified value from the call to with-simple-restart. Otherwise with-simple-restart returns the value computed by thunk.

```
(with-simple-restart 'george "This restart is named george."  
(lambda () 3)) ⇒ 3
```

```
(with-simple-restart 'george "This restart is named george."  
(lambda ()  
  (invoke-restart (find-restart 'george))) ⇒ unspecific
```

```
(with-simple-restart 'george "This restart is named george."  
(lambda () (car 3)))  
; The object 3, passed as the first argument to car,  
; is not the correct type.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 3) ⇒ Specify an argument to use in its place.  
; (RESTART 2) ⇒ This restart is named george.  
; (RESTART 1) ⇒ Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

**with-restart** name reporter effector interactor thunk

Invokes thunk in a dynamic environment created by adding a restart named name to the existing named restarts. Reporter may be used during the execution of thunk.
to produce a description of the newly created restart; it must either be a procedure of one argument (a port) or a string. **Effector** is a procedure which will be called when the restart is invoked by `invoke-restart`. **Interactor** specifies the arguments that are to be passed to efficiency when it is invoked interactively; it may be either a procedure of no arguments, or #f. If `interactor` is #f, this restart is not meant to be invoked interactively.

The value returned by `with-restart` is the value returned by `thunk`. Should the restart be invoked by a condition handler, however, the efficiency will not return back to the handler that invoked it. Instead, the efficiency should call a continuation created before the condition-signalling process began, and `with-restart` will therefore not return in the normal manner.

```scheme
(define (by-george! thunk)
  ; This code handles conditions that arise while executing thunk
  ; by invoking the GEORGE restart, passing 1 and 2 to the restart's
effector code.
  (bind-condition-handler () ; All conditions
    (lambda (condition)
      (invoke-restart (find-restart 'george) 1 2))
    thunk))

(define (can-george! thunk)
  ; This code provides a way of handling errors: the GEORGE restart.
  ; In order to GEORGE you must supply two values.
  (lambda ()
    (call-with-current-continuation
      (lambda (kappa)
        (with-restart
          'george ; Name
          "This restart is named george." ; Reporter
          (lambda (a b) ; Effector
            (kappa (list 'george a b)))
          values ; Interactor
          thunk))))) ; Thunk

(by-george! (can-george! (lambda () -3)) ⇒ -3
(by-george! (can-george! (lambda () (car 'x))) ⇒ (george 1 2)

### 16.4.2 Invoking Standard Restart Code

Scheme supports six standard protocols for restarting from a condition, each encapsulated using a named restart (for use by condition-signalling code) and a simple procedure (for use by condition-handle code). Unless otherwise specified, if one of these procedures is unable to find its corresponding restart, it returns immediately with an unspecified value.

Each of these procedures accepts an optional argument `restarts`, which is described above in Section 16.4 [Restarts], page 267.
abort [restarts]  [procedure]
Abort the computation, using the restart named abort. The corresponding effector takes no arguments and abandons the current line of computation. This is the restart provided by Scheme’s repl.

If there is no restart named abort, this procedure signals an error of type condition-type:no-such-restart.

continue [restarts]  [procedure]
Continue the current computation, using the restart named continue. The corresponding effector takes no arguments and continues the computation beyond the point at which the condition was signalled.

muffle-warning [restarts]  [procedure]
Continue the current computation, using the restart named muffle-warning. The corresponding effector takes no arguments and continues the computation beyond the point at which any warning message resulting from the condition would be presented to the user. The procedure warn establishes a muffle-warning restart for this purpose.

If there is no restart named muffle-warning, this procedure signals an error of type condition-type:no-such-restart.

retry [restarts]  [procedure]
Retry the current computation, using the restart named retry. The corresponding effector takes no arguments and simply retries the same computation that triggered the condition. The condition may reoccur, of course, if the root cause has not been eliminated. The code that signals a “file does not exist” error can be expected to supply a retry restart. The restart would be invoked after first creating the missing file, since the computation is then likely to succeed if it is simply retried.

store-value new-value [restarts]  [procedure]
Retry the current computation, using the restart named store-value, after first storing new-value. The corresponding effector takes one argument, new-value, and stores it away in a restart-dependent location, then retries the same computation that triggered the condition. The condition may reoccur, of course, if the root cause has not been eliminated. The code that signals an “unassigned variable” error can be expected to supply a store-value restart; this would store the value in the variable and continue the computation.

use-value new-value [restarts]  [procedure]
Retry the current computation, using the restart named use-value, but substituting new-value for a value that previously caused a failure. The corresponding effector takes one argument, new-value, and retries the same computation that triggered the condition with the new value substituted for the failing value. The condition may reoccur, of course, if the new value also induces the condition.

The code that signals an “unassigned variable” error can be expected to supply a use-value restart; this would simply continue the computation with new-value instead of the value of the variable. Contrast this with the retry and store-value restarts.

If the retry restart is used it will fail because the variable still has no value. The
store-value restart could be used, but it would alter the value of the variable, so
that future references to the variable would not be detected.

16.4.3 Finding and Invoking General Restart Code

Restarts are a general mechanism for establishing a protocol between condition-signalling
and condition-handling code. The Scheme error system provides “packaging” for a number
of common protocols. It also provides lower-level hooks that are intended for implementing
customized protocols. The mechanism used by signalling code (with-restart and with-
simple-restart) is used for both purposes.

Four additional operations are provided for the use of condition-handling code. Two
operations (bound-restarts and find-restart) allow condition-handling code to locate
active restarts. The other two operations (invoke-restart and invoke-restart-
interactively) allow restart effectors to be invoked once the restart object has been
located.

In addition, there is a data abstraction that provides access to the information encapsu-
lated in restart objects.

**bound-restarts**  
Returns a list of all currently active restart objects, most recently installed first.  
**bound-restarts** should be used with caution by condition-handling code, since it
reveals all restarts that are active at the time it is called, rather than at the time
the condition was signalled. It is useful, however, for collecting the list of restarts for
inclusion in newly generated condition objects or for inspecting the current state of
the system.

**find-restart**  
**find-restart** name [restarts]  
Returns the first restart object named name in the list of restarts (permissible values
for restarts are described above in Section 16.4 [Restarts], page 267). When used in
a condition handler, find-restart is usually passed the name of a particular restart
and the condition object that has been signalled. In this way the handler finds only
restarts that were available when the condition was created (usually the same as when
it was signalled). If restarts is omitted, the currently active restarts would be used,
and these often include restarts added after the condition occurred.

**invoke-restart**  
**invoke-restart** restart argument . . .  
Calls the restart effector encapsulated in restart, passing the specified arguments to it.
**invoke-restart** is intended for use by condition-handling code that understands the
protocol implemented by restart, and can therefore calculate and pass an appropriate
set of arguments.

If a condition handler needs to interact with a user to gather the arguments for an
effector (e.g. if it does not understand the protocol implemented by restart) invoke-
restart-interactively should be used instead of invoke-restart.

**invoke-restart-interactively** restart  
First calls the interactor encapsulated in restart to interactively gather the arguments
needed for restart’s effector. It then calls the effector, passing these arguments to it.
invoke-restart-interactively is intended for calling interactive restarts (those for which restart/interactor is not #f). For convenience, invoke-restart-interactively will call the restart’s effector with no arguments if the restart has no interactor; this behavior may change in the future.

16.4.4 The Named Restart Abstraction

A restart object is very simple, since it encapsulates only a name, effector, interactor, and description.

restart? object [procedure]
Returns #f if and only if object is not a restart.

restart/name restart [procedure]
Returns the name of restart. While the Scheme error system uses only symbols and the object #f for its predefined names, programs may use arbitrary objects (name equivalence is tested using eq?).

restart/effector restart [procedure]
Returns the effector encapsulated in restart. Normally this procedure is not used since invoke-restart and invoke-restart-interactively capture the most common invocation patterns.

restart/interactor restart [procedure]
Returns the interactor encapsulated in restart. This is either a procedure of no arguments or the object #f. Normally this procedure is not used since invoke-restart-interactively captures the most common usage. Thus restart/interactor is most useful as a predicate to determine if restart is intended to be invoked interactively.

write-restart-report restart port [procedure]
Writes a description of restart to port. This works by either displaying (if it is a string) or calling (if it is a procedure) the reporter that was supplied when the restart was created.

16.5 Condition Instances

A condition, in addition to the information associated with its type, usually contains other information that is not shared with other conditions of the same type. For example, the condition type associated with “unbound variable” errors does not specify the name of the variable that was unbound. The additional information is captured in a condition object, also called a condition instance.

In addition to information that is specific to a given type of condition (such as the variable name for “unbound variable” conditions), every condition instance also contains a continuation that encapsulates the state of the computation in which the condition occurred. This continuation is used for analyzing the computation to learn more about the context in which the condition occurred. It is not intended to provide a mechanism for continuing the computation; that mechanism is provided by restarts.
16.5.1 Generating Operations on Conditions

Scheme provides four procedures that take a condition type as input and produce operations on the corresponding condition object. These are reminiscent of the operations on record types that produce record operators (see Section 10.4 [Records], page 138). Given a condition type it is possible to generate: a constructor for instances of the type (using `condition-constructor`); an accessor to extract the contents of a field in instances of the type (using `condition-accessor`); a predicate to test for instances of the type (using `condition-predicate`); and a procedure to create and signal an instance of the type (using `condition-signaller`).

Notice that the creation of a condition object is distinct from signalling an occurrence of the condition. Condition objects are first-class; they may be created and never signalled, or they may be signalled more than once. Further notice that there are no procedures for modifying conditions; once created, a condition cannot be altered.

**condition-constructor**  
`condition-type field-names`  
Returns a constructor procedure that takes as arguments values for the fields specified in `field-names` and creates a condition of type `condition-type`. `Field-names` must be a list of symbols that is a subset of the `field-names` in `condition-type`. The constructor procedure returned by `condition-constructor` has signature

```
(lambda (continuation restarts . field-values) ...)
```

where the `field-names` correspond to the `field-values`. The constructor argument `restarts` is described in Section 16.4 [Restarts], page 267. Conditions created by the constructor procedure have `#f` for the values of all fields other than those specified by `field-names`.

For example, the following procedure `make-simple-warning` constructs a condition of type `condition-type:simple-warning` given a continuation (where the condition occurred), a description of the restarts to be made available, a warning message, and a list of irritants that caused the warning:

```
(define make-simple-warning
  (condition-constructor condition-type:simple-warning
    '(message irritants)))
```

**condition-accessor**  
`condition-type field-name`  
Returns a procedure that takes as input a condition object of type `condition-type` and extracts the contents of the specified `field-name`. `condition-accessor` signals `error:bad-range-argument` if the `field-name` isn’t one of the named fields of `condition-type`; the returned procedure will signal `error:wrong-type-argument` if passed an object other than a condition of type `condition-type` or one of its specializations.

If it is known in advance that a particular field of a condition will be accessed repeatedly it is worth constructing an accessor for the field using `condition-accessor` rather than using the (possibly more convenient, but slower) `access-condition` procedure.
### 16.5.2 Condition Abstraction

The condition data type is abstracted through a predicate `condition?` and a set of accessor procedures.

- **condition? object** [procedure]
  
  Returns #f if and only if `object` is not a condition.

- **condition/type condition** [procedure]
  
  Returns the condition type of which `condition` is an instance.

- **condition/error? condition** [procedure]
  
  Returns #t if the `condition` is an instance of condition type `condition-type:error` or a specialization of it, #f otherwise.

- **condition/restarts condition** [procedure]
  
  Returns the list of restarts specified when `condition` was created.

- **condition/continuation condition** [procedure]
  
  Returns the continuation specified when `condition` was created. This is provided for inspecting the state of the system when the condition occurred, not for continuing or restarting the computation.

- **write-condition-report condition port** [procedure]
  
  Writes a description of `condition` to `port`, using the reporter function from the condition type associated with `condition`. See also `condition/report-string`.

### 16.5.3 Simple Operations on Condition Instances

The simple procedures described in this section are built on top of the more detailed abstraction of condition objects described above. While these procedures are sometimes easier to use, they are often less efficient.
make-condition procedure

Create a new condition object as an instance of condition-type, associated with continuation. The continuation is provided for inspection purposes only, not for restarting the computation. The restarts argument is described in Section 16.4 [Restarts], page 267. The field-plist is an alternating list of field names and values for those fields, where the field names are those that would be returned by (condition-type/field-names condition-type). It is used to provide values for fields in the condition object; fields with no value specified are set to #f. Once a condition object has been created there is no way to alter the values of these fields.

access-condition procedure

Returns the value stored in the field field-name within condition. Field-name must be one of the names returned by (condition-type/field-names (condition/type condition)). access-condition looks up the field-name at runtime, so it is more efficient to use condition-accessor to create an access function if the same field is to be extracted from several instances of the same condition type.

condition/report-string procedure

Returns a string containing a report of the condition. This is generated by calling write-condition-report on condition and a string output port, and returning the output collected by the port as a string.

16.6 Condition Types

Each condition has a condition type object associated with it. These objects are used as a means of focusing on related classes of conditions, first by concentrating all of the information about a specific class of condition in a single place, and second by specifying an inheritance relationship between types. This inheritance relationship forms the taxonomic structure of the condition hierarchy (see Section 16.7 [Taxonomy], page 276).

The following procedures constitute the abstraction for condition types.

make-condition-type procedure

Creates and returns a (new) condition type that is a specialization of generalization (if it is a condition type) or is the root of a new tree of condition types (if generalization is #f). For debugging purposes, the condition type has a name, and instances of this type contain storage for the fields specified by field-names (a list of symbols) in addition to the fields common to all conditions (type, continuation and restarts).

Reporter is used to produce a description of a particular condition of this type. It may be a string describing the condition, a procedure of arity two (the first argument will be a condition of this type and the second a port) that will write the message to the given port, or #f to specify that the reporter should be taken from the condition type generalization (or produce an “undocumented condition of type ...” message if generalization is #f). The conventions used to form descriptions are spelled out in Section 16.2 [Error Messages], page 264.

condition-type/error? procedure

Returns #t if the condition-type is condition-type:error or a specialization of it, #f otherwise.
**condition-type/field-names**  
*condition-type*  
[procedure]  
Returns a list of all of the field names for a condition of type *condition-type*. This is the set union of the fields specified when this *condition-type* was created with the *condition-type/field-names* of the generalization of this *condition-type*.

**condition-type/generalizations**  
*condition-type*  
[procedure]  
Returns a list of all of the generalizations of *condition-type*. Notice that every condition type is considered a generalization of itself.

**condition-type?**  
*object*  
[procedure]  
Returns #f if and only if *object* is not a condition type.

### 16.7 Condition-Type Taxonomy

The MIT/GNU Scheme error system provides a rich set of predefined condition types. These are organized into a forest through taxonomic links providing the relationships for “specializes” and “generalizes”. The chart appearing below shows these relationships by indenting all the specializations of a given type relative to the type. Note that the variables that are bound to these condition types are prefixed by ‘*condition-type:*’; for example, the type appearing in the following table as ‘*simple-error*’ is stored in the variable *condition-type:*simple-error. Users are encouraged to add new condition types by creating specializations of existing ones.

Following the chart are detailed descriptions of the predefined condition types. Some of these types are marked as *abstract* types. Abstract types are not intended to be used directly as the type of a condition; they are to be used as generalizations of other types, and for binding condition handlers. Types that are not marked as abstract are *concrete*; they are intended to be explicitly used as a condition’s type.
serious-condition
error
  simple-error
illegal-datum
    wrong-type-datum
    wrong-type-argument
    wrong-number-of-arguments
datum-out-of-range
    bad-range-argument
inapplicable-object
file-error
  file-operation-error
derived-file-error
port-error
  derived-port-error
variable-error
  unbound-variable
  unassigned-variable
arithmetic-error
  divide-by-zero
  floating-point-overflow
  floating-point-underflow
control-error
  no-such-restart
not-loading
primitive-procedure-error
  system-call-error
warning
  simple-warning
simple-condition
breakpoint

c-condition-type:serious-condition
  [condition type]
  This is an abstract type. All serious conditions that require some form of intervention should inherit from this type. In particular, all errors inherit from this type.

c-condition-type:error
  [condition type]
  This is an abstract type. All errors should inherit from this type.

c-condition-type:simple-error message irritants
  [condition type]
  This is the condition generated by the error procedure when its first argument is not a condition or condition type. The fields message and irritants are taken directly from the arguments to error; message contains an object (usually a string) and irritants contains a list of objects. The reporter for this type uses format-error-message to generate its output from message and irritants.

c-condition-type:illegal-datum datum
  [condition type]
  This is an abstract type. This type indicates the class of errors in which a program discovers an object that lacks specific required properties. Most commonly, the object
is of the wrong type or is outside a specific range. The *datum* field contains the offending object.

**condition-type**:wrong-type-datum  
*datum type*  
[condition type]

This type indicates the class of errors in which a program discovers an object that is of the wrong type. The *type* field contains a string describing the type that was expected, and the *datum* field contains the object that is of the wrong type.

```
(error:wrong-type-datum 3.4 "integer")  ; The object 3.4 is not an integer.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

**error**:wrong-type-datum  
*datum type*  
[procedure]

This procedure signals a condition of type *condition-type*:wrong-type-datum. The *datum* and *type* fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

**condition-type**:wrong-type-argument  
*datum type operator*  
*operand*  
[condition type]

This type indicates that a procedure was passed an argument of the wrong type. The *operator* field contains the procedure (or a symbol naming the procedure), the *operand* field indicates the argument position that was involved (this field contains either a symbol, a non-negative integer, or #f), the *type* field contains a string describing the type that was expected, and the *datum* field contains the offending argument.

```
(+ 'a 3)  ; The object a, passed as the first argument to integer-add,  
; is not the correct type.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 2) => Specify an argument to use in its place.  
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

```
(list-copy 3)  ; The object 3, passed as an argument to list-copy, is not a list.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

**error**:wrong-type-argument  
*datum type operator*  
[procedure]

This procedure signals a condition of type *condition-type*:wrong-type-argument. The *datum*, *type* and *operator* fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure; the *operand* field of the condition is set to #f.

**condition-type**:wrong-number-of-arguments  
*datum type*  
*operands*  
[condition type]

This type indicates that a procedure was called with the wrong number of arguments. The *datum* field contains the procedure being called, the *type* field contains the number of arguments that the procedure accepts, and the *operands* field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.
(car 3 4) ; The procedure car has been called with 2 arguments; ; it requires exactly 1 argument.
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

error:wrong-number-of-arguments  datum  type  operands  
[procedure]
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:wrong-number-of-arguments. The datum, type and operands fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

condition-type:datum-out-of-range  datum  
[condition type]
This type indicates the class of errors in which a program discovers an object that is of the correct type but is otherwise out of range. Most often, this type indicates that an index to some data structure is outside of the range of indices for that structure. The datum field contains the offending object.

(error:datum-out-of-range 3) ; The object 3 is not in the correct range.
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

error:datum-out-of-range  datum  
[procedure]
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:datum-out-of-range. The datum field of the condition is filled in from the corresponding argument to the procedure.

condition-type:bad-range-argument  datum  operator  operand  
[condition type]
This type indicates that a procedure was passed an argument that is of the correct type but is otherwise out of range. Most often, this type indicates that an index to some data structure is outside of the range of indices for that structure. The operator field contains the procedure (or a symbol naming the procedure), the operand field indicates the argument position that was involved (this field contains either a symbol, a non-negative integer, or #f), and the datum field is the offending argument.

(string-ref "abc" 3) ; The object 3, passed as the second argument to string-ref, ; is not in the correct range.
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 2) => Specify an argument to use in its place.
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

error:bad-range-argument  datum  operator  
[procedure]
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:bad-range-argument. The datum and operator fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure; the operand field of the condition is set to #f.

condition-type:inapplicable-object  datum  operands  
[condition type]
This type indicates an error in which a program attempted to apply an object that is not a procedure. The object being applied is saved in the datum field, and the arguments being passed to the object are saved as a list in the operands field.
(3 4)  
; The object 3 is not applicable.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 2) => Specify a procedure to use in its place.  
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

condition-type:file-error filename  
This is an abstract type. It indicates that an error associated with a file has occurred.  
For example, attempting to delete a nonexistent file will signal an error. The filename field contains a filename or pathname associated with the operation that failed.

condition-type:file-operation-error filename verb noun  
reason operator operands  
This is the most common condition type for file system errors. The filename field contains the filename or pathname that was being operated on. The verb field contains a string which is the verb or verb phrase describing the operation being performed, and the noun field contains a string which is a noun or noun phrase describing the object being operated on. The reason field contains a string describing the error that occurred. The operator field contains the procedure performing the operation (or a symbol naming that procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to that procedure. For example, an attempt to delete a nonexistent file would have the following field values:

filename        
"/zu/cph/tmp/no-such-file"
verb             
"delete"
noun             
"file"
reason           
"no such file or directory"
operator         
file-remove
operands         
("/zu/cph/tmp/no-such-file")

and would generate a message like this:

(delete-file "/zu/cph/tmp/no-such-file") error  
; Unable to delete file "/zu/cph/tmp/no-such-file" because:  
; No such file or directory.  
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:  
; (RESTART 3) => Try to delete the same file again.  
; (RESTART 2) => Try to delete a different file.  
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

error:file-operation-error filename verb noun reason operator operands  
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:file-operation-error.  
The fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

condition-type:derived-file-error filename condition  
This is another kind of file error, which is generated by obscure file-system errors that do not fit into the standard categories. The filename field contains the filename or pathname that was being operated on, and the condition field contains a condition
describing the error in more detail. Usually the condition field contains a condition of type condition-type:system-call-error.

**error:derived-file** filename condition
[procedure]
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:derived-file-error. The filename and condition fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

**condition-type:port-error** port
[condition type]
This is an abstract type. It indicates that an error associated with a I/O port has occurred. For example, writing output to a file port can signal an error if the disk containing the file is full; that error would be signalled as a port error. The port field contains the associated port.

**error:derived-port** port condition
[procedure]
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:derived-port-error. The port and condition fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

**condition-type:variable-error** location environment
[condition type]
This is an abstract type. It indicates that an error associated with a variable has occurred. The location field contains the name of the variable, and the environment field contains the environment in which the variable was referenced.

**condition-type:unbound-variable** location environment
[condition type]
This type is generated when a program attempts to access or modify a variable that is not bound. The location field contains the name of the variable, and the environment field contains the environment in which the reference occurred.

```
foo
; Unbound variable: foo
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 3) => Specify a value to use instead of foo.
; (RESTART 2) => Define foo to a given value.
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

**condition-type:unassigned-variable** location environment
[condition type]
This type is generated when a program attempts to access a variable that is not assigned. The location field contains the name of the variable, and the environment field contains the environment in which the reference occurred.
foo ; Unassigned variable: foo
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 3) => Specify a value to use instead of foo.
; (RESTART 2) => Set foo to a given value.
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

condition-type:arithmetic-error operator operands
This is an abstract type. It indicates that a numerical operation was unable to complete because of an arithmetic error. (For example, division by zero.) The operator field contains the procedure that implements the operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.

(condition type)

condition-type:divide-by-zero operator operands
This type is generated when a program attempts to divide by zero. The operator field contains the procedure that implements the failing operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.

(/ 1 0)
; Division by zero signalled by /.
; To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

procedure error:divide-by-zero operator operands
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:divide-by-zero. The operator and operands fields of the condition are filled in from the corresponding arguments to the procedure.

condition-type:floating-point-overflow operator operands
This type is generated when a program performs an arithmetic operation that results in a floating-point overflow. The operator field contains the procedure that implements the operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.

(condition type)

condition-type:floating-point-underflow operator operands
This type is generated when a program performs an arithmetic operation that results in a floating-point underflow. The operator field contains the procedure that implements the operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.

(condition type)

condition-type:primitive-procedure-error operator operands
This is an abstract type. It indicates that an error was generated by a primitive procedure call. Primitive procedures are distinguished from ordinary procedures in that they are not written in Scheme but instead in the underlying language of the Scheme implementation. The operator field contains the procedure that implements the operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure.
condition-type:system-call-error  operator  operands

system-call error-type
This is the most common condition type generated by primitive procedures. A condition of this type indicates that the primitive made a system call to the operating system, and that the system call signalled an error. The system-call error is reflected back to Scheme as a condition of this type, except that many common system-call errors are automatically translated by the Scheme implementation into more useful forms; for example, a system-call error that occurs while trying to delete a file will be translated into a condition of type condition-type:file-operation-error. The operator field contains the procedure that implements the operation (or a symbol naming the procedure), and the operands field contains a list of the arguments that were passed to the procedure. The system-call and error-type fields contain symbols that describe the specific system call that was being made and the error that occurred, respectively; these symbols are completely operating-system dependent.

condition-type:control-error
This is an abstract type. It describes a class of errors relating to program control flow.

condition-type:no-such-restart  name
This type indicates that a named restart was not active when it was expected to be. Conditions of this type are signalled by several procedures that look for particular named restarts, for example muffle-warning. The name field contains the name that was being searched for.

(muffle-warning)
;The restart named muffle-warning is not bound.
;To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

error:no-such-restart  name
This procedure signals a condition of type condition-type:no-such-restart. The name field of the condition is filled in from the corresponding argument to the procedure.

condition-type:not-loading
A condition of this type is generated when the procedure current-load-pathname is called from somewhere other than inside a file being loaded.

(current-load-pathname)
;No file being loaded.
;To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.

condition-type:warning
This is an abstract type. All warnings should inherit from this type. Warnings are a class of conditions that are usually handled by informing the user of the condition and proceeding the computation normally.
condition-type:simple-warning message irritants

This is the condition generated by the warn procedure. The fields message and irritants are taken directly from the arguments to warn; message contains an object (usually a string) and irritants contains a list of objects. The reporter for this type uses format-error-message to generate its output from message and irritants.

condition-type:simple-condition message irritants

This is an unspecialized condition that does not fall into any of the standard condition classes. The message field contains an object (usually a string) and irritants contains a list of objects. The reporter for this type uses format-error-message to generate its output from message and irritants.

condition-type:breakpoint environment message prompt

A condition of this type is generated by the breakpoint mechanism. The contents of its fields are beyond the scope of this document.
17 Graphics

MIT/GNU Scheme has a simple two-dimensional line-graphics interface that is suitable for many graphics applications. In particular it is often used for plotting data points from experiments. The interface is generic in that it can support different types of graphics devices in a uniform manner. At the present time only one type of graphics device is implemented on each operating system.

Procedures are available for drawing points, lines, and text; defining the coordinate system; clipping graphics output; controlling some of the drawing characteristics; and controlling the output buffer (for devices that perform buffering). Additionally, devices may support custom operations, such as control of colors.

There are some constraints on the arguments to the procedures described in this chapter. Any argument named \texttt{graphics-device} must be a graphics device object that was returned from a call to \texttt{make-graphics-device}. Any argument that is a coordinate must be either an exact integer or an inexact real.

17.1 Opening and Closing of Graphics Devices

\texttt{graphics-type-available? graphics-device-type} \hfill [procedure]
This predicate returns \texttt{#t} if the graphics system named by the symbol \texttt{graphics-device-type} is implemented by the Scheme system. Otherwise it returns \texttt{#f}, in which case it is an error to attempt to make a graphics device using \texttt{graphics-device-type}.

\texttt{enumerate-graphics-types} \hfill [procedure]
This procedure returns a list of symbols which are the names of all the graphics device types that are supported by the Scheme system. The result is useful in deciding what additional arguments to supply to \texttt{make-graphics-device}, as each device type typically has a unique way of specifying the initial size, shape and other attributes.

\texttt{make-graphics-device graphics-device-type object \ldots} \hfill [procedure]
This operation creates and returns a graphics device object. \texttt{Graphics-device-type} is a symbol naming a graphics device type, and both the number and the meaning of the remaining arguments is determined by that type (see the description of each device type for details); \texttt{graphics-device-type} must satisfy \texttt{graphics-type-available?}. \texttt{Graphics-device-type} may also be \texttt{#f}, in which case the graphics device type is chosen by the system from what is available. This allows completely portable graphics programs to be written provided no custom graphics operations are used. When \texttt{graphics-device-type} is \texttt{#f} no further arguments may be given; each graphics device type will use some “sensible” defaults. If more control is required then the program should use one of the two procedures above to dispatch on the available types.

This procedure opens and initializes the device, which remains valid until explicitly closed by the procedure \texttt{graphics-close}. Depending on the implementation of the graphics device, if this object is reclaimed by the garbage collector, the graphics device may remain open or it may be automatically closed. While a graphics device remains open the resources associated with it are not released.
### 17.2 Coordinates for Graphics

Each graphics device has two different coordinate systems associated with it: *device coordinates* and *virtual coordinates*. Device coordinates are generally defined by low-level characteristics of the device itself, and often cannot be changed. Most device coordinate systems are defined in terms of pixels, and usually the upper-left-hand corner is the origin of the coordinate system, with $x$ coordinates increasing to the right and $y$ coordinates increasing downwards.

In contrast, virtual coordinates are more flexible in the units employed, the position of the origin, and even the direction in which the coordinates increase. A virtual coordinate system is defined by assigning coordinates to the edges of a device. Because these edge coordinates are arbitrary real numbers, any Cartesian coordinate system can be defined.

All graphics procedures that use coordinates are defined on virtual coordinates. For example, to draw a line at a particular place on a device, the virtual coordinates for the endpoints of that line are given.

When a graphics device is initialized, its virtual coordinate system is reset so that the left edge corresponds to an $x$-coordinate of $-1$, the right edge to $x$-coordinate $1$, the bottom edge to $y$-coordinate $-1$, and the top edge to $y$-coordinate $1$.

### 17.3 Drawing Graphics

The procedures in this section provide the basic drawing capabilities of Scheme’s graphics system.

**graphics-clear graphics-device**  
Cleans the display of `graphics-device`. Unaffected by the current drawing mode.
**graphics-draw-point**  
`graphics-device x y`  
[procedure]  
Draws a single point on `graphics-device` at the virtual coordinates given by `x` and `y`, using the current drawing mode.

**graphics-erase-point**  
`graphics-device x y`  
[procedure]  
Erases a single point on `graphics-device` at the virtual coordinates given by `x` and `y`. This procedure is unaffected by the current drawing mode.

This is equivalent to

```
(lambda (device x y)
  (graphics-bind-drawing-mode device 0
    (lambda ()
      (graphics-draw-point device x y))))
```

**graphics-draw-line**  
`graphics-device x-start y-start x-end y-end`  
[procedure]  
`x-start`, `y-start`, `x-end`, and `y-end` must be real numbers. Draws a line on `graphics-device` that connects the points (`x-start`, `y-start`) and (`x-end`, `y-end`). The line is drawn using the current drawing mode and line style.

**graphics-draw-text**  
`graphics-device x y string`  
[procedure]  
Draws the characters of `string` at the point (`x`, `y`) on `graphics-device`, using the current drawing mode. The characteristics of the characters drawn are device-dependent, but all devices are initialized so that the characters are drawn upright, from left to right, with the leftmost edge of the leftmost character at `x`, and the baseline of the characters at `y`.

The following two procedures provide an alternate mechanism for drawing lines, which is more akin to using a plotter. They maintain a cursor, which can be positioned to a particular point and then dragged to another point, producing a line. Sequences of connected line segments can be drawn by dragging the cursor from point to point.

Many graphics operations have an unspecified effect on the cursor. The following exceptions are guaranteed to leave the cursor unaffected:

- `graphics-device-coordinate-limits`
- `graphics-coordinate-limits`
- `graphics-enable-buffering`
- `graphics-disable-buffering`
- `graphics-flush`
- `graphics-bind-drawing-mode`
- `graphics-set-drawing-mode`
- `graphics-bind-line-style`
- `graphics-set-line-style`

The initial state of the cursor is unspecified.

**graphics-move-cursor**  
`graphics-device x y`  
[procedure]  
Moves the cursor for `graphics-device` to the point (`x`, `y`). The contents of the device’s display are unchanged.
**graphics-drag-cursor**  \textit{graphics-device} \(x\ y\)  \hfill \textit{[procedure]}

Draws a line from \textit{graphics-device}'s cursor to the point \((x, y)\), simultaneously moving the cursor to that point. The line is drawn using the current drawing mode and line style.

### 17.4 Characteristics of Graphics Output

Two characteristics of graphics output are so useful that they are supported uniformly by all graphics devices: \textit{drawing mode} and \textit{line style}. A third characteristic, \textit{color}, is equally useful (if not more so), but implementation restrictions prohibit a uniform interface.

The \textit{drawing mode}, an exact integer in the range 0 to 15 inclusive, determines how the figure being drawn is combined with the background over which it is drawn to generate the final result. Initially the drawing mode is set to “source”, so that the new output overwrites whatever appears in that place. Useful alternative drawing modes can, for example, erase what was already there, or invert it.

Altogether 16 boolean operations are available for combining the source (what is being drawn) and the destination (what is being drawn over). The source and destination are combined by the device on a pixel-by-pixel basis as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>ZERO [erase; use background color]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>source AND destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>source AND (NOT destination)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(NOT source) AND destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>source XOR destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>source OR destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>NOT (source OR destination)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>NOT (source XOR destination)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>NOT destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>source OR (NOT destination)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>NOT source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>(NOT source) OR destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>(NOT source) OR (NOT destination)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>ONE [use foreground color]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The \textit{line style}, an exact integer in the range 0 to 7 inclusive, determines which parts of a line are drawn in the foreground color, and which in the background color. The default line style, “solid”, draws the entire line in the foreground color. Alternatively, the “dash” style alternates between foreground and background colors to generate a dashed line. This capability is useful for plotting several things on the same graph.

Here is a table showing the name and approximate pattern of the different styles. A ‘1’ in the pattern represents a foreground pixel, while a ‘-’ represents a background pixel. Note that the precise output for each style will vary from device to device. The only style that is guaranteed to be the same for every device is “solid”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>solid</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dash</td>
<td>1-1-1-1-1-1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dot</td>
<td>1-1-1-1-1-1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zigzag</td>
<td>11-11-11-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
<td>11-11-11-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slash</td>
<td>11-11-11-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross slash</td>
<td>11-11-11-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross dot</td>
<td>11-11-11-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only style that is guaranteed to be the same for every device is “solid”.

---

MIT/GNU Scheme 9.0.1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>solid</td>
<td><code>1111111111111111</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>dash</td>
<td><code>11111111--------</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>dot</td>
<td><code>1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>dash dot</td>
<td><code>1111111111111-1-</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>dash dot dot</td>
<td><code>11111111111-1-1-</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>long dash</td>
<td><code>11111111111------</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>center dash</td>
<td><code>1111111111111-11-</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>center dash dash</td>
<td><code>11111111111-11-</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**graphics-bind-drawing-mode** 
`graphics-device drawing-mode thunk`  
[procedure]

**graphics-bind-line-style** 
`graphics-device line-style thunk`  
[procedure]

These procedures bind the drawing mode or line style, respectively, of `graphics-device`, invoke the procedure `thunk` with no arguments, then undo the binding when `thunk` returns. The value of each procedure is the value returned by `thunk`. Graphics operations performed during `thunk`'s dynamic extent will see the newly bound mode or style as current.

**graphics-set-drawing-mode** 
`graphics-device drawing-mode`  
[procedure]

**graphics-set-line-style** 
`graphics-device line-style`  
[procedure]

These procedures change the drawing mode or line style, respectively, of `graphics-device`. The mode or style will remain in effect until subsequent changes or bindings.

### 17.5 Buffering of Graphics Output

To improve performance of graphics output, most graphics devices provide some form of buffering. By default, Scheme’s graphics procedures flush this buffer after every drawing operation. The procedures in this section allow the user to control the flushing of the output buffer.

**graphics-enable-buffering** 
`graphics-device`  
[procedure]

Enables buffering for `graphics-device`. In other words, after this procedure is called, graphics operations are permitted to buffer their drawing requests. This usually means that the drawing is delayed until the buffer is flushed explicitly by the user, or until it fills up and is flushed by the system.

**graphics-disable-buffering** 
`graphics-device`  
[procedure]

Disables buffering for `graphics-device`. By default, all graphics devices are initialized with buffering disabled. After this procedure is called, all drawing operations perform their output immediately, before returning.

Note: `graphics-disable-buffering` flushes the output buffer if necessary.

**graphics-flush** 
`graphics-device`  
[procedure]

Flushes the graphics output buffer for `graphics-device`. This operation has no effect for devices that do not support buffering, or if buffering is disabled for the device.
17.6 Clipping of Graphics Output

Scheme provides a rudimentary mechanism for restricting graphics output to a given rectangular subsection of a graphics device. By default, graphics output that is drawn anywhere within the device’s virtual coordinate limits will appear on the device. When a clip rectangle is specified, however, output that would have appeared outside the clip rectangle is not drawn.

Note that changing the virtual coordinate limits for a device will usually reset the clip rectangle for that device, as will any operation that affects the size of the device (such as a window resizing operation). However, programs should not depend on this.

**procedure**

`graphics-set-clip-rectangle graphics-device x-left y-bottom x-right y-top`

Specifies the clip rectangle for `graphics-device` in virtual coordinates. X-left, y-bottom, x-right, and y-top must be real numbers. Subsequent graphics output is clipped to the intersection of this rectangle and the device’s virtual coordinate limits.

**procedure**

`graphics-reset-clip-rectangle graphics-device`

Eliminates the clip rectangle for `graphics-device`. Subsequent graphics output is clipped to the virtual coordinate limits of the device.

17.7 Custom Graphics Operations

In addition to the standard operations, a graphics device may support custom operations. For example, most devices have custom operations to control color. `graphics-operation` is used to invoke custom operations.

**procedure**

`graphics-operation graphics-device name object ...`

Invokes the graphics operation on `graphics-device` whose name is the symbol `name`, passing it the remaining arguments. This procedure can be used to invoke the standard operations, as well as custom operations that are specific to a particular graphics device type. The names of the standard graphics operations are formed by removing the `graphics-` prefix from the corresponding procedure. For example, the following are equivalent:

```
(graphics-draw-point device x y)
(graphics-operation device 'draw-point x y)
```

For information on the custom operations for a particular device, see the documentation for its type.

17.8 Images

Some graphics device types support images, which are rectangular pieces of picture that may be drawn into a graphics device. Images are often called something else in the host graphics system, such as bitmaps or pixmaps. The operations supported vary between devices, so look under the different device types to see what operations are available. All devices that support images support the following operations.

**operation on `graphics-device`**

`create-image width height`

Images are created using the `create-image` graphics operation, specifying the `width` and `height` of the image in device coordinates (pixels).
(graphics-operation device 'create-image 200 100)

The initial contents of an image are unspecified.

create-image is a graphics operation rather than a procedure because the kind of image returned depends on the kind of graphics device used and the options specified in its creation. The image may be used freely with other graphics devices created with the same attributes, but the effects of using an image with a graphics device with different attributes (for example, different colors) is undefined. Under X, the image is display dependent.

draw-image x y image
[operation on graphics-device]
The image is copied into the graphics device at the specified position.

draw-subimage x y image im-x im-y w h
[operation on graphics-device]
Part of the image is copied into the graphics device at the specified (x, y) position. The part of the image that is copied is the rectangular region at im-x and im-y and of width w and height h. These four numbers are given in device coordinates (pixels).

image? object
Returns #t if object is an image, otherwise returns #f.

image/destroy image
This procedure destroys image, returning storage to the system. Programs should destroy images after they have been used because even modest images may use large amounts of memory. Images are reclaimed by the garbage collector, but they may be implemented using memory outside of Scheme’s heap. If an image is reclaimed before being destroyed, the implementation might not deallocate that non-heap memory, which can cause a subsequent call to create-image to fail because it is unable to allocate enough memory.

image/height image
Returns the height of the image in device coordinates.

image/width image
Returns the width of the image in device coordinates.

image/fill-from-byte-vector image bytes
[procedure]
The contents of image are set in a device-dependent way, using one byte per pixel from bytes (a string). Pixels are filled row by row from the top of the image to the bottom, with each row being filled from left to right. There must be at least (* (image/height image) (image/width image)) bytes in bytes.

17.9 X Graphics

MIT/GNU Scheme supports graphics in the X window system (version 11). Arbitrary numbers of displays may be opened, and arbitrary numbers of graphics windows may be created for each display. A variety of operations is available to manipulate various aspects of the windows, to control their size, position, colors, and mapping. The X graphics device type supports images, which are implemented as Xlib XImage objects. X display, window, and image objects are automatically closed if they are reclaimed by the garbage collector.
17.9.1 X Graphics Type

A graphics device for X windows is created by passing the symbol x as the graphics device type name to make-graphics-device:

\[
\text{(make-graphics-device 'x \#optional display geometry suppress-map?)}
\]

where display is either a display object, \#f, or a string; geometry is either \#f or a string; and suppress-map? is a boolean or a vector (see below). A new window is created on the appropriate display, and a graphics device representing that window is returned.

Display specifies which X display the window is to be opened on; if it is \#f or a string, it is passed as an argument to x-open-display, and the value returned by that procedure is used in place of the original argument. Geometry is an X geometry string, or \#f which means to use the default geometry (which is specified as a resource).

Suppress-map?, if given, may take two forms. First, it may be a boolean: if \#f (the default), the window is automatically mapped after it is created; otherwise, \#t means to suppress this automatic mapping. The second form is a vector of three elements. The first element is a boolean with the same meaning as the boolean form of suppress-map?. The second element is a string, which specifies an alternative resource name to be used for looking up the window’s resources. The third element is also a string, which specifies a class name for looking up the window’s resources. The default value for suppress-map? is \#f.

The default resource and class names are "schemeGraphics" and "SchemeGraphics" respectively.

The window is initialized using the resource and class names specified by suppress-map?, and is sensitive to the following resource properties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Default</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>geometry</td>
<td>Geometry</td>
<td>512x384+0+0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>font</td>
<td>Font</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borderWidth</td>
<td>BorderWidth</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internalBorder</td>
<td>BorderWidth</td>
<td>[border width]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>background</td>
<td>Background</td>
<td>white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foreground</td>
<td>Foreground</td>
<td>black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borderColor</td>
<td>BorderColor</td>
<td>[foreground color]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cursorColor</td>
<td>Foreground</td>
<td>[foreground color]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pointerColor</td>
<td>Foreground</td>
<td>[foreground color]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The window is created with a backing_store attribute of Always. The window’s name and icon name are initialized to "scheme-graphics".

17.9.2 Utilities for X Graphics

x-graphics/open-display  display-name  [procedure]

Opens a connection to the display whose name is display-name, returning a display object. If unable to open a connection, \#f is returned. Display-name is normally a string, which is an X display name in the usual form; however, \#f is also allowed, meaning to use the value of the unix environment variable DISPLAY.
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x-graphics/close-display display  [procedure]
Closes display; after calling this procedure, it is an error to use display for any purpose. Any windows that were previously opened on display are destroyed and their resources returned to the operating system.

x-close-all-displays  [procedure]
Closes all open connections to X displays. Equivalent to calling x-close-display on all open displays.

x-geometry-string x y width height  [procedure]
This procedure creates and returns a standard X geometry string from the given arguments. X and y must be either exact integers or #f, while width and height must be either exact non-negative integers or #f. Usually either x and y are both specified or both #f; similarly for width and height. If only one of the elements of such a pair is specified, it is ignored.

Examples:
  (x-geometry-string #f #f 100 200) ⇒ "100x200"
  (x-geometry-string 2 -3 100 200) ⇒ "100x200+2-3"
  (x-geometry-string 2 -3 #f #f) ⇒ "+2-3"

Note that the x and y arguments cannot distinguish between +0 and -0, even though these have different meanings in X. If either of those arguments is 0, it means +0 in X terminology. If you need to distinguish these two cases you must create your own geometry string using Scheme’s string and number primitives.

17.9.3 Custom Operations on X Graphics Devices

Custom operations are invoked using the procedure graphics-operation. For example,

  (graphics-operation device 'set-foreground-color "blue")

set-background-color color-name  [operation on x-graphics-device]
set-foreground-color color-name  [operation on x-graphics-device]
set-border-color color-name  [operation on x-graphics-device]
set-mouse-color color-name  [operation on x-graphics-device]

These operations change the colors associated with a window. Color-name must be a string, which is the X server’s name for the desired color. set-border-color and set-mouse-color immediately change the border and mouse-cursor colors. set-background-color and set-foreground-color change the colors to be used when drawing, but have no effect on anything drawn prior to their invocation. Because changing the background color affects the entire window, we recommend calling graphics-clear on the window’s device afterwards. Color names include both mnemonic names, like "red", and intensity names specified in the "#rrggbb" notation.

draw-arc x y radius-x radius-y angle-start angle-sweep fill?  [operation on x-graphics-device]

Operation draw-arc draws or fills an arc. An arc is a segment of a circle, which may have been stretched along the x- or y- axis to form an ellipse.
The parameters $x$, $y$, $radius-x$ and $radius-y$ describe the circle and $angle-start$ and $angle-sweep$ choose which part of the circle is drawn. The arc is drawn on the graphics device with the center of the circle at the virtual coordinates given by $x$ and $y$. $radius-x$ and $radius-y$ determine the size of the circle in virtual coordinate units.

The parameter $angle-start$ determines where the arc starts. It is measured in degrees in an anti-clockwise direction, starting at 3 o’clock. $angle-sweep$ determines how much of the circle is drawn. It too is measured anti-clockwise in degrees. A negative value means the measurement is in a clockwise direction.

Note that the angles are determined on a unit circle before it is stretched into an ellipse, so the actual angles that you will see on the computer screen depends on all of: $radius-x$ and $radius-y$, the window size, and the virtual coordinates.

If $fill?$ is #f then just the segment of the circle is drawn, otherwise the arc is filled in a pie-slice fashion.

This draws a quarter circle pie slice, standing on its point, with point at virtual coordinates (3,5):

```
(graphics-opereration g 'draw-arc 3 5 .5 .5 45 90 #t)
```

- **draw-circle** $x$ $y$ $radius$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
- **fill-circle** $x$ $y$ $radius$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
  
  These operations draw a circle (outline) or a filled circle (solid) at the virtual coordinates given by $x$ and $y$. These operations could be implemented trivially in terms of the draw-arc operation.

- **set-border-width** $width$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
- **set-internal-border-width** $width$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
  
  These operations change the external and internal border widths of a window. $Width$ must be an exact non-negative integer, specified in pixels. The change takes place immediately. Note that changing the internal border width can cause displayed graphics to be garbled; we recommend calling **graphics-clear** on the window’s device after doing so.

- **set-font** $font-name$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
  
  Changes the font used when drawing text in a window. $Font-name$ must be a string that is a font name known to the X server. This operation does not affect text drawn prior to its invocation.

- **set-mouse-shape** $shape-number$ [operation on x-graphics-device]
  
  Changes the shape of the mouse cursor. $Shape-number$ is an exact non-negative integer that is used as an index into the mouse-shape font; when multiplied by 2 this number corresponds to an index in the file ‘/usr/include/X11/cursorfont.h’.

- **map-window** [operation on x-graphics-device]
- **withdraw-window** [operation on x-graphics-device]
  
  These operations control the mapping of windows. They correspond directly to Xlib’s XMapWindow and XWithdrawWindow.
**resize-window width height** [operation on x-graphics-device]

Changes the size of a window. *Width* and *height* must be exact non-negative integers.
The operation corresponds directly to Xlib’s `XResizeWindow`.

This operation resets the virtual coordinate system and the clip rectangle.

**move-window x y** [operation on x-graphics-device]

Changes the position of a window on the display. *X* and *y* must be exact integers.
The operation corresponds directly to Xlib’s `XMoveWindow`. Note that the coordinates
*x* and *y* do not take the external border into account, and therefore will not position
the window as you might like. The only reliable way to position a window is to ask
a window manager to do it for you.

**get-default resource property** [operation on x-graphics-device]

This operation corresponds directly to Xlib’s `XGetDefault`. *Resource* and *property*
must be strings. The operation returns the character string corresponding to the
association of *resource* and *property*; if no such association exists, #f is returned.

**copy-area source-x-left source-y-top width height** [operation on x-graphics-device]

*destination-x-left destination-y-top*

This operation copies the contents of the rectangle specified by *source-x-left*, *source-y-top*, *width*, and *height* to the rectangle of the same dimensions at *destination-x-left* and *destination-y-top*.

**font-structure font-name** [operation on x-graphics-device]

Returns a Scheme equivalent of the X font structure for the font named *font-name*. If
the string *font-name* does not name a font known to the X server, or names a 16-bit
font, #f is returned.

**x-font-structure/name** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/direction** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/all-chars-exist** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/default-char** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/min-bounds** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/max-bounds** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/start-index** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/character-bounds** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/max-ascent** font-structure [procedure]

**x-font-structure/max-descent** font-structure [procedure]

These procedures extract the components of the font description structure returned by
the X graphics operation `font-structure`. A more complete description of these com-
ponents appears in documentation of the `XLoadQueryFont` Xlib call. *start-index* is
the index of the first character available in the font. The *min-bounds* and *max-bounds*
components are structures of type `x-character-bounds`, and the *character-bounds*
component is a vector of the same type.

**x-character-bounds/lbearing** character-bounds [procedure]

**x-character-bounds/rbearing** character-bounds [procedure]

**x-character-bounds/width** character-bounds [procedure]

**x-character-bounds/ascent** character-bounds [procedure]
These procedures extract components of objects of type `x-character-bounds`. A more complete description of them appears in documentation of the `XLoadQueryFont` Xlib call.

17.10 Win32 Graphics

MIT/GNU Scheme supports graphics on Microsoft Windows 95, Windows 98, and Windows NT. In addition to the usual operations, there are operations to control the size, position and colors of a graphics window. Win32 devices support images, which are implemented as device independent bitmaps (DIBs).

The Win32 graphics device type is implemented as a top level window. `graphics-enable-buffering` is implemented and gives a 2x to 4x speedup on many graphics operations. As a convenience, when buffering is enabled clicking on the graphics window’s title bar effects a `graphics-flush` operation. The user has the benefit of the increased performance and the ability to view the progress in drawing at the click of a mouse button.

17.10.1 Win32 Graphics Type

Win32 graphics devices are created by specifying the symbol `win32` as the `graphics-device-type` argument to `make-graphics-device`. The Win32 graphics device type is implemented as a top-level window and supports color drawing in addition to the standard Scheme graphics operations.

Graphics devices are opened as follows:

```
(make-graphics-device 'win32 #!optional width height palette)
```

where `width` and `height` specify the size, in pixels, of the drawing area in the graphics window (i.e. excluding the frame). `Palette` determines the colors available for drawing in the window.

When a color is specified for drawing, the nearest color available in the palette is used. Permitted values for `palette` are

- `'grayscale`
  - The window allocates colors from a grayscale palette of approximately 236 shades of gray.

- `'grayscale-128`
  - The window allocates colors from a grayscale palette of 128 shades of gray.

- `'standard`
  - The standard palette has good selection of colors and grays.

- `#f` or `'system`
  - The colors available are those in the system palette. There are usually 16 to 20 colors in the system palette and these are usually sufficient for simple applications like line drawings and x-vs-y graphs of mathematical functions. Drawing with the system palette can be more efficient.

If `palette` is not specified then the `standard` palette is used.
17.10.2 Custom Operations for Win32 Graphics

Custom operations are invoked using the procedure \texttt{graphics-operation}. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
(graphics-operation device 'set-foreground-color "blue")
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
(set-background-color color-name)
(set-foreground-color color-name)
\end{verbatim}

These operations change the colors associated with a window. \textit{Color-name} must be of one of the valid color specification forms listed below. \texttt{set-background-color} and \texttt{set-foreground-color} change the colors to be used when drawing, but have no effect on anything drawn prior to their invocation. Because changing the background color affects the entire window, we recommend calling \texttt{graphics-clear} on the window's device afterwards.

The foreground color affects the drawing of text, points, lines, ellipses and filled polygons.

Colors are specified in one of three ways:

- An integer\hfill This is the Win32 internal RGB value.
- By name\hfill A limited number of names are understood by the system. Names are strings, e.g. "red", "blue", "black". More names can be registered with the \texttt{define-color} operation.
- RGB (Red-Green-Blue) triples\hfill A triple is either a vector or list of three integers in the range 0–255 inclusive which specify the intensity of the red, green and blue components of the color. Thus \texttt{#(0 0 0)} is black, \texttt{(0 0 128)} is dark blue and \texttt{#(255 255 255)} is white.

If the color is not available in the graphics device then the nearest available color is used instead.

\begin{verbatim}
(define-color name spec)
\end{verbatim}

Define the string \textit{name} to be the color specified by \textit{spec}. \textit{Spec} may be any acceptable color specification. Note that the color names defined this way are available to any Win32 graphics device, and the names do not have to be defined for each device.

Color names defined by this interface may also be used when setting the colors of the Scheme console window, or the colors of Edwin editor windows.

\begin{verbatim}
(find-color name)
\end{verbatim}

Looks up a color previously defined by \texttt{define-color}. This returns the color in its most efficient form for operations \texttt{set-foreground-color} or \texttt{set-background-color}.

\begin{verbatim}
(draw-ellipse left top right bottom)
\end{verbatim}

Draw an ellipse. \textit{Left, top, right} and \textit{bottom} indicate the coordinates of the bounding rectangle of the ellipse. Circles are merely ellipses with equal width and height. Note that the bounding rectangle has horizontal and vertical sides. Ellipses with rotated axes cannot be drawn. The rectangle applies to the center of the line used to draw the ellipse; if the line width has been set to greater than 1 then the ellipse will spill outside the bounding rectangle by half of the line width.
**fill-polygon points**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
Draws a filled polygon using the current foreground color. Points is a vector of real numbers. The numbers are in the order x1 y1 x2 y2 ... xn yn. For example,  

```scheme
(graphics-operation device 'fill-polygon #(0 0 0 1 1 0))
```

draws a solid triangular region between the points (0, 0), (0, 1) and (1, 0).

**load-bitmap pathname**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
The graphics device contents and size are initialized from the windows bitmap file specified by pathname. If no file type is supplied then a "*.BMP" extension is added. If a clip rectangle is in effect when this procedure is called, it is necessary to redefine the clip rectangle afterwards.

**save-bitmap pathname**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
The graphics device contents are saved as a bitmap to the file specified by pathname. If no file type is supplied then a "*.BMP" extension is added. The saved bitmap may be incorporated into documents or printed.

**move-window x y**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
The graphics device window is moved to the screen position specified by x and y.

**resize-window width height**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
The graphics device window is resized to the specified width and height in device coordinates (pixels). If a clip rectangle is in effect when this procedure is called, it is necessary to redefine the clip rectangle afterwards.

**set-line-width width**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
This operation sets the line width for future drawing of lines, points and ellipses. It does not affect existing lines and has no effect on filled polygons. The line width is specified in device units. The default and initial value of this parameter is 1 pixel.

**set-window-name name**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
This sets the window title to the string name. The window is given the name "Scheme Graphics" at creation.

**set-font handle**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
Sets the font for drawing text. Currently not well supported. If you can get a Win32 font handle it can be used here.

**copy-area source-x-left source-y-top width height destination-x-left destination-y-top**  
(operation on win32-graphics-device)  
This operation copies the contents of the rectangle specified by source-x-left, source-y-top, width, and height to the rectangle of the same dimensions at destination-x-left and destination-y-top.
18 Win32 Package Reference

18.1 Overview

The Win32 implementation is still in a state of development. It is expected that changes will be necessary when MIT/GNU Scheme is ported to Windows NT on the DEC Alpha architecture. In particular, the current system is not arranged in a way that adequately distinguishes between issues that are a consequence of the NT operating system and those which are a consequence of the Intel x86 architecture.

Thus this documentation is not definitive, it merely outlines how the current system works. Parts of the system will change and any project implemented using the win32 system must plan for a re-implementation stage.

The Win32 implementation has several components:

- Special microcode primitives.
- A foreign function interface (FFI) for calling procedures in dynamically linked libraries (DLLs).
- An interface for Edwin.
- The Win32 package provides support for using the features of the Windows 3.1 and Windows NT 3.1 environments.
- Device Independent Bitmap utilities. These are used by the win32 Scheme Graphics implementation. (The Scheme Graphics implementation is described in the Reference Manual).

Note that all the names in the Win32 support are part of the win32 package. The names are bound in the (win32) environment, and do not appear as bindings in the user or root environments. An effect of this is that it is far easier to develop Win32 software in the (win32) package environment or a child environment.

18.2 Foreign Function Interface

The Win32 foreign function interface (FFI) is a primitive and fairly simple system for calling procedures written in C in a dynamically linked library (DLL). Both user’s procedures from a custom DLL and system procedures (e.g. MessageBox) are called using the same mechanism.

Warning: The FFI as it stands has several flaws which make it difficult to use reliably. It is expected that both the interface to and the mechanisms used by the FFI will be changed in the future. We provide it, and this documentation, only to give people an early start in accessing some of the features of Win32 from Scheme. Should you use it in an experiment we welcome any feedback.

The FFI is designed for calling C procedures that use C data types rather than Scheme data objects. Thus it is not possible to write and call a C procedure that returns, for example, a Scheme list. The object returned will always be an integer (which may represent the address of a C data structure).

Warning: It is extremely dangerous to try to pass Scheme callback procedures to C procedures. It is only possible by passing integer ‘handles’ rather than the actual procedures,
and even so, if a garbage collection occurs during the execution of the callback procedure objects in Scheme’s heap will have moved. Thus in a foreign procedure that has a callback and a string, after calling the callback the string value may no longer be valid. Playing this game requires a profound knowledge of the implementation.

The interface to the FFI has two main components: a language for declaring the types of values passed to and returned from the foreign procedures and a form for declaring foreign procedures.

18.2.1 Windows Types

Foreign types are designed to represent a correspondence between a Scheme data type that is used to represent an object within the Scheme world and a C data type that represents the data object in the C world. Thus we cannot manipulate true C objects in Scheme, nor can we manipulate Scheme objects in C.

Each foreign type has four aspects that together ensure that the correspondence between the Scheme and C objects is maintained. These aspects are all encoded as procedures that either check for validity or convert between representations. Thus a foreign type is not a declarative type so much as a procedural description of how to pass the type. The underlying foreign procedure call mechanism can pass integers and vector-like Scheme objects, and returns integer values. All other objects must be translated into integers or some other basic type, and must be recovered from integers.

The aspects are:

check
  A predicate that returns \texttt{#t} if the argument is of an acceptable Scheme type, otherwise returns \texttt{#f}. The check procedure is used for type-checking.

convert
  A procedure of one argument which returns a Scheme object of one of the basic types. It is used to convert an object into a ‘simpler’ object that will eventually be converted into a C object. The legal simpler objects are integers and strings.

return-convert
  A procedure of one argument that, given an integer, returns a Scheme object of a type satisfying \texttt{check}. Its purpose is to convert the result returned by the foreign procedure into a Scheme value.

revert
  Some C procedures modify one or more of their arguments. These arguments are passed by reference, i.e. as a pointer to their address. Since a Scheme object might have a different memory layout and storage conventions, it must be passed by copy-in and copy-out rather than by reference. Revert is a procedure of two parameters, the original object passed and the result of convert on that object. Revert may then inspect the converted object and copy back the changes to the original.

\texttt{define-windows-type name check convert return revert} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{[special form]}
\texttt{define-similar-windows-type name model [check [convert [return \texttt{[revert]]]]]} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{[special form]}

Both forms define a windows type. The first form defines a type in terms of its aspects as described above. The second defines the type as being like another type, except for certain aspects, which are redefined. \texttt{Name} is the name of the type. \texttt{Model} is the name of a type. \texttt{Check, convert, return} and \texttt{revert} are procedures or the value \texttt{#f}. A
#f means use the default value, which in the second form means use the definition provided for model. The defaults are

`check` (lambda (x) #t), i.e. unchecked.

`convert` (lambda (x) x), i.e. no translation performed.

`return` (lambda (x) x), i.e. no translation performed.

`revert` (lambda (x y) unspecific), i.e. no update performed

The `unchecked` windows type (see below) is defined as:

```
(define-windows-type unchecked #f #f #f #f)
```

Windows types are not first class values, so they cannot be stored in variables or defined using `define`:

```
(define my-type unchecked)
```

error Unbound variable

```
(define-similar-windows-type my-type unchecked)
```

;; the correct way

Scheme characters must be converted to integers. This is accomplished as follows:

```
(define-windows-type char
  char? ; check
  char->integer ; convert
  integer->char ; convert return value
  #f ; cannot be passed by reference)
```

`unchecked` [windows type]

The type which is not checked and undergoes only the basic conversion from a Scheme integer to a C integer or from a Scheme string to a C pointer to the first byte of the string. Returned `unchecked` values are returned as integers.

`bool` [windows type]

Scheme booleans are analogous to C integers 0 and 1. Windows type `bool` have been defined as:

```
(define-windows-type bool
  boolean?
  (lambda (x) (if x 1 0))
  (lambda (x) (if (eq? x 0) #f #t))
  #f)
```

`char` [windows type]

Scheme characters are converted into C objects of type `char`, which are indistinguishable from small integers.

`int` [windows type]

`uint` [windows type]

`long` [windows type]

`ulong` [windows type]

`short` [windows type]

`ushort` [windows type]
word
byte

Various integer types that are passed without conversion.

string

A string that is passed as a C pointer of type char* to the first character in the string.

char*

A string or #f. The string is passed as a pointer to characters. The string is correctly null-terminated. #f is passed as the null pointer. This is an example where there is a more complex mapping between C objects and Scheme objects. C’s char* type is represented as one of two Scheme types depending on its value. This allows us to distinguish between the C string (pointer) that points to the empty sequence of characters and the null pointer (which doesn’t point anywhere).

handle
hbitmap
hbrash
hcursor
hdc
hicon
hinstance
hmenu
hpalette
hpenn
hrgn
hwnd

Various kinds of Win32 handle. These names correspond to the same, but all uppercase, names in the Windows C language header files. Win32 API calls are the source of values of this type and the values are meaningless except as arguments to other Win32 API calls. Currently these values are represented as integers but we expect that Win32 handles will in future be represented by allocated Scheme objects (e.g. records) that will allow predicates (e.g. hmenu?) and sensible interlocking with the garbage collector to free the programmer of the current tedious allocation and deallocation of handles.

resource-id

A Windows resource identifier is either a small integer or a string. In C, this distinction is possible because pointers look like larger integers, so a machine word representing a small integer can be distinguished from a machine word that is a pointer to the text of the name of the resource.

18.2.2 Windows Foreign Procedures

Foreign procedures are declared as callable entry-points in a module, usually a dynamically linked library (DLL).

find-module name

Returns a module suitable for use in creating procedures with windows-procedure. Name is a string which is the name of a DLL file. Internally, find-module uses the
LoadLibrary Win32 API, so name should conform to the specifications for this call. Name should be either a full path name of a DLL, or the name of a DLL that resides in the same directory as the Scheme binary ‘SCHEME.EXE’ or in the system directory.

The module returned is a description for the DLL, and the DLL need not necessarily be linked at or immediately after this call. DLL modules are linked on need and unlinked before Scheme exits and when there are no remaining references to entry points after a garbage-collection. This behavior ensures that the Scheme system can run when a DLL is absent, provided the DLL is not actually used (i.e. no attempt is made to call a procedure in the DLL).

**gdi32.dll**  
This variable is bound to the module describing the ‘GDI32.DLL’ library, which contains the Win32 API graphics calls, e.g. LineTo.

**kernel32.dll**  
This variable is bound to the module describing the ‘KERNEL32.DLL’ library.

**user32.dll**  
This variable is bound to the module describing the ‘USER32.DLL’ library. This module contains many useful Win32 API procedures, like MessageBox and SetWindowText.

**windows-procedure (name (parameter type) ...) return-type module**  
This form creates a procedure, and could be thought of as “foreign-named-lambda”. The form creates a Scheme procedure that calls the C procedure identified by the exported entry point entry-name in the module identified by the value of module. Both entry-name and module are evaluated at procedure creation time, so either may be expression. Entry-name must evaluate to a string and module must evaluate to a module as returned by find-module. These are the only parts of the form that are evaluated at procedure creation time.

Name is the name of the procedure and is for documentation purposes only. This form does not define a procedure called name. It is more like lambda. The name might be used for debugging and pretty-printing.

A windows procedure has a fixed number of parameters (i.e. no ‘rest’ parameters or ‘varargs’), each of which is named and associated with a windows type type. Both the name parameter and the windows type type must be symbols and are not evaluated. The procedure returns a value of the windows type return-type.

The following example creates a procedure that takes a window handle (hwnd) and a string and returns a boolean (bool) result. The procedure does this by calling the SetWindowTitle entry in the module that is the value of the variable user32.dll. The variable set-window-title is defined to have this procedure as it’s value.
(define set-window-title
  (windows-procedure
   (set-window-text (window hwnd) (text string))
   bool user32.dll "SetWindowText")
)

(set-window-title my-win "Hi")
⇒ #t
;; Changes window’s title/text

(set-window-title ⇒ #[compiled-procedure ...]
  ⇒ #\[error\] Unbound variable
)

When there are no options the created procedure will (a) check its arguments against the types, (b) convert the arguments, (c) call the C procedure and (d) convert the returned value. No reversion is performed, even if one of the types has a reversion defined. (Reverted types are rare [I have never used one], so paying a cost for this unless it is used seems silly).

The following options are allowed:

with-reversions
  The reversions are included in the type conversions.

expand                   A synonym for with-reversions.

Scheme code
  The Scheme code is placed between steps (a) and (b) in the default process. The Scheme code can enforce constraints on the arguments, including constraints between arguments such as checking that an index refers to a valid position in a string.

If both options (i.e. with-reversions and Scheme code) are used, with-reversions must appear first. There can be arbitrarily many Scheme expression.

18.2.3 Win32 API names and procedures

This section is a moving target.

The #define values from 'wingdi.h' and 'winuser.h' are available as bindings in the (win32) package environment. The #define symbols are all uppercase; these have been translated to all lowercase Scheme identifiers, thus WM_LBUTTONUP is the scheme variable wm_lbuttonup. As Scheme is case insensitive, the upper-case version may be used and probably should to make the code look more like conventional Windows code. The Scheme bindings have been produced automagically. Most of the #define-symbols contain an underscore so there are not many name clashes. There is one very notable name clash, however: ERROR is #defined to 0, which shadows the scheme procedure error in the root package environment. To signal an error, use access to get error from the system global environment:

(declare (usual-integrations))
...
((access error system-global-environment) "Complain" ...)

The set of procedures is incomplete because procedures have been added on a by-need basis for the implementation of other parts of the system, e.g. Scheme Graphics. Look in the implementation for further details.
Win32 API procedure names have been uniformly converted into Scheme identifiers as follows:

- A leading uppercase letter is translated into a lowercase letter.
- Subsequent sequences of uppercase letters are translated into lowercase letters preceded by a hyphen (minus symbol), i.e. hyphens are inserted at a lowercase to uppercase transition.
- Predicates beginning with Is finally have a question-mark appended.

Example: applying these rules to IsWindow yields is-window?, and GetDC is translated into get-dc.

### 18.3 Device Independent Bitmap Utilities

The Device Independent Bitmap (DIB) utilities library ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’ and the associated procedures in ‘dib.scm’ in the Win32 system source is an example of how to use the foreign function interface to access and manipulate non-Scheme objects.

**dib**

In the C world a DIB is a *handle* to a piece of memory containing the bits that represent information about the image and the pixels of the image. The handle is a machine-word sized piece of data which may be thought of as a 32 bit integer. The handle may be null (i.e. zero), indicating that there is no block of memory describing the DIB. The null value is usually returned by C functions that are supposed to create a DIB but failed, for some reason like the memory could not be allocated or a file could not be opened.

In the Scheme world a DIB is a structure containing information about the bitmap (specifically the integer that represents the handle). We also include #f in the dib windows type to mirror the null handle error value.

```scheme
(define dib-result
  (lambda (handle)
    (if (= handle 0)
        #f
        (make-dib handle)))))

(define dib-arg
  (lambda (dib)
    (if dib
        (cell-contents (dib-handle dib))
        0)))

(define-windows-type dib
  (lambda (thing) (or (dib? thing) (eq? thing #f)))
  dib-arg
dib-result)

### 18.3.1 DIB procedures

The following procedures have typed parameters, using the same convention as windows-procedure.
open-dib (filename string) [procedure]
Return type: dib. Calls the OpenDIB entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. If the return value is not #f then the file filename was found, successfully opened, and the contents were suitable for loading into memory as a device independent bitmap.

write-dib (filename string) (dib dib) [procedure]
Return type: bool. Calls the WriteDIB entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. Returns #t if the file filename could be opened and written to. After this operation the file contains the bitmap data in a standard format that is understood by open-dib and various system utilities like the bitmap editor. Any problems resulting in failure are signalled by a #f return value.

bitmap-from-dib (dib dib) (palette hpalette) [procedure]
Return type: hbitmap. Calls the BitmapFromDib entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. The returned value is a device dependent bitmap. The colours from the DIB are matched against colors in palette.

dib-from-bitmap (bitmap hbitmap) (style dword) (bits word) (palette hpalette) [procedure]
Return type: dib. Returns a DIB containing the same image as the device dependent bitmap bitmap. Style determines the kind of DIB, e.g. compression style. Calls the DibFromBitmap entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’.

dib-blt (dest hdc) (x int) (y int) (w int) (h int) (src dib) (src-x int) (src-y int) (raster-op long) [procedure]
Return type: bool. Calls the DibBlt entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. Similar to the Win32 API BitBlt call, but draws a DIB rather than a piece of another device context. Draws the dib on device context hdc at position (x,y). A rectangle of width w and height h is copied from position (src-x,src-y) of dib. Raster-op is supposed to allow the source and destination to be combined but I don’t think I got this right so stick to SRCCOPY.

delete-dib (dib dib) [procedure]
Return type: bool. This procedure reclaims the storage occupied by a DIB. After being deleted, the DIB should not be used. This procedure allows the programmer to reclaim external heap storage rather than risking it running out before the next garbage collection.

dib-height (dib dib) [procedure]
Return type: int. Calls the DibHeight expand entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’, which returns the height of the bitmap in pixels.

dib-width (dib dib) [procedure]
Return type: int. Calls the DibWidth entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’, which returns the width of the bitmap in pixels.

copy-bitmap (bm hbitmap) [procedure]
Return type: hbitmap. Calls the CopyBitmap of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’, which creates a new bitmap with the same size and contents as the original.
create-dib (width int) (height int) (style int) (depth int) (palette hpalette) [procedure]
Return type: dib. Calls the CreateDIB entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. Creates a DIB of
width by height pixels and depth bits of colour information. The style parameter
determines how the bitmap is stored. I have only ever used BI_RGB. If depth<=8
then the palette determines the DIB’s colour table.

crop-bitmap (bm hbitmap) (left int) (top int) (right int) (bottom int) [procedure]
Return type: hbitmap. Calls the CropBitmap entry of ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. Returns a
new bitmap containing the image from a region of the original.

dib-set-pixels-unaligned dib (pixels string) [procedure]
Return type: bool. Calls the DIBSetPixelsUnaligned entry of
‘DIBUTILS.DLL’. Stuffs bytes from pixels into the bitmap. There are no alignment
constraints on pixels (the usual way of doing this is to use the SetDIBits function
which requires that every scan line of the bitmap is 32-bit word aligned, even if the
scan lines are not a multiple of 4 bytes long). doing this

18.3.2 Other parts of the DIB Utilities implementation
The ‘DIBUTILS.DLL’ library is an ordinary DLL. See the standard Microsoft Windows doc-
umentation on how to create DLLs. Look at the code in the ‘WIN32/DIBUTILS’ directory of
the Scheme source.

Please note:
• For the foreign function interface to find the procedures they must be declared as
exports in the ‘.DEF’ definition file.
• To load the ‘.DLL’ file use the find-module Scheme function. Look at ‘WIN32/DIB.SCM’
to see how this is done.
• The current system works with C procedures with the __stdcall and __cdecl calling
conventions but not the __fastcall calling convention.
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