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The Revised Revised Report on Scheme or An UnCommon Lisp

Data and procedures and the values they amass,
Higher-order functions to combine and mix and match,
Objects with their local state, the messages they pass,
A property, a package, the control point for a catch—
In the Lambda Order they are all first-class.
One Thing to name them all, One Thing to define them,
One Thing to place them in environments and bind them,
In the Lambda Order they are all first-class.

MIT Artificial Intelligence Laboratory

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# The Revised Revised Report on Scheme or The Uncommon Lisp

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The Revised Revised Report on Scheme
or
An UnCommon Lisp

by

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Abstract

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgements 3
Part I: Introduction to Scheme 4
  1.0  Brief history of Scheme 4
  1.1  Syntax of Scheme 5
  1.2  Semantics of Scheme 7

Part II: A catalog of Scheme 9
  II.0  Notational conventions; 9
  II.1  Special forms; 11
  II.2  Booleans; 22
  II.3  Equivalence predicates; 24
  II.4  Pairs and lists; 26
  II.5  Symbols; 36
  II.6  Numbers; 36
  II.7  Characters; 46
  II.8  Strings; 51
  II.9  Vectors; 54
  II.10 The object table; 56
  II.11 Procedures; 67
  II.12 Ports; 61
  II.13 Input; 63
  II.14 Output; 66

Bibliography and References 67
Index 70
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We also thank Betty Dexter for the extreme effort she put into setting this report in \( \TeX \), and Don Knuth for designing the program that caused her troubles.

We intend this report to belong to the entire Scheme community, and so we grant permission to copy it in whole or in part without fee. In particular, we encourage implementors of Scheme to use this report as a starting point for manuals and other documentation, modifying it as necessary.

Editor's note: This report records the unanimous decisions made through a remarkable spirit of compromise at Brandeis, together with the fruits of subsequent committee work and discussions made possible by various computer networks. I have tried to edit these into a coherent document while remaining faithful to the workshop's decisions and the community's consensus. I apologize for any cases in which I have misinterpreted the authors or misjudged the consensus.

William Clinger
Part I: Introduction to Scheme

I.0 Brief history of Scheme

Scheme is a statically scoped and properly tail-recursive dialect of the Lisp programming language invented by Guy Lewis Steele Jr and Gerald Jay Sussman. It was designed to have an exceptionally clear and simple semantics and very few different methods of expression formation.

The first description of Scheme was written in 1975 [28]. A Revised Report [24] appeared in 1978, which described the evolution of the language as its MIT implementation was upgraded to support an innovative compiler [21]. Three distinct projects began in 1981 and 1982 to use variants of Scheme for courses at MIT, Yale, and Indiana University [11, 14, 4]. An introductory computer science textbook using Scheme was published in 1984 [1].

As might be expected of a language used primarily for education and research, Scheme has always evolved rapidly. This was no problem when Scheme was used only within MIT, but as Scheme became more widespread local subdialects began to diverge until students and researchers occasionally found it difficult to understand code written at other sites. Fifteen representatives of the major implementations of Scheme therefore met in October 1984 to work toward a better and more widely accepted standard for Scheme. This paper reports their unanimous recommendations augmented by committee work in the areas of arithmetic, characters, strings, and input/output.

Scheme shares with Common Lisp [23] the goal of a core language common to several implementations. Scheme differs from Common Lisp in its emphasis upon simplicity and function over compatibility with older dialects of Lisp.
I.1 Syntax

Formal definitions of the lexical and context-free syntaxes of Scheme will be included in a separate report.

Identifiers

Most identifiers allowed by other programming languages are also acceptable to Scheme. The precise rules for forming identifiers vary among implementations of Scheme, but in all implementations a sequence of characters that contains no special characters and begins with a character that cannot begin a number is an identifier. There may be other identifiers as well, and in particular the following are identifiers:

```
+ - 1+ -1+
```

It is guaranteed that the following characters cannot begin a number, so identifiers other than the four listed above should begin with one of:

```
abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

! $ % & * / : < = > ? -
```

Subsequent characters of the identifier should be drawn from:

```
abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

0123456789

! $ % & / : < = > ? -
```

The case in which the letters of an identifier are typed is immaterial. For example, Foo is the same identifier as FOO.

The following characters are special, and should never be used in an identifier:

```
) ( [ ] { } "." ";" : "blank"
```

Scheme deliberately does not specify whether the following characters can be used in identifiers:

```
# ' ' . @ \ !
```

Rationale: Some implementations might want to use backslash (\) and vertical bar (|) as in Common Lisp. As for the others there are two schools of thought. One school argues that disallowing special characters in identifiers allows the computer to catch more typing errors. The other school agrees only for special characters that come in pairs, on the grounds that errors involving only the unpaired special characters are easier to see.
Numbers

For a description of the notations used for numbers, see section II.6.

Comments

A semicolon indicates the start of a comment. The comment continues to the end of the line on which the semicolon appears. Comments are invisible to Scheme, but the end of the line is visible as whitespace. This prevents a comment from appearing in the middle of an identifier or number.

Other notations

Left and right parentheses are used for grouping and to notate lists as described in section II.4. Left and right square brackets and curly braces are not used in Scheme right now but are reserved for unspecified future uses.

The quote (') and backquote (`) characters are used to indicate constant or almost-constant data as described in section II.1. The comma is used together with the backquote, and the atsign (@) is used together with the comma.

The doublequote character is used to notate strings as described in section II.8.

The sharp sign (#) is used for a variety of purposes depending on the character that follows it. A sharp sign followed by a left parenthesis signals the beginning of a vector, as described in section II.9. A sharp sign followed by an exclamation point is used to notate one of the special values #ttrue, #false, and #nnull. A sharp sign followed by a backslash is used to notate characters as described in section II.7. A sharp sign followed by any of a number of letters is used in the notation for numbers as described in section II.6.

Context free grammar for Scheme

The following grammar is ambiguous because a <special form> looks like a <procedure call>. Some implementations resolve the ambiguity by reserving the identifiers that serve as keywords of special forms, while other implementations allow the keyword meaning of an identifier to be shadowed by lexical bindings.
I.2 Semantics

A formal definition of the semantics of Scheme will be included in a separate report. The detailed informal semantics of Scheme is the subject of Part II. This section gives a quick review of Scheme's major characteristics.

Scheme is a statically scoped programming language. Each use of an identifier is associated with a lexically apparent binding of that identifier. In this respect Scheme is like Algol 60, Pascal, and C but unlike dynamically scoped languages such as APL and traditional Lisp.

Scheme has latent as opposed to manifest types. Types are associated with values (also called objects) rather than with variables. (Some authors refer to languages with latent types as weakly typed or dynamically typed languages.) Other languages with latent types are 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.

All objects created in the course of a Scheme computation, including all procedures and variables, have unlimited extent. No Scheme object is ever destroyed. The reason that implementations of Scheme do not (usually!) run
out of storage is that they are permitted to reclaim the storage occupied by an object if they can prove that the object cannot possibly matter to any future computation. Other languages in which most objects have unlimited extent include APL and other Lisp dialects.

Implementations of Scheme are required to be properly tail-recursive. This allows the execution of an iterative process in constant space, even if the iterative process is described by a syntactically recursive procedure. Thus with a tail-recursive implementation, iteration can be expressed using the ordinary procedure-call mechanics, so that special iteration constructs are useful only as syntactic sugar.

Scheme procedures are objects in their own right. Procedures can be created dynamically, stored in data structures, returned as results of procedures, and so on. Other languages with these properties include Common Lisp and ML.

Arguments to Scheme procedures are always passed by value, which means that the actual argument expressions are evaluated before the procedure gains control, whether the procedure needs the result of the evaluation or not. ML, C, and APL are three other languages that always pass arguments by value. Lazy ML passes arguments by name, so that an argument expression is evaluated only if its value is needed by the procedure.
Part II: A catalog of Scheme

II.0 Notational conventions

This part of the report is a catalog of the special forms and procedures that make up Scheme. The special forms are described in section II.1, and the procedures are described in the following sections. Each section is organized into entries, with one entry (usually) for each special form or procedure. Each entry begins with a header line that includes the name of the special form or procedure in boldface type within a template for the special form or a call to the procedure. The names of the arguments to a procedure are italicized, as are the syntactic components of a special form. A notation such as

\[ expr \ldots \]

indicates zero or more occurrences of \( expr \). Thus

\[ expr_1 \ expr_2 \ldots \]

indicates at least one \( expr \). At the right of the header line one of the following categories will appear:

- special form
- constant
- variable
- procedure
- essential special form
- essential constant
- essential variable
- essential procedure

A special form is a syntactic class of expressions, usually identified by a keyword. A constant is something that is lexically recognizable as a constant. A variable is a location in which values (also called objects) can be stored. An identifier may be bound to a variable. Those variables that initially hold procedure values are identified as procedures.

It is guaranteed that every implementation of Scheme will support the essential special forms, constants, variables, and procedures. Implementations are free to omit other features of Scheme or to add extensions, provided the extensions are not in conflict with the language reported here.

Any Scheme value can be used as a boolean expression for the purpose of a conditional test. As explained in section II.2, most values count as true, but a few—notably \#false—count as false. This manual uses the word "true"
to refer to any Scheme value that counts as true in a conditional expression, and the word "false" to refer to any Scheme value that counts as false.

When speaking of an error condition, this manual uses the phrase "an error is signalled" to indicate that implementations must detect and report the error. If the magic word "signalled" does not appear in the discussion of an error, then implementations are not required to detect or report the error, though they are encouraged to do so. An error condition that implementations are not required to detect is usually referred to simply as "an error".

For example, it is an error for a procedure to be passed an argument that the procedure is not explicitly specified to handle, even though such domain errors are seldom mentioned in this manual. Implementations may extend a procedure's domain of definition to include other arguments.
II.1. Special forms

Identifiers have two uses within Scheme programs. When an identifier appears within a quoted constant (see quote), it is being used as data as described in the section on symbols. Otherwise it is being used as a name. There are two kinds of things that an identifier can name in Scheme: special forms and variables. A special form is a syntactic class of expressions, and an identifier that names a special form is called the keyword of that special form. A variable, on the other hand, is a location where a value can be stored. An identifier that names a variable is said to be bound to that location. The set of all such bindings in effect at some point in a program is known as the environment in effect at that point.

Certain special forms are used to allocate storage for new variables and to bind identifiers to those new variables. The most fundamental of these binding constructs is the lambda special form, because all other binding constructs can be explained in terms of lambda expressions. The other binding constructs are the let, let*, letrec, internal definition (see define), rec, named-lambda, and do special forms.

Like Algol or Pascal, and unlike most other dialects of Lisp except for Common Lisp, Scheme is a statically scoped language with block structure. To each place where an identifier is bound in a program there corresponds a region of the program within which the binding is effective. The region varies according to the binding construct that establishes the binding; if the binding is established by a lambda expression, for example, then the region is the entire lambda expression. Every use of an identifier in a variable reference or assignment refers to the binding of the identifier that established the innermost of the regions containing the use. If there is no binding of the identifier whose region contains the use, then the use refers to the binding for the identifier that was in effect when Scheme started up, if any; if there is no binding for the identifier, it is said to be unbound.

variable

An expression consisting of an identifier that is not the keyword of a special form is a variable reference. The value obtained for the variable reference is the value stored in the location to which variable is bound. It is an error to reference an unbound variable.
(operator operand1 ...) essential special form

A list whose first element is not the keyword of a special form indicates a procedure call. The operator and operand expressions are evaluated and the resulting procedure is passed the resulting arguments. In contrast to other dialects of Lisp the order of evaluation is not specified, and the operator expression and the operand expressions are always evaluated with the same evaluation rules.

\[
\begin{align*}
+ 3 4 & \rightarrow 7 \\
(if \ #f \ + \ 3 \ 4) & \rightarrow 12 \\
\end{align*}
\]

(quote datum) essential special form

'datum essential special form

Evaluates to datum. This notation is used to include literal constants in Scheme code.

\[
\begin{align*}
(quote \ a) & \rightarrow a \\
(quote \ #(a \ b \ c)) & \rightarrow #(a \ b \ c) \\
(quote \ (+ \ 1 \ 2)) & \rightarrow (+ \ 1 \ 2) \\
\end{align*}
\]

(quote datum) may be abbreviated as 'datum. The two notations are equivalent in all respects.

\[
\begin{align*}
'a & \rightarrow a \\
'#(a \ b \ c) & \rightarrow #(a \ b \ c) \\
'(+ \ 1 \ 2) & \rightarrow (+ \ 1 \ 2) \\
'(quote \ a) & \rightarrow (quote \ a) \\
'a & \rightarrow (quote \ a) \\
\end{align*}
\]

Numeric constants, string constants, character constants, vector constants, and the constants #t, #f, and #n need not be quoted.

\[
\begin{align*}
"abc" & \rightarrow "abc" \\
"abc" & \rightarrow "abc" \\
'145932 & \rightarrow 145932 \\
145932 & \rightarrow 145932 \\
'#t & \rightarrow #t \\
#t & \rightarrow #t \\
\end{align*}
\]

(lambda (var1 ...) expr) essential special form

Each var must be an identifier. The lambda expression evaluates to a procedure with formal argument list (var1 ...) and procedure body expr. The environment in effect when the lambda expression was evaluated is remembered as part of the procedure. When the procedure is later called with some
actual arguments, the environment in which the lambda expression was evaluated will be extended by binding the identifiers in the formal argument list to fresh locations, the corresponding actual argument values will be stored in those locations, and \textit{expr} will then be evaluated in the extended environment. The result of \textit{expr} will be returned as the result of the procedure call.

\begin{verbatim}
(lambda (x) (+ x x))   --> #<PROCEDURE>
(((lambda (x) (+ x x)) 4)  --> 8
(define reverse-subtract
  (lambda (x y) (- y x)))  --> unspecified
(reverse-subtract 7 10)  --> 3
(define foo
  (let ((x 4))
    (lambda (y) (+ x y))))  --> unspecified
(foo 6)  --> 10

(lambda (var1 ...) expr1 expr2 ...) 
  essential special form

  Equivalent to (lambda (var1 ...) (begin expr1 expr2 ...)).

(lambda var expr1 expr2 ...) 
  essential special form

  Returns a procedure that when later called with some arguments will bind \textit{var} to a fresh location, convert the sequence of actual arguments into a list, and store that list in the binding of \textit{var}.

(((lambda x x) 3 4 5 6)  --> (3 4 5 6)

One last variation on the formal argument list provides for a so-called "rest" argument. If a space/dot/space sequence precedes the last argument in the formal argument list, then the value stored in the binding of the last formal argument will be a list of the actual arguments left over after all the other actual arguments have been matched up against the formal arguments.

(((lambda (x y z) x) 3 4 5 6)  --> (5 6)

(if condition consequent alternative) 
  essential special form
(if condition consequent) 
  special form

  First evaluates \textit{condition}. If it yields a true value (see section II.2), then \textit{consequent} is evaluated and its value is returned. Otherwise \textit{alternative} is evaluated and its value is returned. If no \textit{alternative} is specified, then the if expression is evaluated only for its effect, and the result of the expression is unspecified.

(if (>? 3 2) 'yes 'no)  --> yes
(if (>? 2 3) 'yes 'no)  --> no
(if (>? 3 2) (- 3 2) (+ 3 2))  --> 1
(cond clause1 clause2 ...)

Each clause must be a list of one or more expressions. The first expression in each clause is a boolean expression that serves as the guard for the clause. The guards are evaluated in order until one of them evaluates to a true value (see section II.2). When a guard evaluates true, then the remaining expressions in its clause are evaluated in order, and the result of the last expression in the selected clause is returned as the result of the entire expression. If the selected clause contains only the guard, then the value of the guard is returned as the result. If all guards evaluate to false values, then the result of the conditional expression is unspecified.

(cond ((> 3 2) 'greater)
   ((< 3 2) 'less))  --> greater

The keyword else may be used as a guard to obtain the effect of a guard that always evaluates true.

(cond ((> 3 3) 'greater)
   ((< 3 3) 'less)
   (else 'equal))  --> equal

The above forms for the clauses are essential. Some implementations support yet another form of clause such that

(cond (form1 -> form2) ...)

is equivalent to

(let ((form1-result form1)
   (thunk2 (lambda () form2))
   (thunk3 (lambda () (cond ...))))
   (if form1-result
      ((thunk2) form1-result)
      (thunk3)))

(case expr clause1 clause2 ...)

Each clause is a list whose first element is a selector followed by one or more expressions. Each selector should be a list of values. The selectors are not evaluated. Instead expr is evaluated and its result is compared against successive selectors using the eqv procedure until a match is found. Then the expressions in the selected clause are evaluated from left to right and the result of the last expression in the clause is returned as the result of the case expression. If no selector matches then the result of the case expression is
The Revised Revised Report on Scheme

unspeficied.

\[
\text{(case (* 2 3)}\\
   (\{2 3 5 7\} 'prime)\\
   (\{1 4 6 8 9\} 'composite)) \rightarrow \text{composite}\\
\text{(case (car '(c d))}\\
   ((a) 'a)\\
   ((b) 'b)) \rightarrow \text{unspeficied}
\]

The special keyword else may be used as a selector to obtain the effect of a selector that always matches.

\[
\text{(case (car '(c d))}\\
   ((a e i o u) 'vowel)\\
   ((y) 'y)\\
   (else 'consonant)) \rightarrow \text{consonant}
\]

(and expr1 ...)

Evaluates the exprs from left to right, returning false as soon as one evaluates to a false value (see section II.2). Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all the expressions evaluate to true values, the value of the last expression is returned.

\[
\text{(and (=? 2 2) (>? 2 1))} \rightarrow \#ttrue\\
\text{(and (=? 2 2) (<? 2 1))} \rightarrow \#false\\
\text{(and 1 2 'c '(f g))} \rightarrow \text{(f g)}
\]

(or expr1 ...)

Evaluates the exprs from left to right, returning the value of the first expr that evaluates to a true value (see section II.2). Any remaining expressions are not evaluated. If all expressions evaluate to false values, false is returned.

\[
\text{(or (=? 2 2) (>? 2 1))} \rightarrow \#ttrue\\
\text{(or (=? 2 2) (<? 2 1))} \rightarrow \#false\\
\text{(or #false #false #false)} \rightarrow #false\\
\text{(or (memq 'b '(a b c)) (/ 3 0))} \rightarrow \text{(b c)}
\]

(let ((var1 form1) ...) expr1 expr2 ...)

Evaluates the forms in the current environment (in some unspecified order), binds the vars to fresh locations holding the results, and then evaluates the exprs in the extended environment from left to right, returning the value of the last one. Each binding of a var has expr1 expr2 ... as its region.

\[
\text{(let ((x 2) (y 3))}\\
   (* x y)) \rightarrow 6
\]
let and letrec give Scheme a block structure. The difference between let and letrec is that in a let the forms are not within the region of the vars being bound. See letrec.

Some implementations of Scheme permit a "named let" syntax in which

\[(\text{let name (}} (\text{varl forml}) \ldots) \text{expr1 expr2} \ldots)\]

is equivalent to

\[((\text{rec name (}} (\text{lambda (varl ... exprl expr2} \ldots)) \text{ forml} \ldots)\]

\[(\text{let* (}} (\text{varl forml}) \ldots) \text{expr1 expr2} \ldots)\]

special form

Similar to let, but the bindings are performed sequentially from left to right and the region of a binding indicated by \(\text{var form}\) is that part of the \text{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.

\[(\text{letrec (}} (\text{varl forml}) \ldots)\text{expr1 expr2} \ldots)\]

essential special form

Binds the vars to fresh locations holding undefined values, evaluates the forms in the resulting environment (in some unspecified order), assigns to each var the result of the corresponding form, evaluates the exprs sequentially in the resulting environment, and returns the value of the last expr. Each binding of a var has the entire letrec expression as its region, making it possible to define mutually recursive procedures. See let.

\[(\text{letrec (}} (x 2) (y 3))\]

\[(\text{letrec (}} (\text{foo (lambda (z) (+ x y z))) (x 7))\]

\[(\text{foo 4}))\]

\[\rightarrow 9\]
One restriction on `letrec` is very important: it must be possible to evaluate each form without referring to the value of a var. If this restriction is violated, then the effect is undefined, and an error may be reported during evaluation of the forms. The restriction is necessary because Scheme passes arguments by value rather than by name. In the most common uses of `letrec`, all the forms are lambda expressions and the restriction is satisfied automatically.

```
(letrec ((even?
  (lambda (n)
    (if (zero? n)
        #true
        (odd? (- 1+ n))))))
  (odd? (lambda (n)
    (if (zero? n)
        #false
        (even? (- 1+ n))))))
(even? 8))
```

``` -> #true```

```
One restriction on `letrec` is very important: it must be possible to evaluate each form without referring to the value of a var. If this restriction is violated, then the effect is undefined, and an error may be reported during evaluation of the forms. The restriction is necessary because Scheme passes arguments by value rather than by name. In the most common uses of `letrec`, all the forms are lambda expressions and the restriction is satisfied automatically.

(rec var expr) special form

Equivalent to `(letrec ((var expr)) var). `rec` is useful for defining self-recursive procedures.

(named-lambda (name var1 ...) expr ...) special form

Equivalent to `(rec name (lambda (var1 ...) expr ...))`

Rationale: Some implementations may find it easier to provide good debugging information when `named-lambda` is used instead of `rec`.

(define var expr) essential special form

When typed at top level, so that it is not nested within any other expression, this form has essentially the same effect as the assignment `(set! var expr)` if `var` is bound. If `var` is not bound, however, then the `define` form will bind `var` before performing the assignment, whereas it would be an error to perform a `set!` on an unbound identifier. The value returned by a `define` form is not specified.
The semantics just described is essential. Some implementations also allow define expressions to appear at the beginning of the body of a lambda, named-lambda, let, let*, or letrec expression. Such expressions are known as internal definitions as opposed to the top level definitions described above. The variable defined by an internal definition is local to the body of the lambda, named-lambda, let, let*, or letrec expression. That is, var is bound rather than assigned, and the region set up by the binding is the entire body of the lambda, named-lambda, let, let*, or letrec expression. For example,

\[(\text{let } ((x \ 5))
  \text{(define } \text{foo}(\text{lambda} \ (y) (\text{bar} \ x \ y)))
  \text{(define } \text{bar}(\text{lambda} \ (a \ b) (+ \ (* \ a \ b) \ a)))
  \text{(foo} \ (+ \ x \ 3)))\]  

\[\text--> \ 45\]

Internal definitions can always be converted into an equivalent letrec expression. For example, the let expression in the above example is equivalent to

\[(\text{let } ((x \ 5))
  \text{(letrec } ((\text{foo}(\text{lambda} \ (y) (\text{bar} \ x \ y)))
  \text{(bar}(\text{lambda} \ (a \ b) (+ \ (* \ a \ b) \ a))))
  \text{(foo} \ (+ \ x \ 3))))\]

\[\text{(define } \text{(varO} \text{ var1} \ldots) \text{ expr1 expr2} \ldots)\]  

\((\text{special form})\)

\[\text{(define } \text{(form} \text{ var1} \ldots) \text{ expr1 expr2} \ldots)\]  

\((\text{special form})\)

The first syntax, where \text{varO} is an identifier, is equivalent to

\[\text{(define } \text{varO}(\text{rec} \ \text{varO}(\text{lambda} \ (\text{var1} \ldots) \text{ expr1 expr2} \ldots))))\]

The second syntax, where \text{form} is a list, is sometimes convenient for defining a procedure that returns another procedure as its result. It is equivalent to

\[\text{(define } \text{form}(\text{lambda} \ (\text{var1} \ldots) \text{ expr1 expr2} \ldots)).\]

\[\text{(set!} \ \text{var} \ \text{expr})\]  

\((\text{essential special form})\)

Stores the value of \text{expr} in the location to which \text{var} is bound. \text{expr} is evaluated but \text{var} is not. The result of the set! expression is unspecified.

\[\text{(set!} \ x \ 4)\]  

\[\text--> \ \text{unspecified}\]

\[\text{(1+} \ x)\]  

\[\text--> \ 5\]
(begin expr1 expr2 ...) essential special form

Evaluates the exprs sequentially from left to right and returns the value of the last expr. Used to sequence side effects such as input and output.

(begin (set! x 5)
      (1+ x)) --> 6

Also

(begin (display "4 plus 1 equals ")
       (display (1+ 4)))

prints 4 plus 1 equals 5

A number of special forms such as lambda and letrec implicitly treat their bodies as begin expressions.

(sequence expr1 expr2 ...) special form

sequence is synonymous with begin.

Rationale: sequence was used in the Abelson and Sussman text, but it should not be used in new code.

(do varspecs exit stmt1 ...) special form

The do special form is an extremely general albeit complex iteration macro. The varspecs specify variables to be bound, how they are to be initialized at the start, and how they are to be incremented every on every iteration. The general form looks like:

(do ((var1 init1 step1) ...)
    (test expr1 ...)
    stmt1 ...)

Each var must be an identifier and each init and step must be expressions. The init expressions are evaluated (in some unspecified order), the vars are bound to fresh locations, the results of the init expressions are stored in the bindings of the vars, and then the iteration phase begins.

Each iteration begins by evaluating test; if the result is false (see section II.2), then the stmts are evaluated in order for effect, the steps are evaluated (in some unspecified order), the results of the step expressions are stored in the bindings of the vars, and the next iteration begins.

If test evaluates true, then the exprs are evaluated from left to right and the value of the last expr is returned as the value of the do expression. If no exprs are present, then the value of the do expression is unspecified.
The region set up by the binding of a var consists of the entire do expression except for the its.

A step may be omitted, in which case the corresponding var is not updated. When the step is omitted the init may be omitted as well, in which case the initial value is not specified.

```
(do ((vec (make-vector 5))
     (i 0 (1+ i)))
   ((=? i 5) vec)
   (vector-set! vec i i))
(1st ((x '(1 3 5 7 9)))
(do ((x x (cdr x))
     (sum 0 (+ sum (car x))))
   ((null? x) sum))
```

The do special form is essentially the same as the do macro in Common Lisp. The main difference is that in Scheme the identifier return is not bound; programmers that want to bind return as in Common Lisp must do so explicitly (see call-with-current-continuation).

The backquote special form is useful for constructing a list structure when most but not all of the desired structure is known in advance. If no commas appear within the pattern, the result of evaluating 'pattern is equivalent (in the sense of equal?) to the result of evaluating 'pattern. If a comma appears within the pattern, however, the expression following the comma is evaluated 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 must 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.

```
'(a ,(+ 1 2) ,@(map 1+ '(4 5 6)) b) --> (a 3 5 6 7 b)
'(((foo ,(- 10 3)) ,@cdr '(c)) cons) --> ((((foo 7) cons))
```

Scheme does not have any standard facility for defining new special forms.

Rationale: The ability to define new special forms creates numerous problems. All current implementations of Scheme have macro facilities that solve those problems to one degree or another, but the solutions are quite different and it isn't clear at this time which solution is best, or indeed whether any of the solutions are truly adequate. Rather than standardize, we are encouraging implementations to continue to experiment with different solutions.
The main problems with traditional macros are: They must be defined to the system before any code using them is loaded; this is a common source of obscure bugs. They are usually global; macros can be made to follow lexical scope rules as in Common Lisp's macrolet, but many people find the resulting scope rules confusing. Unless they are written very carefully, macros are vulnerable to inadvertant capture of free variables; to get around this, for example, macros may have to generate code in which procedure values appear as quoted constants. There is a similar problem with keywords if the keywords of special forms are not reserved. If keywords are reserved, then either macros introduce new reserved words, invalidating old code, or else special forms defined by the programmer do not have the same status as special forms defined by the system.
II.2. Booleans

The standard boolean objects for truth and falsity are written as #\texttt{true} and #\texttt{false}. What really matters, though, are the objects that the Scheme conditional expressions (if, cond, and, or, do) will treat as though they were true or false. The phrase "a true value" (or sometimes just "true") means any object treated as true by the conditional expressions, and the phrase "a false value" (or "false") means any object treated as false by the conditional expressions. All of the conditional expressions are equivalent in that an object treated as false by any one of them is treated as false by all of them, and likewise for true values.

Of all the standard Scheme values, only #\texttt{false} and the empty list count as false in conditional expressions. #\texttt{true}, pairs (and therefore lists), symbols, numbers, strings, vectors, and procedures all count as true.

The empty list counts as false for historical reasons only, and programs should not rely on this because future versions of Scheme will probably do away with this nonsense.

Programmers accustomed to other dialects of Lisp should beware that Scheme has already done away with the nonsense that identifies the empty list with the symbol nil.

\texttt{#\texttt{false}} essential constant

#\texttt{false} is the boolean value for falsity. The #\texttt{false} object is self-evaluating. That is, it does not need to be quoted in programs.

\begin{verbatim}
  '#false  --> #false
  #false  --> #false
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{#\texttt{true}} essential constant

#\texttt{true} is the boolean value for truth. The #\texttt{true} object is self-evaluating, and does not need to be quoted in programs.

\texttt{(not \texttt{obj})} essential procedure

Returns #\texttt{true} if \texttt{obj} is false and returns #\texttt{false} otherwise.

\texttt{nil} variable
\texttt{t} variable

As a crutch for programmers accustomed to other dialects of Lisp, some implementations provide variables \texttt{nil} and \texttt{t} whose initial values are #\texttt{null}. 
and #t true respectively. These variables should not be relied upon in new code.
II.3. Equivalence predicates

A predicate is a procedure that always returns \texttt{#t} or \texttt{#f}. Of the equivalence predicates described in this section, \texttt{eq?} is the most discriminating while \texttt{equal?} is the most liberal. \texttt{eqv?} is very slightly less discriminating than \texttt{eq?}.

(eq? obj1 obj2) \\
Returns \texttt{#t} if \texttt{obj1} is identical in all respects to \texttt{obj2}, otherwise returns \texttt{#f}. If there is any way at all that a user can distinguish \texttt{obj1} and \texttt{obj2}, then \texttt{eq?} will return \texttt{#f}. On the other hand, it is guaranteed that objects maintain their identity despite being fetched from or stored into variables or data structures.

The notion of identity used by \texttt{eq?} is stronger than the notions of equivalence used by the \texttt{eqv?} and \texttt{equal?} predicates. The constants \texttt{#t} and \texttt{#f} are identical to themselves and are different from everything else, except that in some implementations the empty list is identical to \texttt{#f} for historical reasons. Two symbols are identical if they print the same way (except that some implementations may have "uninterned symbols" that violate this rule). For structured objects such as pairs and vectors the notion of sameness is defined in terms of the primitive mutation procedures defined on those objects. For example, two pairs are the same if and only if a \texttt{set-car} operation on one changes the \texttt{car} field of the other. The rules for identity of numbers are extremely implementation-dependent and should not be relied on.

Generally speaking, the \texttt{equal?} procedure should be used to compare lists, vectors, and arrays. The \texttt{char=?} procedure should be used to compare characters, the \texttt{string=?} procedure should be used to compare strings, and the \texttt{= ?} procedure should be used to compare numbers. The \texttt{eqv?} procedure is just like \texttt{eq?} except that it can be used to compare characters and exact numbers as well. (See section II.6 for a discussion of exact numbers.)

\begin{verbatim}
(eq? 'a 'a) --> #t
(eq? 'a 'b) --> #f
(eq? '(a) '(a)) --> unspecified
(eq? "a" "a") --> unspecified
(eq? 2 2) --> unspecified
(eq? (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) --> #f
(let ((x (read)))
  (eq? (cdr (cons 'b x)) x)) --> #t
\end{verbatim}
(eqv?  obj1  obj2)  essential procedure

    eqv? is just like eq? except that if obj1 and obj2 are exact numbers then eqv? is guaranteed to return #t true if obj1 and obj2 are equal according to the =? procedure.

    (eq? 100000 100000)  -->  unspecified
    (eqv? 100000 100000)  -->  #t true

See section 11.6 for a discussion of exact numbers.

(equal?  obj1  obj2)  essential procedure

    Returns #t true if obj1 and obj2 are identical objects or if they are equivalent numbers, lists, characters, strings, or vectors. Two objects are generally considered equivalent if they print the same. equal? may fail to terminate if its arguments are circular data structures.

    (equal? 'a 'a)  -->  #t true
    (equal? '(a) '(a))  -->  #t true
    (equal? '(a (b) c) '(a (b) c))  -->  #t true
    (equal? "abc" "abc")  -->  #t true
    (equal? 2 2)  -->  #t true
    (equal? (make-vector 5 'a) (make-vector 5 'a))  -->  #t true
II.4. Pairs and lists

Lists are Lisp's—and therefore Scheme's—characteristic data structures.

The empty list is a special object that is written as an opening parenthesis followed by a closing parenthesis: () The empty list has no elements, and its length is zero. The empty list is not a pair.

Larger lists are built out of pairs. A pair (sometimes called a “dotted pair”) is a record structure with two fields called the car and cdr fields (for historical reasons). Pairs are created by the procedure named 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!.

The most general notation used for Scheme pairs is the “dotted” notation (c1 . c2) where c1 is the value of the car field and c2 is the value of the cdr field. For example (4 . 5) is a pair whose car is 4 and whose cdr is 5.

The dotted notation is not often used, because more streamlined notations exist for the common case where the cdr is the empty list or a pair. Thus (c1 . ()) is usually written as (c1), and (c1 . (c2 . c3)) is usually written as (c1 c2 . c3). Usually these special notations permit a structure to be written without any dotted pair notation at all. For example

(a . (b . (c . (d . (e . ()))))

would normally be written as (a b c d e).

When all the dots can be made to disappear as in the example above, the entire structure is called a proper list. Proper lists are so common that when people speak of a list, they usually mean a proper list. An inductive definition:

- The empty list is a proper list.
- If plist is a proper list, then any pair whose cdr is plist is also a proper list.
- There are no other proper lists.

A proper list is therefore either the empty list or a pair from which the empty list can be obtained by applying the cdr procedure a finite number of times. Whether a given pair is a proper list depends upon what is stored in the cdr field. When the set-cdr! procedure is used, an object can be a proper list.
one moment and not the next:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(define } x \ ' (a \ b \ c)) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ unspecified} \\
\text{(define } y \ x) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ unspecified} \\
y & \quad --\rightarrow (a \ b \ c) \\
\text{(set-cdr} x \ 4) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ unspecified} \\
x & \quad --\rightarrow (a \ . \ 4) \\
\text{(eq} x \ y) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ #!true} \\
y & \quad --\rightarrow (a \ . \ 4)
\end{align*}
\]

A pair object, on the other hand, will always be a pair object.

It is often convenient to speak of a homogeneous (proper) list of objects of some particular data type, as for example \((1 \ 2 \ 3)\) is a list of integers. To be more precise, suppose \(D\) is some data type. (Any predicate defines a data type consisting of those objects of which the predicate is true.) Then

- The empty list is a list of \(D\).
- If \(plist\) is a list of \(D\), then any pair whose cdr is \(plist\) and whose car is an element of the data type \(D\) is also a list of \(D\).
- There are no other lists of \(D\).

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{pair} \ obj) & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{Returns #!true if } obj \text{ is a pair, otherwise returns #!false.} \\
\text{(pair} ' (a \ . \ b)) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ #!true} \\
\text{(pair} ' (a \ b \ c)) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ #!true} \\
\text{(pair} ' () & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ #!false} \\
\text{(pair} ' #(a \ b)) & \quad --\rightarrow \text{ #!false}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{cons} \ obj1 \ obj2) & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{Returns a newly allocated pair whose car is } obj1 \text{ and whose cdr is } obj2. \\
\text{The pair is guaranteed to be different (in the sense of eq?) from every existing object.} \\
\text{(cons} 'a '()) & \quad --\rightarrow (a) \\
\text{(cons} ' (a) ' (b \ c \ d)) & \quad --\rightarrow ((a) \ b \ c \ d) \\
\text{(cons} "a" ' (b \ c)) & \quad --\rightarrow ("a" \ b \ c) \\
\text{(cons} 'a 3) & \quad --\rightarrow (a \ . \ 3) \\
\text{(cons} '(a \ b) 'c) & \quad --\rightarrow ((a \ b) \ . \ c)
\end{align*}
\]
The Revised Revised Report on Scheme

(car pair) essential procedure

Returns the contents of the car field of pair. pair must be a 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

(cdr pair) essential procedure

Returns the contents of the cdr field of pair. pair must be a 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

(set-car! pair obj) essential procedure

Stores obj in the car field of pair. pair must be a pair. The value returned by set-car! is unspecified. This procedure can be very confusing if used indiscriminately.

(set-cdr! pair obj) essential procedure

Stores obj in the cdr field of pair. pair must be a pair. The value returned by set-cdr! is unspecified. This procedure can be very confusing if used indiscriminately.

(caar pair) essential procedure

(cadr pair) essential procedure

(cdadr pair) essential procedure

(caddr pair) essential procedure

(cdaar pair) essential procedure

(cddar pair) essential procedure

(cdddr pair) essential procedure

(caaaar pair) essential procedure

(caaadr pair) essential procedure

(caadar pair) essential procedure

(cadaar pair) essential procedure
(caaddr pair) essential procedure
(cadaar pair) essential procedure
(cadadr pair) essential procedure
(caddar pair) essential procedure
(cadddr pair) essential procedure
(cdaaar pair) essential procedure
(cdaadr pair) essential procedure
(cdadar pair) essential procedure
(cdaddr pair) essential procedure
(cddaar pair) essential procedure
(cddadr pair) essential procedure
(cdddar pair) essential procedure
(cddddr pair) essential procedure

These procedures are compositions of car and cdr, where for example caddr could be defined by

\[
\text{(define caddr (lambda (x) (car (cdr (cdr x)))))}
\]

'(0) essential constant
#null constant

'(0) and #null are notations for the empty list. The #null notation does not have to be quoted in programs. The () notation must be quoted in programs, however, because otherwise it would be a procedure call without an expression in the procedure position.

Rationale: Because many current Scheme interpreters deal with expressions as list structures rather than as character strings, they will treat an unquoted () as though it were quoted. It is entirely possible, however, that some implementations of Scheme will be able to detect an unquoted () as an error.

(null? obj) essential procedure

Returns #t true if obj is the empty list, otherwise returns #false.

(list obj ...) essential procedure

Returns a proper list of its arguments.

\[
\text{(list 'a (+ 3 4) 'c)} \rightarrow (a 7 c)
\]
The Revised Revised Report on Scheme

(length plist)

Returns the length of plist, which must be a proper list.

(length '()) -> 0
(length '(a b c)) -> 3
(length '(a (b) (c d e))) -> 3

(append plist1 plist2)

Returns a list consisting of the elements of the first plist followed by the elements of the other plists.

(append '(x) '(y)) -> (x y)
(append '(a) '(b c d)) -> (a b c d)
(append '(a (b)) '((c))) -> (a (b) (c))

(reverse plist)

plist must be a proper list. Returns a list consisting of the elements of plist in reverse order.

(reverse '(a b c)) -> (c b a)
(reverse '(a (b c) d (e f))) -> ((e f) d (b c) a)

(list-ref z n)

Returns the car of (list-tail z n).

(list-tail z n)

Returns the sublist of z obtained by omitting the first n elements. Could be defined by

(define list-tail
  (lambda (x n)
     (if (zero? n)
         x
         (list-tail (cdr x) (- n 1)))))

*append! plist ...*)

Like append but may side effect all but its last argument.
(last-pair x)  
procedure

Returns the last pair in the nonempty list x. Could be defined by

(define last-pair
  (lambda (x)
    (if (pair? (cdr x))
      (last-pair (cdr x))
      x))))

(memq obj plist) essential procedure
(memv obj plist) essential procedure
(member obj plist) essential procedure

Finds the first occurrence of obj in the proper list plist and returns the first sublist of plist beginning with obj. If obj does not occur in plist, returns #false. memq uses eq? to compare obj with the elements of plist, 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)))  ->  #false
(memq (list 'a) '((b (a) c)))  ->  #false
(memq 101 '((100 101 102))  ->  unspecified
(memv 101 '((100 101 102))  ->  (101 102)
(member (list 'a) '((b (a) c)))  ->  ((a) c)

(assq obj alist) essential procedure
(assv obj alist) essential procedure
(assoc obj alist) essential procedure

alist must be a proper list of pairs. Finds the first pair in alist whose car field is obj and returns that pair. If no pair in alist has obj as its car, returns #false. assq uses eq? to compare obj with the car fields of the pairs in alist, while assv uses eqv? and assoc uses equal?.

(assq 'a '((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)))  ->  (a 1)
(assq 'b '((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)))  ->  (b 2)
(assq 'd '((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)))  ->  #false
(assq (list 'a) '(((a) (b)) (c)))  ->  #false
(assq 5 '(((2 3) (5 7) (11 13)))  ->  unspecified
(assv 5 '(((2 3) (5 7) (11 13)))  ->  (5 7)
(assoc (list 'a) '((((a) (b)) (c)))))  ->  ((a))
Rationale: memq, memv, member, assq, assv, and assoc do not have question marks in their names because they return useful values rather than just #true.
II.5. Symbols

Symbols are objects whose usefulness rests entirely on the fact that two symbols are identical (in the sense of eq?) if and only if their names are spelled the same way. This is exactly the property needed to represent identifiers in programs, and so most implementations of Scheme use them internally for that purpose. Programmers may also use symbols as they use enumerated values in Pascal.

The rules for writing a symbol are the same as the rules for writing an identifier (see section I.2). As with identifiers, different implementations of Scheme use slightly different rules, but it is always the case that a sequence of characters that contains no special characters and begins with a character that cannot begin a number is taken to be a symbol; in addition +, -, 1+, and -1+ are symbols.

The case in which a symbol is written is unimportant. Some implementations of Scheme convert any upper case letters to lower case, and others convert lower case to upper case.

It is guaranteed that any symbol that has been 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?). The string->symbol procedure, however, can create symbols for which this write/read invariance may not hold because their names contain special characters or letters in the non-standard case.

Rationale: Some implementations of Lisp have a feature known as "slashification" in order to guarantee write/read invariance for all symbols, but historically the most important use of this feature has been to compensate for the lack of a string data type. Some implementations have "uninterned symbols", which defeat write/read invariance even in implementations with slashification and also generate exceptions to the rule that two symbols are the same if and only if their names are spelled the same. It is questionable whether these features are worth their complexity, so they are not standard in Scheme.

(symbol? obj)

Returns #true if obj is a symbol, otherwise returns #false.

| (symbol? 'foo)         | --> #true        |
| (symbol? (car '(a b))) | --> #true        |
| (symbol? "bar")       | --> #false       |
(symbol->string symbol) essential procedure
Returns the name of symbol as a string. symbol->string performs no case conversion. See string->symbol. The following examples assume the read procedure converts to lower case:

(symbol->string 'flying-fish) --> "flying-fish"
(symbol->string 'Martin) --> "martin"
(symbol->string (string->symbol "Malvina")) --> "Malvina"

(string->symbol string) essential procedure
Returns the symbol whose name is string. string->symbol can create symbols with special characters or letters in the non-standard case, but it is usually a bad idea to create such symbols because in some implementations of Scheme they cannot be read as themselves. See symbol->string.

'mISSISSIppi --> mississippi
(string->symbol "mISSISSIppi") --> mISSISSIppi
(eq? 'bitBlt
  (string->symbol "bitBlt")) --> unspecified
(eq? 'JollyWog
  (string->symbol
    (symbol->string 'JollyWog))) --> #t

(string=?
  "K. Harper, M.D." 
  (symbol->string 
    (string->symbol
      "K. Harper, M.D."))) --> #t
II.6. Numbers

Numerical computation has traditionally been neglected by the Lisp community. Until Common Lisp there has been no carefully thought out strategy for organizing numerical computation, and with the exception of the MacLisp system there has been little effort to execute numerical code efficiently. We applaud the excellent work of the Common Lisp committee and we accept many of their recommendations. In some ways we simplify and generalize their proposals in a manner consistent with the purposes of Scheme.

Scheme's numerical operations treat numbers as abstract data, as independent of their representation as is possible. Thus, the casual user should be able to write simple programs without having to know that the implementation may use fixed-point, floating-point, and perhaps other representations for his data. Unfortunately, this illusion of uniformity can be sustained only approximately—the implementation of numbers will leak out of its abstraction whenever the user must be in control of precision, or accuracy, or when he must construct especially efficient computations. Thus the language must also provide escape mechanisms so that a sophisticated programmer can exercise more control over the execution of his code and the representation of his data when necessary.

It is important to distinguish between the abstract numbers, their machine representations, and their written representations. We will use mathematical words such as NUMBER, COMPLEX, REAL, RATIONAL, and INTEGER for properties of the abstract numbers, names such as FIXNUM, BIGNUM, RATNUM, and FLONUM for machine representations, and names like INT, FIX, FLO, SCI, RAT, POLAR, and RECT for input/output formats.

Numbers

A Scheme system provides data of type NUMBER, which is the most general numerical type supported by that system. NUMBER is likely to be a complicated union type implemented in terms of FIXNUMS, BIGNUMS, FLONUMS, and so forth, but this should not be apparent to a naive user. What the user should see is that the usual operations on numbers produce the mathematically expected results, within the limits of the implementation. Thus if the user divides the exact number 3 by the exact number 2, he should get something like 1.5 (or the exact fraction 3/2). If he adds that result to itself, and the implementation is good enough, he should get an exact 3.

Mathematically, numbers may be arranged into a tower of subtypes with projections and injections relating adjacent levels of the tower:
NUMBER
COMPLEX
REAL
RATIONAL
INTEGER

We impose a uniform rule of downward coercion—a number of one type is also of a lower type if the injection (up) of the projection (down) of a number leaves the number unchanged. Since this tower is a genuine mathematical structure, Scheme provides predicates and procedures to access the tower.

Not all implementations of Scheme must provide the whole tower, but they must implement a coherent subset consistent with both the purposes of the implementation and the spirit of the Scheme language.

Exactness

Numbers are either EXACT or INEXACT. A number is exact if it was derived from EXACT numbers using only EXACT operations. A number is INEXACT if it models a quantity known only approximately, if it was derived using INEXACT ingredients, or if it was derived using INEXACT operations. Thus INEXACTness is a contagious property of a number. Some operations, such as the square root (of non-square numbers) must be INEXACT because of the finite precision of our representations. Other operations are inexact because of implementation requirements. We emphasize that exactness is independent of the position of the number on the tower. It is perfectly possible to have an INEXACT INTEGER or an EXACT REAL; 355/113 may be an EXACT RATIONAL or it may be an INEXACT RATIONAL approximation to pi, depending on the application.

Operationally, it is the system's responsibility to combine EXACT numbers using exact methods, such as infinite precision integer and rational arithmetic, where possible. An implementation may not be able to do this (if it does not use infinite precision integers and rationals), but if a number becomes inexact for implementation reasons there is likely to be an important error condition, such as integer overflow, to be reported. Arithmetic on INEXACT numbers is not so constrained. The system may use floating point and other ill-behaved representation strategies for INEXACT numbers. This is not to say that implementors need not use the best known algorithms for INEXACT computations—only that approximate methods of high quality are allowed. In a system that cannot explicitly distinguish exact from inexact numbers
the system must do its best to maintain precision. Scheme systems must not burden users with numerical operations described in terms of hardware and operating-system dependent representations such as \texttt{FIXNUM} and \texttt{FLONUM}, however, because these representation issues are hardly ever germane to the user's problems.

We highly recommend that the IEEE 32-bit and 64-bit floating-point standards be adopted for implementations that use floating-point representations internally. To minimize loss of precision we adopt the following rules: If an implementation uses several different sizes of floating-point formats, the results of any operation with a floating-point result must be expressed in the largest format used to express any of the floating-point arguments to that operation. It is desirable (but not required) for potentially irrational operations such as \texttt{sqrt}, when applied to \texttt{EXACT} arguments, to produce \texttt{EXACT} answers whenever possible (for example the square root of an exact 4 ought to be an exact 2). If an \texttt{EXACT} number (or an \texttt{INEXACT} number represented as a \texttt{FIXNUM}, a \texttt{BIGNUM}, or a \texttt{RATNUM}) is operated upon so as to produce an \texttt{INEXACT} result (as by \texttt{sqrt}), and if the result is represented as a \texttt{FLONUM}, then the largest available \texttt{FLONUM} format must be used; but if the result is expressed as a \texttt{RATNUM} then the rational approximation must have at least as much precision as the largest available \texttt{FLONUM}.

Numerical operations

Scheme provides the usual set of operations for manipulating numbers. In general, numerical operations require numerical arguments. For succinctness we let the following meta-symbols range over the indicated types of object in our descriptions, and we let these meta-symbols specify the types of the arguments to numeric operations. It is an error for an operation to be presented with an argument that it is not specified to handle.

\begin{align*}
\text{obj} & \quad \text{any object} \\
\text{z}, \text{z}_1, \ldots, \text{z}_i, \ldots & \quad \text{complex, real, rational, integer} \\
\text{z}, \text{z}_1, \ldots, \text{z}_i, \ldots & \quad \text{real, rational, integer} \\
\text{q}, \text{q}_1, \ldots, \text{q}_i, \ldots & \quad \text{rational, integer} \\
\text{n}, \text{n}_1, \ldots, \text{n}_i, \ldots & \quad \text{integer} \\
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{(number? obj)} & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{(complex? obj)} & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{(real? obj)} & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{(rational? obj)} & \quad \text{essential procedure} \\
\text{(integer? obj)} & \quad \text{essential procedure}
\end{align*}
These numerical type predicates can be applied to any kind of argument. They return true if the object is of the named type. In general, if a type predicate is true of a number then all higher type predicates are also true of that number. Not every system supports all of these types; for example, it is entirely possible to have a Scheme system that has only INTEGERS. Nonetheless every implementation of Scheme must have all of these predicates.

```
(zero? z) essential procedure
(positive? z) essential procedure
(negative? z) essential procedure
(odd? n) essential procedure
(even? n) essential procedure
(exact? z) essential procedure
(inexact? z) essential procedure
```

These numerical predicates test a number for a particular property, returning #t true or #f false.

```
(= z1 z2) essential procedure
(=? z1 z2) essential procedure
(< z1 z2) essential procedure
(<? z1 z2) essential procedure
(> z1 z2) essential procedure
(>? z1 z2) essential procedure
(<= z1 z2) essential procedure
(<=? z1 z2) essential procedure
(>= z1 z2) essential procedure
(]=> z1 z2) essential procedure
```

These numerical comparison predicates have redundant names (with and without the terminal "?") to make all user populations happy. Some implementations allow them to take many arguments, as in Common Lisp, to facilitate range checks. These procedures return #t true if their arguments are (respectively): numerically equal, monotonically increasing, monotonically decreasing, monotonically nondecreasing, or monotonically nonincreasing. Warning: On INEXACT numbers the equality tests will give unreliable results, and the other numerical comparisons will be useful only heuristically; when in doubt, consult a numerical analyst.

```
(max z1 z2) essential procedure
(max z1 z2 ...) procedure
(min z1 z2) essential procedure
(min z1 z2 ...) procedure
```
Returns the maximum or minimum of its arguments, respectively.

\[(+ z1 z2)\] essential procedure
\[(+ z1 ... )\] procedure
\[(* z1 z2)\] essential procedure
\[(* z1 ... )\] procedure

These procedures return the sum or product of their arguments.

\[(+ 3 4)\] \rightarrow 7
\[(+ 3)\] \rightarrow 3
\[(+ )\] \rightarrow 0
\[(* 4)\] \rightarrow 4
\[(*)\] \rightarrow 1

\[(- z1 z2)\] essential procedure
\[(- z1 z2 ... )\] procedure
\[(/ z1 z2)\] essential procedure
\[(/ z1 z2 ... )\] procedure

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

\[(- 3 4)\] \rightarrow -1
\[(- 3 4 5)\] \rightarrow -6
\[(- 3)\] \rightarrow -3
\[(/ 3 4 5)\] \rightarrow 3/20
\[(/ 3)\] \rightarrow 1/3

\[(-1+ z)\] procedure
\[(-1+ z)\] procedure

These procedures return the result of adding 1 to or subtracting 1 from their argument.

\[(abs z)\] essential procedure

Returns the magnitude of its argument.

\[(abs -7)\] \rightarrow 7
\[(abs -3+4i)\] \rightarrow 5

\[(quotient n1 n2)\] essential procedure
\[(remainder n1 n2)\] essential procedure
\[(modulo n1 n2)\] procedure

In general, these are intended to implement number-theoretic (integer) division: For positive integers \(n_1\) and \(n_2\), if \(n_3\) and \(n_4\) are integers such that
\( n_1 = n_2 n_3 + n_4 \) and \( 0 \leq n_4 < n_2 \), then

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(quotient } n_1 n_2) & \quad \rightarrow \quad n_3 \\
\text{(remainder } n_1 n_2) & \quad \rightarrow \quad n_4 \\
\text{(modulo } n_1 n_2) & \quad \rightarrow \quad n_4
\end{align*}
\]

The value returned by quotient always has the sign of the product of its arguments. Remainder and modulo differ on negative arguments as do the Common Lisp rem and mod procedures—the remainder always has the sign of the dividend, the modulo always has the sign of the divisor:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(modulo } 13 4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 1 \\
\text{(remainder } 13 4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 1 \\
\text{(modulo } -13 4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 3 \\
\text{(remainder } -13 4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad -1 \\
\text{(modulo } 13 -4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad -3 \\
\text{(remainder } 13 -4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 1 \\
\text{(modulo } -13 -4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad -1 \quad \text{(remainder } -13 -4) & \quad \rightarrow \quad -1
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(gcd } n_1 \ldots ) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(lcm } n_1 \ldots ) & \quad \text{procedure}
\end{align*}
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(gcd } 32 -36) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 4 \\
\text{(gcd)} & \quad \rightarrow \quad 0 \\
\text{(lcm } 32 -36) & \quad \rightarrow \quad 288 \\
\text{(lcm)} & \quad \rightarrow \quad 1
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(floor } z) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(ceiling } z) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(truncate } z) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(round } z) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(rationalize } z y) & \quad \text{procedure} \\
\text{(rationalize } z) & \quad \text{procedure}
\end{align*}
\]

These procedures create integers and rationals. Their results are not EXACT—in fact, their results are clearly INEXACT, though they can be made EXACT with an explicit exactness coercion.

Floor returns the largest integer not larger than \( z \). Ceiling returns the smallest integer not smaller than \( z \). Truncate returns the integer of maximal absolute value not larger than the absolute value of \( z \). Round returns the
closest integer to \( z \), rounding to even when \( z \) is halfway between two integers. With two arguments, \texttt{rationalize} produces the best rational approximation to \( z \) within the tolerance specified by \( y \). With one argument, \texttt{rationalize} produces the best rational approximation to \( z \), preserving all of the precision in its representation.

\begin{verbatim}
(exp z) procedure
(log z) procedure
(expt z1 z2) procedure
(sqrt z) procedure
(sin z) procedure
(cos z) procedure
(tan z) procedure
(asin z) procedure
(acos z) procedure
(atan z1 z2) procedure

These procedures are part of every implementation that supports real numbers. Their meanings conform with the Common Lisp standard. (Implementors should be careful of the branch cuts if complex numbers are allowed.)

(make-rectangular z1 z2) procedure
(make-polar z3 z4) procedure
(real-part z) procedure
(imag-part z) procedure
(magnitude z) procedure
(angle z) procedure

These procedures are part of every implementation that supports complex numbers. Suppose \( z_1, z_2, z_3, \) and \( z_4 \) are real numbers and \( z \) is a complex number such that

\[ z = z_1 + z_2 i = z_3 \cdot e^{i z_4} \]

Then \texttt{make-rectangular} and \texttt{make-polar} return \( z \), \texttt{real-part} returns \( z_1 \), \texttt{imag-part} returns \( z_2 \), \texttt{magnitude} returns \( z_3 \), and \texttt{angle} returns \( z_4 \).

(exact->inexact z) procedure
(inexact->exact z) procedure

\texttt{exact->inexact} returns an INEXACT representation of \( z \), which is a fairly harmless thing to do. \texttt{inexact->exact} returns an EXACT representation of \( z \). Since the law of "garbage in, garbage out" remains in force, \texttt{inexact->exact} should not be used casually.
Numerical Input and Output

Scheme allows all the traditional ways of writing numerical constants, though any particular implementation may support only some of them. These syntaxes are intended to be purely notational; any kind of number may be written in any form that the user deems convenient. Of course, writing $1/7$ as a limited-precision decimal fraction will not express the number exactly, but this approximate form of expression may be just what the user wants to see.

Scheme numbers are written according to the grammar described below. In that description, $z^*$ means zero or more occurrences of $z$. Spaces never appear inside a number, so all spaces in the grammar are for legibility. <empty> stands for the empty string.

```
bit   -->  0 | 1
oct   -->  0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7
dit   -->  oct | 8 | 9
hit   -->  dit | a | b | c | d | e | f
        | A | B | C | D | E | F
radix2 -->  #b | #B
radix8 -->  #o | #O
radix10 -->  <empty> | #d | #D
radix16 -->  #x | #X
exactness -->  <empty> | #1 | #I | #e | #E
precision -->  <empty> | #s | #S | #1 | #L
prefix2 -->  radix2 exactness precision
            | radix2 precision exactness
            | exactness radix2 precision
            | exactness precision radix2
            | precision radix2 exactness
            | precision exactness radix2
prefix8 -->  radix8 exactness precision
            | radix8 precision exactness
            | exactness radix8 precision
            | exactness precision radix8
            | precision radix8 exactness
            | precision exactness radix8
```
The conventions used to print a number can be specified by a format, as described later in this section. The system provides a procedure, number-
>string, that takes a number and a format and returns as a string the printed expression of the given number in the given format.

(number->string number format) procedure

This procedure will mostly be used by sophisticated users and in system programs. In general, a naive user will need to know nothing about the formats because the system printer will have reasonable default formats for all types of NUMBERs. The system reader will construct reasonable default numerical types for numbers expressed in each of the formats it recognizes. If a user needs control of the coercion from strings to numbers he will use string->number, which takes a string, an exactness, and a radix and produces a number of the maximally precise applicable type expressed by the given string.

(string->number string exactness radix) procedure

The exactness is a symbol, either E (or EXACT) or I (or INEXACT). The radix is also a symbol: B (or BINARY), O (or OCTAL), D (or DECIMAL), and X (or HEXADECIMAL). Returns a number of the maximally precise representation expressed by the given string. It is an error if string does not express a number according to the grammar presented above.

Formats

Formats may have parameters. For example, the (SCI 5 2) format specifies that a number is to be expressed in Fortran scientific format with 5 significant places and two places after the radix point.

In the following examples, the comment shows the format that was used to produce the output shown:

123  +123  -123 ; (int)
123456789012345678901234567 ; (int); a big one!
355/113  +355/113  -355/113 ; (rat)
+123.45  -123.45 ; (fix 2)
3.14159265358979 ; (fix 15)
3.14159265358979 ; (flo 15)
123.450 ; (flo 6)
-123.45e-1 ; (sci 5 2)
123e3  123e-3  -123e-3 ; (sci 3 0)
-1+21 ; (rect (int) (int))
1.261.570796 ; (polar (fix 1) (flo 7))
A numerical constant may be specified with an explicit radix by a prefix. The prefixes are: #B (binary), #O (octal), #D (decimal), #X (hex). A format may specify that a number should be expressed in a particular radix. The radix prefix may also be suppressed. For example, one may express a complex number in polar form with the magnitude in octal and the angle in decimal as follows:

```
#o1.26#d1.570796327 ; (polar (flo 2 (radix o)) (flo (radix d)))
#o1.261.570796327 ; (polar (flo 2 (radix o)) (flo (radix d s)))
```

A numerical constant may be specified to be either EXACT or INEXACT by a prefix. The prefixes are: #I (inexact), #E (exact). An exactness prefix may appear before or after any radix prefix that is used. A format may specify that a number should be expressed with an explicit exactness prefix, or it may force the exactness to be suppressed. For example, the following are ways to output an inexact value for pi:

```
#355/113 ; (rat (exactness))
355/113 ; (rat (exactness s))
#13.1416 ; (fix 4 (exactness))
```

An attempt to produce more digits than are available in the internal machine representation of a number will be marked with a "#" filling the extra digits. This is not a statement that the implementation knows or keeps track of the significance of a number, just that the machine will flag attempts to produce 20 digits of a number that has only 15 digits of machine representation:

```
3.14158265358979#### ; (flo 20 (exactness s))
```

In systems with both single and double precision FLONUMs we may want to specify which size we want to use to represent a constant internally. For example, we may want a constant that has the value of pi rounded to the single precision length, or we might want a long number that has the value 6/10. In either case, we are specifying an explicit way to represent an INEXACT number. For this purpose, we may express a number with a prefix that indicates short or long FLONUM representation:

```
#S.14159265358979 ; Round to short – 3.141593
#L.6 ; Extend to long – .600000000000000
```

Details of formats

The format of a number is a list beginning with a format descriptor, which is a symbol such as SCI. Following the descriptor are parameters used by that descriptor, such as the number of significant digits to be used. Default values are supplied for any parameters that are omitted. Modifiers may appear
next, such as the RADIX and EXACTNESS descriptors described below, which
take parameters. The format descriptors are:

(INT)

Express as an integer. The radix point is implicit. If there are not
enough significant places then insignificant digits will be flagged. For example,
6.0238E23 (represented internally as a 7 digit FLONUM) would be printed as
6023800#################################

(RAT n)

Express as a rational fraction. n specifies the largest denominator to be
used in constructing a rational approximation to the number being expressed.
If n is omitted it defaults to infinity.

(FIX n)

Express with a fixed radix point. n specifies the number of places to the
right of the radix point. n defaults to the size of a single-precision FLONUM. If
there are not enough significant places, then insignificant digits will be flagged.
For example, 6.0238E23 (represented internally as a 7 digit FLONUM) would
be printed with a (FIX 2) format as 6023800#################################

(FLO n)

Express with a floating radix point. n specifies the total number of places
to be displayed. n defaults to the size of a single-precision FLONUM. If the
number is out of range, it is converted to (SCI). (FLO H) allows the system
to express a FLO heuristically for human consumption.

(SCI n m)

Express in exponential notation. n specifies the total number of places to
be displayed. n defaults to the size of a single-precision FLONUM. m specifies
the number of places to the right of the radix point. m defaults to n-1. (SCI
H) does heuristic expression.

(RECT r i)

Express as a rectangular form complex number. r and i are formats for
the real and imaginary parts respectively. They default to (HEUR).
(POLAR m a)

Express as a polar form complex number. m and a are formats for the magnitude and angle respectively. m and a default to (HEUR).

(HEUR)

Express heuristically using the minimum number of digits required to get an expression that when coerced back to a number produces the original machine representation. EXACT numbers are expressed as (INT) or (RAT). INEXACT numbers are expressed as (FLO H) or (SCI H) depending on their range. Complex numbers are expressed in (RECT). This is the normal default of the system printer.

The following modifiers may be added to a numerical format specification:

(EXACTNESS s)

This controls the expression of the exactness label of a number. s indicates whether the exactness is to be E (expressed) or S (suppressed). s defaults to E. If no exactness modifier is specified for a format then the exactness is by default not expressed.

(RADIX r s)

This forces a number to be expressed in the radix r. r may be the symbol B (binary), O (octal), D (decimal), or X (hex). s indicates whether the radix label is to be E (expressed) or S (suppressed). s defaults to E. If no radix modifier is specified then the default is decimal and the label is suppressed.
II.7 Characters

Characters are written using the `\` notation of Common Lisp. For example:

```
\a    ; lower case letter
\A    ; upper case letter
\(    ; the left parentheses as a character
\    ; the space character
\space ; the preferred way to write a space
\newline ; the newline character
```

Characters written in the `\` notation are self-evaluating. That is, they do not have to be quoted in programs. The `\` notation is not an essential part of Scheme, however. Even implementations that support the `\` notation for input do not have to support it for output, and there is no requirement that the data type of characters be disjoint from data types such as integers or strings.

Some of the procedures that operate on characters ignore the difference between upper case and lower case. The procedures that ignore case have the suffix "-ci" (for "case insensitive"). If the operation is a predicate, then the "-ci" suffix precedes the "?" at the end of the name.

```
(char?  obj) [essential procedure]
Returns #\true if obj is a character, otherwise returns #\false.

(char=?  char1 char2) [essential procedure]
(char<?  char1 char2) [essential procedure]
(char=>? char1 char2) [essential procedure]
(char<=? char1 char2) [essential procedure]
(char>=? char1 char2) [essential procedure]
```

Both `char1` and `char2` must be characters. These procedures impose a total ordering on the set of characters. It is guaranteed that under this ordering:

- The upper case characters are in order. For example, (char<?  \A \B) returns #\true.
- The lower case characters are in order. For example, (char<?  \a \b) returns #\true.
- The digits are in order. For example, (char<?  \0 \9) returns #\true.
- Either all the digits precede all the upper case letters, or vice versa.
- Either all the digits precede all the lower case letters, or vice versa.
Some implementations may generalize these procedures to take more than two arguments, as with the corresponding numeric predicates.

(\(\text{char-ci=? char1 char2}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-cl<? char1 char2}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-cl>? char1 char2}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-cl<=? char1 char2}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-ci>=? char1 char2}\))  procedure

Both \(\text{char1}\) and \(\text{char2}\) must be characters. These procedures are similar to \(\text{char=? et cetera}\), but they treat upper case and lower case letters as the same. For example, \((\text{char-ci=? #\text{"A"} #\text{"a"}})\) returns \#t true. Some implementations may generalize these procedures to take more than two arguments, as with the corresponding arithmetic predicates.

(\(\text{char-upper-case? char}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-lower-case? char}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-alphabetic? char}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-numeric? char}\))  procedure
(\(\text{char-whitespace? char}\))  procedure

\(\text{Char}\) must be a character. These procedures return \#t true if their arguments are upper case, lower case, alphabetic, numeric, or whitespace characters, respectively, otherwise they return \#f false. The following remarks, which are specific to the ASCII character set, are intended only as a guide. The alphabetic characters are the 52 upper and lower case letters. The numeric characters are the 10 decimal digits. The whitespace characters are tab, line feed, form feed, carriage return, and space.

(\(\text{char->integer char}\))  essential procedure
(\(\text{integer->char n}\))  essential procedure

Given a character, \(\text{char->integer}\) returns an integer representation of the character. Given an integer that is the image of a character under \(\text{char->integer}\), \(\text{integer->char}\) returns a character. These procedures implement order isomorphisms between the set of characters under the \(\text{char=?}\) ordering and the set of integers under the \(<=?\) ordering. That is, if

\[(\text{char<=? a b}) \rightarrow \#t true\]
\[(<=? z y) \rightarrow \#t true\]

and \(z\) and \(y\) are in the range of \(\text{char->integer}\), then

\[(<=? (\text{char->integer a}) (\text{char->integer b})) \rightarrow \#t true\]

\[(\text{char<=? (integer->char z) (integer->char y)}) \rightarrow \#t true\]
(char-upcase char)  
procedure
(char-downcase char)  
procedure

char must be a character. These procedures return a character char2 such that (char-ci=? char char2). In addition, if char is alphabetic, then the result of char-upcase is upper case and the result of char-downcase is lower case.
II.8. Strings

Strings are sequences of characters. In some implementations of Scheme they are immutable; other implementations provide destructive procedures such as string-set! that alter string objects.

Strings are written as sequences of characters enclosed within doublequotes ("). A doublequote can be written inside a string only by escaping it with a backslash (\), as in

"The word \"Recursion\" has many different meanings."

A backslash can be written inside a string only by escaping it with another backslash. Scheme does not specify the effect of a backslash within a string that is not followed by a doublequote or backslash.

A string may continue from one line to the next, but this is usually a bad idea because the exact effect varies from one computer system to another.

The length of a string is the number of characters that it contains. This number is a non-negative integer that is fixed when the string is created. The valid indexes of a string are the nonnegative integers less than the length of the string. The first character of a string has index 0, the second has index 1, and so on.

In phrases such as "the characters of string beginning with index start and ending with index end," it is understood that the index start is inclusive, and the index end is exclusive. Thus if start and end are the same index, a null substring is referred to, and if start is zero and end is the length of string, then the entire string is referred to.

Some of the procedures that operate on strings ignore the difference between upper and lower case. The versions that ignore case have the suffix "-ci" (for "case insensitive"). If the operation is a predicate, then the "-ci" suffix precedes the "?" at the end of the name.

(string? obj) essential procedure
Returns #t true if obj is a string, otherwise returns #f false.

(string-null? string) essential procedure
string must be a string. Returns #t true if string has zero length, otherwise returns #f false.
The Revised Report on Scheme

(string=? string1 string2) essential procedure
(string-ci=? string1 string2) procedure

Returns #true if the two strings are the same length and contain the same characters in the same positions, otherwise returns #false. string-ci=? treats upper and lower case letters as though they were the same character, but string=? treats upper and lower case as distinct characters.

(string<? string1 string2) essential procedure
(string>? string1 string2) essential procedure
(string<=? string1 string2) essential procedure
(string=>? string1 string2) essential procedure
(string-ci<? string1 string2) procedure
(string-ci>? string1 string2) procedure
(string-ci<=? string1 string2) procedure
(string-ci=>? string1 string2) procedure

These procedures are the lexicographic extensions to strings of the corresponding orderings on characters. For example, string<? is the lexicographic ordering on strings induced by the ordering char<? on characters. Some implementations may generalize these and the string=? and string-ci=? procedures to take more than two arguments.

(make-string n) procedure
(make-string n char) procedure

n must be a non-negative integer, and char must be a character. Returns a newly allocated string of length n. If char is given, then all elements of the string are initialized to char, otherwise the contents of the string are unspecified.

(string-length string) essential procedure

Returns the number of characters in the given string.

(string-ref string n) essential procedure

n must be a nonnegative integer less than the string-length of string. Returns character n using zero-origin indexing.

(substring string start end) essential procedure

string must be a string, and start and end must be valid indexes of string with start <= end. Returns a newly allocated string formed from the characters of string beginning with index start and ending with index end.
The Revised Revised Report on Scheme

(string-append string1 string2) essential procedure
(string-append string1 ...) procedure

Returns a new string whose characters form the catenation of the given strings.

(string->list string) essential procedure
(list->string chars) essential procedure

string->list returns a list of the characters that make up the given string. list->string returns a string formed from the proper list of characters chars. string->list and list->string are inverses so far as equal? is concerned. Implementations that provide destructive operations on strings should ensure that the results of these procedures are newly allocated objects.

(string-set! string n char) procedure

string must be a string, n must be a valid index of string, and char must be a character. Stores char in element n of string and returns an unspecified value.

(string-fill! string char) procedure

Stores char in every element of the given string and returns an unspecified value.

(string-copy string) procedure

Returns a newly allocated copy of the given string.

(substring-fill! string start end char) procedure

Stores char in elements start through end of the given string and returns an unspecified value.

(substring-move-right! s1 m1 n1 s2 m2) procedure
(substring-move-left! s1 m1 n1 s2 m2) procedure

s1 and s2 must be strings, m1 and n1 must be valid indexes of s1 with m1 <= n1 and m2 must be a valid index of s2. These procedures store the elements m1 through n1 of s1 into the string s2 starting at element m2 and return an unspecified value.

The procedures differ only when s1 and s2 are eq? and the substring being moved overlaps the substring being replaced. In this case, substring-move-right! copies serially, starting with the rightmost element and proceeding to the left, while substring-move-left! begins with the leftmost element and proceeds to the right.
II.9. Vectors

Vectors are heterogenous mutable structures whose elements are indexed by integers. 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. 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")

Implementations are not required to support this notation.

Vectors are created by the constructor procedure make-vector. The elements are accessed and assigned by the procedures vector-ref and vector-set!.

(vector? obj)

Returns #ttrue if obj is a vector, otherwise returns #ffalse.

(make-vector size)

Returns a newly allocated vector of size elements. If a second argument is given, then each element is initialized to fill. Otherwise the initial contents of each element is unspecified.

(vector obj ...)

Returns a newly allocated vector whose elements contain the given arguments. Analogous to list.

(vector 'a 'b 'c) --> #(a b c)

(vector-length vec)

Returns the number of elements in the vector vec.

(vector-ref vec k)

Returns the contents of element k of the vector vec. k must be a nonnegative integer less than (vector-length vec).

(vector-ref ' #(1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21) 5) --> 8

(vector-set! vec k obj)

Stores obj in element k of the vector vec. k must be a nonnegative integer less than (vector-length vec). The value returned by vector-set! is not
(let ((vec '(#(0 (2 2 2) "Anna")))
    (vector-set! vec 1 '("Sue" "Sue"))
    vec)
  -->(0
      ("Sue" "Sue")
      "Anna")

(vector->list vec) essential procedure
Returns a list of the objects contained in the elements of vec. See
list->vector.
(vector->list #'(dah dah didah)) -->(dah dah didah)

(list->vector els) essential procedure
Returns a newly created vector whose elements are initialized to the
elements of the proper list els.
(list->vector '(dididit dah)) -->(dididit dah)

(vector-fill! vec fill) procedure
Stores fill in every element of the vector vec. The value returned by
vector-fill! is not specified.
II.10. The object table

(object-hash obj)  procedure
(object-unhash a)  procedure

object-hash associates an integer with obj in a global table and returns obj. object-hash guarantees that distinct objects (in the sense of eq?) are associated with distinct integers. object-unhash takes an integer and returns the object associated with that integer if there is one, returning #false otherwise.

Rationale: object-hash and object-unhash can be implemented using association lists and the assq procedure, but the intent is that they be efficient hash functions for general objects. Furthermore it is intended that the Scheme system is free to destroy and reclaim the storage of objects that are accessible only through the object table. It follows that object-unhash is of questionable utility, as illustrated by the following scenario.

>>> (define x (cons 0 0))
 x
>>> (object-hash x)
 77
>>> (set! x 0)
 ...
>>> (gc) ; garbage collection occurs for some reason ...
>>> (object-unhash 77)
 ??? ; ill-defined: #false or (0 . 0)
II.11. Procedures

Procedures are created when lambda expressions are evaluated. Procedures do not have a standard printed representation.

The most common thing to do with a procedure is to call it with zero or more arguments. A Scheme procedure may also be stored in data structures or passed as an argument to procedures such as those described below.

\( (\text{apply } proc \text{ args}) \) essential procedure

\( (\text{apply } proc \text{ arg1 ... args}) \) procedure

\( proc \) must be a procedure and \( args \) must be a proper list of arguments. The first (essential) form calls \( proc \) with the elements of \( args \) as the actual arguments. The second form is a generalization of the first that calls \( proc \) with the elements of \( (\text{append } (\text{list } \text{arg1} ... ) \text{ args}) \) as the actual arguments.

\( (\text{apply } + (\text{list } 3 4)) \) => 7

\( (\text{define compose} \) (lambda (f g) \( (\text{lambda args} \) \( (f (\text{apply } g \text{ args})))) \)) => unspecified

\( ((\text{compose } 1+ *) 3 4) \) => 13

\( (\text{map } f \text{ plist}) \) essential procedure

\( (\text{map } f \text{ plist1 plist2 ...}) \) procedure

\( f \) must be a procedure of one argument and the \( \text{plists} \) must be proper lists. If more than one \( \text{plist} \) is given, then they should all be the same length. Applies \( f \) element-wise to the elements of the \( \text{plists} \) and returns a list of the results. The order in which \( f \) is applied to the elements of the \( \text{plists} \) is not specified.

\( (\text{map cadr } '((a b) (d e) (g h)))) \) => (b e h)

\( (\text{map } (\text{lambda } (n) (\text{expt } n \text{ n})) \) '
\( (1 2 3 4 5)) \) => (1 4 27 268 3125)

\( (\text{map } + ' (1 2 3) ' (4 5 6)) \) => (5 7 9)

\( (\text{let } ((\text{count } 0)) \) \( (\text{map } (\text{lambda } (\text{ignored}) \) \( (\text{set! count } (1+ \text{ count})) \) \( \text{count}) \) \( '(a b c)) \)) => unspecified
The arguments to for-each are like the arguments to map, but for-each calls \( f \) for its side effects rather than for its values. Unlike map, for-each is guaranteed to call \( f \) on the elements of the \( plists \) in order from the first element to the last, and the value returned by for-each is not specified.

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{let ((v (make-vector 5)))} & \\
(\text{for-each (lambda (i) (vector-set! v i (* i i)))}) & \\
(\text{v}) & \\
\rightarrow &(0 1 2 3 4))
\end{align*}
\]

\[
(\text{call-with-current-continuation } f)
\]

\( f \) must be a procedure of one argument. call-with-current-continuation packages up the current continuation (see the Rationale below) as an "escape procedure" and passes it as an argument to \( f \). The escape procedure is an ordinary 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 call-with-current-continuation. 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.

\[
(\text{call-with-current-continuation})
\]

\[
(\text{lambda (exit)})
\]

\[
(\text{for-each (lambda (x) (if (negative? x) (exit x)))})
\]

\[
'(54 0 37 -3 245 19))
\]

\#t --> -3
(define list-length
  (lambda (obj)
    (call-with-current-continuation
      (lambda (return)
        ((rec loop (lambda (obj)
                       (cond ((null? obj) 0)
                              ((pair? obj) (+ 1 (loop (cdr obj))))
                              (else (return #false))))
         obj))))
    -- > list-length

(list-length '(1 2 3 4))    -- > 4
(list-length '(a b . c))    -- > #false

Rationale: The classic 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 extremely useful for implementing a wide variety of advanced control structures.

Whenever a Scheme expression is evaluated there is a continuation wanting 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, then 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 rare occasions, however, when programmers need to do something fancy, then they may need to deal with continuations explicitly. call-with-current-continuation allows Scheme programmers to do that by creating a procedure that acts just like the current continuation.

Most serious programming languages incorporate one or more special purpose escape constructs with names like exit, return, or even goto. In 1965, however, Peter Landin invented a general purpose escape operator called the J-operator. John Reynolds described a simpler but equally powerful construct in 1972. The catch special form described by Sussman and Steele in the 1975 report on Scheme is exactly the same as Reynolds’s construct, though its name
came from a less general construct in MacLisp. The fact that the full power of Scheme's `catch could be obtained using a procedure rather than a special form was noticed in 1982 by the implementors of Scheme 311, and the name `call-with-current-continuation was coined later that year. Although the name is descriptive, some people feel it is too long and have taken to calling the procedure `call/cc.
II.12. Ports

Ports represent input and output devices. To Scheme, an input device is a Scheme object that can deliver characters upon command, while an output device is a Scheme object that can accept characters.

(call-with-input-file string proc) essential procedure
(call-with-output-file string proc) essential procedure

Proc is a procedure of one argument, and string is a string naming a file. For call-with-input-file, the file must already exist; for call-with-output-file, the effect is unspecified if the file already exists. Calls proc with one argument: the port obtained by opening the named file for input or output. If the file cannot be opened, an error is signalled. If the procedure returns, then the port is closed automatically and the value yielded by the procedure is returned. If the procedure does not return, then Scheme will not close the port unless it can prove that the port will never again be used for a read or write operation.

Rationale: 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-port or call-with-output-port.

(input-port? obj) essential procedure
(output-port? obj) essential procedure

Returns #true if obj is an input port or output port (respectively), otherwise returns #false.

(current-input-port) essential procedure
(current-output-port) essential procedure

Returns the current default input or output port.

(with-input-from-file string thunk) procedure
(with-output-to-file string thunk) procedure

thunk is a procedure of no arguments, and string is a string naming a file. For with-input-from-file, the file must already exist; for with-output-to-file, the effect is unspecified if the file already exists. 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. Furthermore, in contrast to call-with-input-file and call-with-output-file, these procedures will attempt to close the default port and restore the previous default whenever the current continuation changes in such a way as to make it doubtful that the thunk will ever return.

(open-input-file filename) procedure
Takes a string naming an existing file and returns an input port capable of delivering characters from the file. If the file cannot be opened, an error is signalled.

(open-output-file filename) procedure
Takes a string naming 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 is signalled. If a file with the given name already exists, the effect is unspecified.

(close-input-port port) procedure
(close-output-port port) procedure
Closes the file associated with port, rendering the port incapable of delivering or accepting characters. The value returned is not specified.
II.13. Input

The read procedure converts written representations of Scheme objects into the objects themselves. The written representations for Scheme objects are described in the sections devoted to the operations on those objects.

**EOF Object**

\[ \text{(eof-object? \ obj)} \]

Essential procedure

Returns \#t if \obj\ is an end of file object, otherwise returns \#f. The precise set of end of file objects will vary among implementations, but in any case no end of file object will ever be a character or an object that can be read in using read.

**Read**

\[ \text{(read \ port)} \]

Essential procedure

Returns the next object parsable from the given input \port\, updating \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 an object, then an end of file object is returned. 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. The \port\ argument may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-input-port.

**Rationale:** This corresponds to Common Lisp's read-preserving-whitespace, but for simplicity it is never an error to encounter end of file except in the middle of an object.

**Read Character**

\[ \text{(read-char \ port)} \]

Essential procedure

Returns the next character available from the input \port\, updating the \port\ to point to the following character. If no more characters are available, an end of file object is returned. \port\ may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-input-port.

**Char Ready?**

\[ \text{(char-ready? \ port)} \]

Procedure

Returns \#t if a character is ready on the input \port\ and returns \#f otherwise. If char-ready returns \#t then the next read-char operation on the given \port\ is guaranteed not to hang. If the \port\ is at end of file then char-ready returns \#f. \port\ may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-input-port.
Rationale: `char-ready?` exists to make it possible for a program to accept characters from interactive ports without getting stuck waiting for input. Any rubout handlers associated with such ports must ensure 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.

(load `filename`) essential procedure

`filename` should be a string naming an existing file containing Scheme source code. The `load` procedure reads expressions from the file and evaluates them sequentially as though they had been typed interactively. It is not specified whether the results of the expressions are printed, however. The `load` procedure does not affect the values returned by `current-input-port` and `current-output-port`. `load` returns an unspecified value.

Rationale: For portability `load` must operate on source files. Its operation on other kinds of files necessarily varies among implementations.
II.14. Output

(write obj) essential procedure
(write obj port) essential procedure

Writes a representation of obj to the given port. Strings that appear in the written representation are enclosed in doublequotes, and within those strings backslash and doublequote characters are escaped by backslashes. write returns an unspecified value. The port argument may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-output-port. See display.

(display obj) essential procedure
(display obj port) essential procedure

Writes a representation of obj to the given port. Strings that appear in the written representation are not enclosed in doublequotes, and no characters are escaped within those strings. display returns an unspecified value. The port argument may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-output-port. See write.

Rationale: Like Common Lisp's prin1 and princ, write is for producing machine-readable output and display is for producing human-readable output. Implementations that allow "slashification" within symbols will probably want write but not display to slashify funny characters in symbols.

(newline) essential procedure
(newline port) essential procedure

Writes an end of line to port. Exactly how this is done differs from one operating system to another. Returns an unspecified value. The port argument may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-output-port.

(write-char char) essential procedure
(write-char char port) essential procedure

Writes the character char (not a written representation of the character) to the given port and returns an unspecified value. The port argument may be omitted, in which case it defaults to the value returned by current-output-port.
(transcript-on filename) procedure
(transcript-off) procedure

Filename must be a string naming an output file to be created. The effect of transcript-on is to open the named file for output, and to cause a transcript of subsequent interaction between the user and the Scheme system to be written to the file. The transcript is ended by a call to transcript-off, which closes the transcript file. Only one transcript may be in progress at any time, though some implementations may relax this restriction. The values returned by these procedures are unspecified.

Rationale: These procedures are redundant in some systems, but systems that need them should provide them.
Bibliography and References


The Revised Revised Report on Scheme

Index

#false 22
#null 29
#true 22

; 12

*/ 39

+ 39

- 39

-1+ 39

/ 39

1+ 39

< 38

<= 38

<=? 38

<? 38

= 38

=? 38

> 38

>= 38

>=? 38

>? 38

' 20

abs 39

acos 41

and 15

angle 41

append 30

appendl 30

apply 57

asin 41

assoc 31

assq 31

assv 31

atan 41

backquote 20

begin 19

binding construct 11

bound 11

casaar 28
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caaadr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caaar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caadar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caaddr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caadr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadaar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadaadr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadadr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caddar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadddr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caddr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call-with-current-continuation</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call-with-input-file</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call-with-output-file</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>car</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdaaar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdaadr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdaar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdadar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdaddr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdadr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cddaar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cddadr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cddar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdddar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cddddr</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdddr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cddr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdr</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceiling</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-&gt;integer</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-alphabetic?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ci&lt;=?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ci&gt;?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ci=?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ci=&gt;?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ci?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-downcase</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-lower-case?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-numeric?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-ready?</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-upcase</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-upper-case?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char-whitespace?</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char&lt;=?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char&gt;?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char=?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char&gt;=?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char&gt;?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char?</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close-input-port</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close-output-port</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comment</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complex?</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cond</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constant</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cos</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current-input-port</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current-output-port</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>define</td>
<td>17, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>display</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>else</td>
<td>14, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>empty list</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environment</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eof-object?</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eq?</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equal?</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eqv?</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essential</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even?</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exact-&gt;inexact</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exact?</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exact numbers</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exactness</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exp</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expt</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fix</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flo</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floor</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for-each</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formats</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gcd</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heur</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identifier</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imag-part</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inexact numbers</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inexact-&gt;exact</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inexact?</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>input-port?</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integer-&gt;char</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integer?</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keyword</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lambda</td>
<td>12, 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last-pair</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lcm</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let*</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letrec</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list-&gt;string</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list-&gt;vector</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list-ref</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list-tail</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>load</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>macros</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magnitude</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make-polar</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make-rectangular</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make-string</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make-vector</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>map</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>member</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memq</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memv</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modulo</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>named-lambda</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative?</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>newline</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nil</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
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